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# Preface

The ninth edition of *Calculus* is again a modest revision. Some topics have been added, and some of the topics have been rearranged, but the spirit of the book has remained unchanged. Users of previous editions have reported success, and we have no intention of overhauling a workable text.

To many, this book would still be considered a traditional text. Most theorems are proved, left as an exercise, or left unproved when the proof is too difficult. When a proof is difficult, we try to give an intuitive explanation to make the result plausible before going on to the next topic. In some cases, we give a sketch of a proof, in which case we explain why it is a sketch and not a rigorous proof. The focus is still on understanding the concepts of calculus. While some see the emphasis on clear, rigorous presentation as being a distraction to understanding calculus, we see the two as complementary. Students are more likely to grasp the concepts of calculus if terms are clearly defined and theorems are clearly stated and proved.

**A Brief Text** The ninth edition continues to be the briefest of all the successful mainstream calculus texts. We have tried to prevent the text from ballooning upward with new topics and alternative approaches. In less than 800 pages, we cover the major topics of calculus, including a preliminary chapter, and the material from limits to vector calculus. In the last few decades, students have developed some bad habits. They prefer not to read the textbook. They want to find the appropriate worked-out example so it can be matched to their homework problem. Our goal with this text continues to be to keep calculus as a course focused on some few basic ideas centered around words, formulas, and graphs. Solving problem sets, while crucial to developing mathematical and problem-solving skills, should not overshadow the goal of understanding calculus.

**Concepts Review Problems** To encourage students to read the textbook with understanding, we begin every problem set with four fill-in-the-blank items. These test the mastery of the basic vocabulary, understanding of theorems, and ability to apply the concepts in the simplest settings. Students should respond to these items before proceeding to the later problems. We encourage this by giving immediate feedback; the correct answers are given at the end of the problem set. These items also make good quiz questions to see whether students have done the required reading and have prepared for class.

**Review and Preview Problems** We have also included a set of Review and Preview Problems between the end of one chapter and the beginning of the next. Many of these problems force students to review past topics before starting the new chapter. For example,

- Chapter 3, Applications of Derivatives: Students are asked to solve inequalities like the ones that arise when we ask where a function is increasing/decreasing or concave up/down.
- Chapter 7, Techniques of Integration: Students are asked to evaluate a number of integrals involving the method of substitution, the only substantive technique they have learned up to this point. Lacking skill using this technique would spell disaster in Chapter 7.
- Chapter 13, Multiple Integration: Students are asked to sketch the graphs of equations in Cartesian, cylindrical, and spherical coordinates. Visualizing regions in two- and three-space is key to understanding multiple integration.

Other Review and Preview Problems ask the student to use what they already know to get a head start on the upcoming chapter. For example,

- **Chapter 5, Applications of Integration:** Students are asked to find the length of a line segment between two functions, exactly the skill required to perform the *draw*, *approximate*, and *integrate* in the chapter. Also, students are asked to find the volume of a small disk, washer, and shell. Having worked these out before beginning the chapter would make the students better prepared to understand the idea of *draw*, *approximate*, and *integrate* as it applies to finding volumes of solids of revolution.
- **Chapter 8, Indeterminate Forms and Improper Integrals:** Students are asked to find the value of an integral like  $\int_1^a x^{-a} dx$ , for  $a = 1, 2, 4, 8, 16$ . We hope that students will work a problem like this and realize that as  $a$  grows, the value of the integral gets close to 1, thereby setting up the idea of improper integrals. There are similar problems involving sums before the chapter on infinite series.

**Number Sense** Number sense continues to play an important role in the book. All calculus students make numerical mistakes in solving problems, but the ones with the number sense recognize an absurd answer and rework the problem. To encourage and develop this important ability, we have emphasized the estimation process. We suggest how to make mental estimates and how to arrive at ballpark numerical answers. We have increased our own use of this in the text, using the symbol  $\approx$  where we make a ballpark estimate. We hope students do the same, especially in problems with the  $\approx$  mark.

**Use of Technology** Many problems in the ninth edition are flagged with one of these symbols:

$\square$  indicates that an ordinary scientific calculator will be helpful

$\square$  indicates that a graphing calculator is required

$\square$  indicates that a computer algebra system is required

The Technology Projects that were at the end of the chapters in the eighth edition are now available on the Web in pdf files.

**Changes in the Ninth Edition** The basic structure, and the overriding spirit, of the text has remained unchanged. Here are the most significant changes in the ninth edition:

- There is a set of Review and Preview Problems between the end of one chapter and the beginning of the next.
- The preliminary chapter, now called Chapter 0, has been condensed. The “pre-calculus” topics (that were in the beginning of Chapter 2 of the eighth edition) are now placed in Chapter 0. In the ninth edition, Chapter 1 begins with limits. How much of Chapter 0 needs to be covered depends on the background of the students and will vary from institution to institution.
- The sections on antiderivatives and an introduction to differential equations have been moved to Chapter 3. This allows a clear break between “rate of change” concepts and “accumulation” concepts, because Chapter 4 now begins with area, followed immediately by the definite integral and the fundamental theorem of calculus. “It has been the author’s experience that many first-year students of calculus fail to make a clear distinction between the very different concepts of the indefinite integral (or antiderivative) and the definite integral as the limit of a sum.” That was from the first edition, published in 1965, and it is just as true today. We hope that separating these topics will draw attention to the distinction.

- Probability and fluid pressure have been added to the Chapter 5, Applications of Integration. We emphasize that probability problems are treated much like mass problems along a line. The center of mass is the integral of  $x$  times the density, and the expectation in probability is the integral of  $x$  times the (probability) density.
- Material on conic sections has been condensed from five sections into three sections. Students have seen much (but not all) of this material in their precalculus courses.
- Vectors have been consolidated into a single chapter. In the eighth edition, we covered plane vectors in Chapter 13 and space vectors in Chapter 14. With this approach, we ended up repeating a number of topics, such as the dot product and curvature, in Chapter 14. The approach in the ninth edition is to cover vectors once. Most of the presentation is in terms of vectors in space, but we point out how plane vectors work. The context of a problem should dictate whether plane vectors or space vectors are needed.
- There are examples and an exercise on Kepler's Laws of Planetary Motion. The material on vectors culminates in the derivation of Kepler's laws from Newton's Law of Gravitation. We derive Kepler's second and third laws in examples, leaving the first law as an exercise. In this exercise, students are guided through the steps, (a) through (f), of the derivation.
- Chapter 13, Multiple Integration, now ends with a section on change of variables in multiple integrals using the Jacobian.
- The sections on numerical methods have been placed in appropriate places throughout the text. For example, the section on solving equations numerically has become Section 3.7; numerical integration has become Section 4.6; approximations for differential equations has become Section 6.7; and the Taylor approximation to a function has become Section 9.9.
- The chapter on differential equation has been removed, but it is available to users on the Web. The text already contains numerous sections on differential equations, including slope fields and Euler's method.
- The number of conceptual questions has increased significantly. Many more problems ask the student for graphs. We have also increased the use of numerical methods, such as Newton's method and numerical integration, in problems that cannot be treated analytically.

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## STUDENT RESOURCES

### Student Study Pack

Everything a student needs is merged in one place. It is packaged with the book, or can be available for purchase stand-alone. Study Pack contains:

- **Student Solutions Manual**  
Fully worked solutions to odd-numbered exercises.
- **Personal Tutor Center**  
Tutors provide one-on-one tutoring for any problem with an answer at the back of the book. Students access the Tutor Center via toll-free phone, live, or email. Available only to college students in the U.S. and Canada.
- **CD Lecture Series**  
A comprehensive set of CD-ROMs, tied to the textbook, containing short video clips of an instructor working key brick examples.

## INSTRUCTOR RESOURCES

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- **Instructor Solutions Manual**  
Fully worked solutions to all textbook exercises and chapter projects.
- **Technology Projects**
- **Chapter 15, Differential Equations**  
The entire chapter is available in pdf for download.

- 0.1 Real Numbers, Estimation, and Logic
- 0.2 Inequalities and Absolute Values
- 0.3 The Rectangular Coordinate System
- 0.4 Graphs of Equations
- 0.5 Functions and Their Graphs
- 0.6 Operations on Functions
- 0.7 Trigonometric Functions

## 0.1

## Real Numbers, Estimation, and Logic

Calculus is based on the real number system and its properties. But what are the real numbers and what are their properties? To answer, we start with some simpler number systems.

**The Integers and the Rational Numbers** The simplest numbers of all are the **natural numbers**,

$$1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, \dots$$

With them we can *count* our books, our friends, and our money. If we include their negatives and zero, we obtain the **integers**

$$\dots, -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

When we *measure* length, weight, or voltage, the integers are inadequate. They are spaced too far apart to give sufficient precision. We are led to consider quotients (ratios) of integers (Figure 1), numbers such as

$$\frac{3}{4}, \frac{-7}{8}, \frac{21}{5}, \frac{19}{-2}, \frac{16}{2}, \text{ and } \frac{-17}{1}$$

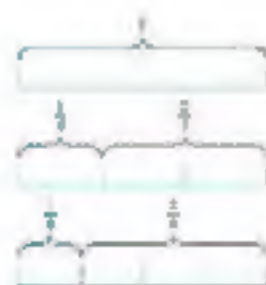


Figure 1



Figure 2

Note that we included  $\frac{16}{2}$  and  $\frac{-17}{1}$ , though we would normally write them as 8 and  $-17$  since they are equal to the latter by the ordinary meaning of division. We did not include  $\frac{1}{0}$  or  $\frac{-2}{0}$  since it is impossible to make sense out of these symbols (see Problem 30). Remember always that division by 0 is never allowed. Numbers that can be written in the form  $\frac{m}{n}$ , where  $m$  and  $n$  are integers with  $n \neq 0$ , are called **rational numbers**.

Do the rational numbers serve to measure all lengths? No. This surprising fact was discovered by the ancient Greeks in about the fifth century B.C. They showed that while  $\sqrt{2}$  measures the hypotenuse of a right triangle with legs of length 1 (Figure 2),  $\sqrt{2}$  cannot be written as a quotient of two integers (see Problem 77). Thus,  $\sqrt{2}$  is an **irrational** (not rational) number. So are  $\sqrt{3}$ ,  $\sqrt{5}$ ,  $\sqrt[3]{7}$ ,  $\pi$ , and a host of other numbers.

**The Real Numbers** Consider all numbers (rational and irrational) that can measure lengths, together with their negatives and zero. We call these numbers the **real numbers**.

The real numbers may be viewed as labels for points along a horizontal line. There they measure the distance to the right or left (the **directed distance**) from a







In Example 1, we have used  $\approx$  to mean "approximately equal" (the  $\approx$  symbol in your search will give you a link to a page with more information on this symbol). We never use this symbol without knowing how large the error could be.

[illegible]

<sup>(1)</sup> However, unlike the case of the answer before work by the participant, this choice was associated with a significant increase in heart rate.

that the answer is wrong. It is far too big or far too small, and recognize a correct. It is important to know how to make a mental estimate.

**EXAMPLE 2** Calculate  $(\sqrt{430} \div 72 \div \sqrt[3]{73})/2.75$ .

**SOLUTION** A wise student approximated  $\sqrt{430} \approx \sqrt{400 + 30} \approx 20 + 3 = 23$  and he or she would think to call the number  $\sqrt{430}$  *z*. Thus when a calculator gave  $\sqrt{430}$  for an answer she was suspicious she had actually calculated  $\sqrt{430 + 72} = \sqrt{502} \approx 22.5$ .

On recalculation, she got the correct answer, 34,434.

Suppose that the shaded region  $R$  shown in Figure 9 is bounded by the parabola  $y = 1 - x^2$  and the  $x$ -axis. Find the area of  $R$ .

[illegible]

The process of estimation is an iterative process in some sense. Initially, we obtain an initial approximation. We use that and frequently copy it's value into the place where we are going to get a precise value. Then, when your answer is close to your estimate, there is no guarantee that you will be correct. On the other hand if you answer the question with a "proper" technique, by taking a small step, you should get a better answer. If you open the door. Remember that a 1000 ft x 1000 ft area is 1,000,000 square feet and a 4000 ft x 4000 ft area is 16,000,000 square feet.

[illegible][illegible]

A **proof** consists of showing that  $O$  must be true whenever  $P$  is true.

Beginning students (and some mature ones) may confuse  $P \rightarrow Q$  with its converse,  $Q \rightarrow P$ . To see this, take the following: "If John is a Missourian, then John is an American" is a true statement, but its converse "If John is an American, then John is a Missourian" may not be true.

The **negation** of the statement " $P$  was a  $P$ " is an example of  $P$  is he said men. It is also the  $\neg P$  or the statement "It is not raining" he said men. ( $\neg$  is  $P$  is false) is **contrapositive** of the statement " $P \Rightarrow Q$ " in the same way as  $P \Rightarrow Q$  is equivalent we mean that  $P \Rightarrow Q$  and  $Q \Rightarrow P$  are the both true or both false. For an example that John is contrapositive of "John is a Missourian, then John is an American" is "If John is not an American, then John is not a Missourian."

Because a statement and its contrapositive are equivalent, we can prove a theorem of the form “If  $P$  then  $Q$ ” by proving its contrapositive “If  $\neg Q$  then  $\neg P$ .”

### Proof by Contradiction

Proof by contradiction also goes by the name *reductio ad absurdum*. There is what the great mathematician G. H. Hardy had to say about it:

"Reductio ad absurdum, which Euclid knew so much, is one of the mathematician's finest weapons. It is a far finer gambit than any chess gambit: a chess player may offer the sacrifice of a piece or even the sacrifice of a queen or even a king, but a mathematician sacrifices the game."

### Order on the Real Line

To say that  $x < y$  means that  $x$  is to the left of  $y$  on the real line:



### The Order Properties

**Trichotomy.** If  $x$  and  $y$  are numbers, then exactly one of the following holds:

$$x = y, \quad x < y, \quad \text{or} \quad x > y$$

**2. Transitivity.**  $x < y$  and  $y < z$

imply

$$x < z$$

**Multiplication.** When  $x > y$

$$\text{and } z > 0, \quad xz > yz$$

When  $z < 0$ , we have

$$xz < yz$$

Thus to prove  $P \Rightarrow Q$  we can assume  $\neg Q$  and try to deduce  $\neg P$ . Here is a simple example:

**EXAMPLE 3** Prove that if  $n$  is even, then  $n^2$  is even.

**Proof** The contrapositive of this sentence is "If  $n$  is not even, then  $n$  is not even," which is equivalent to "If  $n$  is odd, then  $n^2$  is odd." We will prove the contrapositive. If  $n$  is odd, then there exists an integer  $k$  such that  $n = 2k + 1$ . Then

$$n^2 = (2k + 1)^2 = 4k^2 + 4k + 1 = 2(2k^2 + 2k) + 1$$

Therefore  $n^2$  is equal to one more than twice an integer, so  $n^2$  is odd. ■

The **Law of the Excluded Middle** says either  $R$  or  $\neg R$ , but not both. Any proof that begins by assuming the conclusion of  $R$  or the negation is false and then deducing that assumption leads to a contradiction is called a **proof by contradiction**.

On occasion we will need to use a type of proof called **mathematical induction**. It is said to be as far as it is possible to get in logic, but we have given a complete discussion in Appendix A.1.

Sometimes both the statements  $P \Rightarrow Q$  (if  $P$  then  $Q$ ) and  $Q \Rightarrow P$  (if  $Q$  then  $P$ ) are true. In this case we write  $P \Leftrightarrow Q$ , which is read " $P$  if and only if  $Q$ ." For example, we showed that "If  $n$  is even, then  $n^2$  is even," but the inverse is also true: "If  $n^2$  is even, then  $n$  is even." Thus we would say that  $n^2$  is even if and only if  $n$  is even.

The positive real numbers separate into two sets: the positive and the negative real numbers. This fact allows us to introduce the order relation  $<$  (read "is less than") by

$$x < y \Leftrightarrow x - y \text{ is positive.}$$

We write  $0 < x$  and  $x < 0$  as  $x$  is **positive** or **negative**, respectively. Thus  $3 < 5$ ,  $-3 < -5$ , and  $2 < -3$ .

The order relation  $<$  (read "is less than" or "equal to") is a **total ordering** if it is total, that is,

$$x < y \Leftrightarrow y - x \text{ is positive or zero}$$

Order properties 1–4 hold with the negative sign and when the symbols  $<$  and  $>$  are replaced by  $\leq$  and  $\geq$ .

**EXAMPLE 4** Many logical statements in one variable are true or false. The value of the statement depends on the value of  $x$ . For example, is the compound statement "if  $x$  is a real number, then  $x$  is the value of  $x$  is true" true or false? It seems to be:  $x = 3$  implies  $x = 3$ ,  $x = 10,001$  implies  $x = 10,001$ , and  $x = 49$  implies  $x = 49$ , and take for other values of  $x$ , such as  $x = 2, 3, 77$ , and so on. Some statements, such as " $x^2$  is true for all real numbers  $x$  and  $x$  is true for all  $x$ ," such as " $x$  is an even number greater than 5 and  $x$  is in the number line" are always true. We will let  $P(x)$  denote a statement whose truth depends on the value of  $x$ .

We say "**For all**  $x$ ,  $P(x)$ " or "**For every**  $x$ ,  $P(x)$ " when the statement  $P(x)$  is true for every value of  $x$ . When there is at least one value of  $x$  for which  $P(x)$  is true we say "There exists an  $x$  such that  $P(x)$ ." The two important quantifiers are "for all" and "there exists."

**EXAMPLE 5** Which of the following statements is true?

- For all  $x$ ,  $x^2 > 0$ .
- For all  $x$ ,  $x < 0 \Rightarrow x > 0$ .
- For every  $x$ , there exists a  $y$  such that  $y > x$ .
- There exists a  $y$  such that for all  $x$ ,  $y > x$ .

## SOLUTION

(a) **False.** If we choose  $x = 0$ , then it is not true that  $x^2 > 0$ .(b) **True.** If  $x$  is negative, then  $x^2$  will be positive.

15. **True.** The statement contains “ $\forall$ ” quantifiers “for every” and “ $\exists$ ” quantifiers “there exists.” To read the statement correctly we must apply them in the right order. The statement begins “for every,” so let the statement alone, then what follows must be true for every value of  $x$  that we choose. If you are not sure whether the whole statement is true, try a few values of  $x$  and see whether the second part of the statement is true or false. For example, we might choose  $x = 50$ ; given this choice does there exist a  $y$  that is greater than 100? In other words, is there a number greater than 100? Yes, of course. The number 101 would do. Next, change another value for  $x$ , say  $x = 1,000,000$ . Does there exist a  $y$  that is greater than this value of  $x$ ? Again, yes, in this case the number 1,000,001 would do. So we ask, “can I find a larger real number  $y$  for  $x = 1$ ?” The answer is yes. Just choose  $y$  to be  $x + 1$ .

16. **False.** The statement says that there is a real number that is larger than every other real number. In other words, there is a largest real number. This is false here is a proof by contradiction. Suppose that there exists a largest real number  $x$ . Let  $y = x + 1$ . Then  $x > y$ , which is contrary to the assumption that  $x$  is the largest real number. ■

The **negation** of the statement “for every  $x$ ,  $P(x)$ ” is “there exists an  $x$  such that  $P(x)$  is false.” The negation of the statement “there exists an  $x$  such that  $P(x)$ ” is “for every  $x$ ,  $P(x)$  is false.” If this negated statement is true, then there must be at least one value of  $x$  for which  $P(x)$  is false; in other words, there exists an  $x$  such that  $P(x)$  is false. Now consider the negation of the statement “there exists an  $x$  such that  $P(x)$ ” (the negated statement). Suppose there is not a value of  $x$  which  $P(x)$  is false. This means that  $P(x)$  is false no matter what  $x$  is, so  $P(x)$  is true for every  $x$ . In symbols,

The negation of “for all  $x$ ,  $P(x)$ ” is “there exists an  $x$  such that not  $P(x)$ .”

The negation of “there exists an  $x$  such that  $P(x)$ ” is “for every  $x$ , not  $P(x)$ .”

## Concepts Review

1. Numbers that can be written as the ratio of two integers are called **rationals**.

2. Between any two real numbers, there is another real number. This is what is meant to say that the real numbers are **dense**.

3. The collection of all  $P(x)$  is called the **domain**.

4. Axioms and definitions are taken for granted but **not** **proven**.

## Problem Set 0.1

In Problems 1–16, simplify as much as possible. Be sure to remove all parentheses and reduce all fractions.

1.  $4 + 7 - 8 - 6 - 2 - 11 + 3$

2.  $0[(4 - 3 + 2 - 4 + 2)(3 - 7)]$

3.  $5[(-7 + 2 - 15) + 4] + 3$

4.  $5 - 17 + 2 - 15 + 4 + 3$

5.  $6 - 17 + 2 - 15 + 4 + 3$

6.  $6 - 17 + 2 - 15 + 4 + 3$

7.  $6 - 17 + 2 - 15 + 4 + 3$

8.  $6 - 17 + 2 - 15 + 4 + 3$

9.  $\frac{14}{21} \left( \frac{2}{3} - \frac{1}{4} \right)$

10.  $\left( \frac{2}{3} - 6 \right) / (1 - 3)$

11.  $\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{3}$

12.  $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3}$

13.  $(2 - 5 + \sqrt{3})(\sqrt{5} - \sqrt{3})$

14.  $(\sqrt{5} - \sqrt{3})^2$

15.  $(2 - 5 + \sqrt{3})(\sqrt{5} - \sqrt{3})$

16.  $(\sqrt{5} - \sqrt{3})^2$

17.  $(2 - 5 + \sqrt{3})(\sqrt{5} - \sqrt{3})$

18.  $(\sqrt{5} - \sqrt{3})^2$

19.  $(2 - 5 + \sqrt{3})(\sqrt{5} - \sqrt{3})$

20.  $(\sqrt{5} - \sqrt{3})^2$

21.  $(2 - 5 + \sqrt{3})(\sqrt{5} - \sqrt{3})$

22.  $(\sqrt{5} - \sqrt{3})^2$

$$23. \frac{x}{x} \cdot \frac{4}{2}$$

$$25. \frac{r}{r} \cdot \frac{4t}{t} \cdot \frac{2t}{2t}$$

$$27. \frac{2}{x^2 + 2x} + \frac{4}{x} + \frac{2}{x + 2}$$

29. Find the value of each of the following; if undefined, say so.

$$(a) \frac{0}{0}$$

$$(b) \frac{0}{0}$$

$$(c) \frac{0}{0}$$

$$(d) \frac{1}{0}$$

$$(e) 0^0$$

$$(f) 7^0$$

39. Show that division by 0 is meaningless as follows. Suppose that  $a \neq 0$ . If  $a/0 = b$ , then  $a = 0 \cdot b = 0$ , which is a contradiction. Now find a reason why  $0/0$  is also meaningless.

In Problems 31–36, change each rational number to a decimal by performing long division.

$$31. \frac{1}{7}$$

$$32. \frac{2}{3}$$

$$33. \frac{5}{11}$$

$$34. \frac{5}{9}$$

$$35. \frac{1}{4}$$

$$36. \frac{1}{5}$$

In Problems 37–42, change each repeating decimal to a ratio of two integers (see Example 1).

$$37. 0.123123 \dots$$

$$38. 0.117777 \dots$$

$$39. 2.56565656 \dots$$

$$40. 3.929292 \dots$$

$$41. 0.199999 \dots$$

$$42. 0.399999 \dots$$

43. Since  $0.199999 \dots = 0.200000 \dots$  and  $0.399999 \dots = 0.400000 \dots$  (see Problems 41 and 42), we see that certain rational numbers have two different decimal expansions. Which rational numbers have this property?

44. Show that any rational number  $p/q$ , for which the prime factorization of  $q$  consists entirely of 2s and 5s, has a terminating decimal expansion.

45. Find a positive rational number and a positive irrational number both smaller than 0.00001.

46. What is the smallest positive integer? The smallest positive rational number? The smallest positive irrational number?

47. Find a rational number between  $3.14159$  and  $\pi$ . Note that  $\pi = 3.141592 \dots$

48. Is there a number between  $0.9999 \dots$  (repeating 9s) and 1? How do you resolve this with the statement that between any two different real numbers there is another real number?

49. Is  $0.123456789101112 \dots$  rational or irrational? (You should see a pattern in the given sequence of digits.)

50. Find two irrational numbers whose sum is rational.

51. In Problems 51–56, find the best decimal approximation that your calculator allows. Begin by making a mental estimate.

$$51. \sqrt{3} + 1$$

$$52. (\sqrt{2} - \sqrt{3})^4$$

$$53. \sqrt[3]{.123} - \sqrt[3]{.09}$$

$$54. (3.14 - 5)^{-1}$$

$$55. \sqrt{8.9\pi} + 3\pi$$

$$56. \sqrt[3]{(6\pi - 7)\pi}$$

57. Show that between any two different real numbers there is a rational number. *Hint:* If  $a < b$ , then  $b - a > 0$ , so there is a natural number  $n$  such that  $1/n < b - a$ . Consider the set  $\{k/n : k \in \mathbb{N}, k/n > a\}$  and use the fact that a set of integers that is bounded from below contains a least element.) Show that between any

two different real numbers there are infinitely many rational numbers.

58. Estimate the number of cubic inches in your head.

59. Estimate the length of the equator in feet. Assume the radius of the earth to be 4000 miles.

60. About how many times has your heart beat by your twelfth birthday?

61. The General Sherman tree in California is about 270 feet tall and averages about 6 feet in diameter. Estimate the number of board feet (1 board foot equals 1 inch by 12 inches by 12 inches) of lumber that could be made from this tree, assuming no waste and ignoring the branches.

62. Assume that the General Sherman tree (Problem 61) produces an annual growth ring of thickness 0.004 foot. Estimate the resulting increase in the volume of its trunk each year.

63. Write the converse and the contrapositive to the following statements.

(a) If it rains today, then I will stay home from work.

(b) If the candidate meets all the qualifications, then she will be hired.

64. Write the converse and the contrapositive to the following statements.

(a) If I get an A on the final exam, I will pass the course.

(b) If I finish my research paper by Friday, then I will take off next week.

65. Write the converse and the contrapositive to the following statements.

(a) (Let  $a$ ,  $b$ , and  $c$  be the lengths of sides of a triangle.) If  $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$ , then the triangle is a right triangle.

(b) If angle  $ABC$  is acute, then its measure is greater than  $0^\circ$  and less than  $90^\circ$ .

66. Write the converse and the contrapositive to the following statements.

(a) If the measure of angle  $ABC$  is  $45^\circ$ , then angle  $ABC$  is an acute angle.

(b) If  $a < b$ , then  $a^2 < b^2$ .

67. Consider the statements in Problem 65 along with their converses and contrapositives. Which are true?

68. Consider the statements in Problem 66 along with their converses and contrapositives. Which are true?

69. Use the rules regarding the negation of statements involving quantifiers to write the negation of the following statements. Which is true, the original statement or its negation?

(a) Every isosceles triangle is equilateral.

(b) There is a real number that is not an integer.

(c) Every natural number is less than or equal to its square.

70. Use the rules regarding the negation of statements involving quantifiers to write the negation of the following statements. Which is true, the original statement or its negation?

(a) Every natural number is rational.

(b) There is a circle whose area is larger than  $9\pi$ .

(c) Every real number is larger than its square.

71. Which of the following are true? Assume that  $x$  and  $y$  are real numbers.

(a) For every  $x$ ,  $x > 0 \Rightarrow x^2 > 0$ .



- (g) For every  $x, x > 0 \Leftrightarrow x^2 > 0$   
 (h) For every  $x, x^2 > x$   
 (i) For every  $x$  there exists  $\alpha, \beta$  such that  $x > \alpha$   
 (j) For every positive number  $\alpha$ , there exists another positive number  $\beta$  such that  $0 < \beta < \alpha$

**72.** Which of the following are true? Unless it is stated otherwise, assume that  $x, y$ , and  $z$  are real numbers.

- (a) For every  $x, x < x + 1$   
 (b) If  $x$  is a natural number,  $\frac{1}{x}$  is such that all  $y, y$  numbers are less than  $\frac{1}{y}$ . A **prime number** is a natural number whose only divisors are 1 and itself.  
 (c) For every  $x > 0$ , there exists a  $y$  such that  $y > \frac{1}{x}$

(d) For every positive  $x$ , there exists a natural number  $n$  such that  $\frac{1}{n} < x$

(e) For every positive  $n$ , there exists a natural number  $n$  such that  $\frac{1}{n} < n$ .

**73.** Prove the following statements:

- (a) If  $n$  is odd, then  $n$  is odd. (Hint: If  $n$  is odd, then there exists an integer  $k$  such that  $n = 2k + 1$ .)  
 (b) If  $n^2$  is odd, then  $n$  is odd. (Hint: Prove the contrapositive.)

**74.** Prove that  $n$  is odd if and only if  $n^2$  is odd. (See Problem 73.)

**75.** According to the **Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic**, every natural number greater than 1 can be written as the product of primes in a unique way, except for the order of the factors. For example,  $45 = 3 \cdot 3 \cdot 5$ . Write each of the following as a product of primes.

- (a) 24 (b) 124 (c) 510

**76.** Use the Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic (Problem 75) to show that the square of any natural number greater than 1 can be written as the product of primes in a unique way, except for the order of the factors, with each prime appearing  $n$  or  $2n$  number of times. The example,  $45^2 = 3 \cdot 3 \cdot 3 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 5$ .

**77.** Show that  $\sqrt{2}$  is irrational. *Hint:* Try a proof by **contradiction**. Suppose that  $\sqrt{2} = p/q$ , where  $p$  and  $q$  are natural numbers (necessarily different from 1). Then  $2 = p^2/q^2$  and so  $2q^2 = p^2$ . Now use Problem 76 to get a contradiction.

**78.** Show that  $\sqrt{3}$  is irrational (see Problem 77).

**79.** Show that the sum of two rational numbers is rational.

**80.** Show that the product of a rational number (other than 0) and an irrational number is irrational. *Hint:* Try proof by **contradiction**.

**81.** Which of the following are rational and which are irrational?

- (a)  $\sqrt{4}$  (b)  $0.1^{\pi}$   
 (c)  $\{1\sqrt{2}\}\{5\sqrt{2}\}$  (d)  $(1 + \sqrt{2})^2$

**82.** A number  $b$  is called an **upper bound** for a set  $S$  of numbers if  $x \leq b$  for all  $x$  in  $S$ . For example, 5, 6.5, and 15 are upper bounds for the set  $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ . The number 5 is the **least upper bound** for  $S$  (the smallest of all upper bounds). Similarly, 1.5, 2, and 2.5 are upper bounds for the infinite set  $T = \{1.4, 1.41, 1.414, 1.4142, \dots\}$ , whereas 1.5 is its least upper bound. Find the least upper bound of each of the following sets.

- (a)  $S = \{1, 4, 9, 16, \dots\}$   
 (b)  $S = \{2, 3.1, 2.11, 2.111, 2.1111, \dots\}$   
 (c)  $S = \{2.4, 2.44, 2.444, 2.4444, \dots\}$   
 (d)  $S = \{1, 1.1, 1.11, 1.111, \dots\}$   
 (e)  $S = \{x \mid x \text{ is a real number and } x \text{ has no digits after the decimal point}\}$   
 (f)  $S = \{x \mid x \text{ is a real number and } x \text{ has no digits after the decimal point and } x = (-1)^n + 1/n, \text{ where } n \text{ is a positive integer}\}$   
 (g)  $S = \{x \mid x^2 < 2, x \text{ a rational number}\}$

**83.** The **Axiom of Completeness** for the real numbers says: If  $S$  is a set of real numbers and  $b$  is a real number such that  $x \leq b$  for all  $x$  in  $S$ , then there is a least upper bound for  $S$ .

- (a) Show that the statement is false if the word "real" is replaced by "rational".  
 (b) Would the statement be true or false if the word "real" is replaced by "irrational"?

**Solutions to Selected Exercises:** 1. rational numbers  
 2. dense 3. "if and only if" 4. theorem

## 1.2 Inequalities and Absolute Values

Solving equations (for instance,  $3x - 17 = 8$  or  $x^2 + x - 6 = 0$ ) is one of the traditional tasks of mathematics; it will be important in the course and we assume that you remember how to do it. But it is equally important in calculus is the notion of solving an inequality (e.g.,  $3x - 17 < 8$  or  $x^2 + x - 6 \leq 0$ ). To solve an inequality is to find the set of all real numbers that make the inequality true. It can lead to an equation whose solution is a number  $x$  or a set of numbers. In particular, a set of numbers  $x$  that satisfy an inequality is usually given as an interval of numbers or, in some cases, the union of such intervals.

**Intervals.** Several kinds of intervals will arise in our work and we introduce special symbols and notation for them. The inequality  $a < x < b$  which is denoted by the inequalities  $a < x$  and  $x < b$  describes the **open interval** consisting of all numbers between  $a$  and  $b$  and including the endpoints  $a$  and  $b$ . We denote this interval by the symbol  $[a, b]$  if  $a \leq b$ . In contrast, the inequality  $a < x < b$  describes the corresponding **closed interval**, which does include the endpoints  $a$  and  $b$ .



Figure 1.2



$b$ . This interval is denoted by  $(a, b)$  (Figure 2). The figure indicates the wide variety of possibilities and introduces our notation.

Set Notation	Interval Notation	Graph
$\{x \mid a < x < b\}$	$(a, b)$	
$\{x \mid a \leq x \leq b\}$	$[a, b]$	
$\{x \mid a \leq x < b\}$	$[a, b)$	
$\{x \mid a < x \leq b\}$	$(a, b]$	
$\{x \mid x \leq b\}$	$(-\infty, b]$	
$\{x \mid x \geq a\}$	$[a, \infty)$	
$\{x \mid x < a\}$	$(-\infty, a)$	
$\{x \mid x > a\}$	$(a, \infty)$	
$\mathbb{R}$	$(-\infty, \infty)$	

**EXAMPLE 1** As with equations, the process of finding the solution set for an inequality is a matter of order: first the inequality is simplified, and then the solution set is obtained. We may perform certain operations on both sides of an inequality without changing its solution set. In particular:

1. We may add the same number to both sides of an inequality.
2. We may multiply both sides of an inequality by the same positive number.
3. We may multiply both sides of an inequality by the same negative number, but then we must reverse the direction of the inequality sign.

**EXAMPLE 2** Solve the inequality  $2x - 4 \leq 2$  and show the solution set.

**SOLUTION**

$$\begin{aligned}
 2x - 4 &\leq 2 && \text{Given} \\
 2x &\leq 4x + 5 && \text{(adding 4)} \\
 -2x &\leq 5 && \text{(adding } -4x) \\
 x &\geq -\frac{5}{2} && \text{(multiplying by } -\frac{1}{2})
 \end{aligned}$$

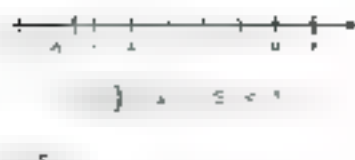
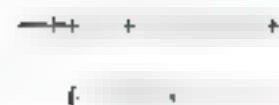
The graph appears in Figure 3.

**EXAMPLE 3** Solve  $x - 2 \leq 6 - 4$ .

**SOLUTION**

$$\begin{aligned}
 x - 2 &\leq 6 - 4 && \text{Given} \\
 11 &\leq 2x && \text{(adding 4)} \\
 x &\geq \frac{11}{2} && \text{(multiplying by } \frac{1}{2})
 \end{aligned}$$

Figure 4 shows the corresponding graph.



Test Point	$x$	Sign of $x - 3$	Sign of $x - 2$	Sign of $(x - 3)(x - 2)$
I	-4	-	-	+
II	1	-	+	-
III	4	+	+	+

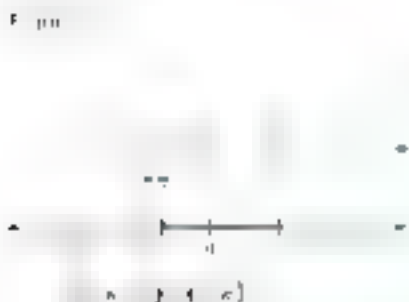


Figure 4



Figure 5



Figure 6

Figure 8

Before tackling a quadratic inequality, we point out that a linear factor of the form  $x - a$  is positive for  $x > a$  and negative for  $x < a$ . It follows that a product  $(x - a)(x - b)$  can change from being positive to negative (or vice versa) only at  $a$  or  $b$ . These points, where a factor is zero, are called **split points**. They are the keys to determining the solution sets of quadratic and other more complicated inequalities.

**EXAMPLE 1** Solve the quadratic inequality  $x^2 - 5x + 6 < 0$ .

**SOLUTION** As with quadratic equations, we move all nonzero terms to one side and factor.

$$\begin{aligned} x^2 - 5x + 6 &< 0 \\ (x - 3)(x - 2) &< 0 \end{aligned}$$

adding  $-6$   
factoring

We see that  $-2$  and  $3$  are the split points; they divide the real line into the three intervals  $(-\infty, -2)$ ,  $(-2, 3)$ , and  $(3, \infty)$ . On each of these intervals,  $(x - 3)(x - 2)$  is either  $> 0$  or  $< 0$ ; each factor is positive or always negative. To find the sign in each interval, we use the test points  $-4$  and  $4$  (any points in the three intervals would do). Our results are shown in the margin.

The information we have obtained is summarized in the top half of Figure 4. We conclude that the solution set for  $(x - 3)(x - 2) < 0$  is the interval  $(-2, 3)$ . Its graph is shown in the bottom half of Figure 4.

**EXAMPLE 2** Solve  $3x^2 - x - 2 > 0$ .

**SOLUTION** Since

$$3x^2 - x - 2 = (3x + 2)(x - 1)$$

the split points are  $-2/3$  and  $1$ , these points together with the endpoints  $-\infty$ ,  $-\infty$ , and  $\infty$  divide the intervals of the real number system. In Figure 5 we show that the solution set of the inequality consists of the union of the sets  $(-\infty, -2/3)$  and  $(1, \infty)$ . In set notation, the solution set is the union symbolized by  $\cup$  of these two sets: the set  $(-\infty, -2/3) \cup (1, \infty)$ .

**EXAMPLE 3** Solve  $\frac{x}{x + 2} \leq 0$ .

**SOLUTION** Our inclination to multiply both sides by  $x + 2$  leads to an immediate dilemma, since  $x + 2$  may be either positive or negative. Should we reverse the inequality sign or leave it alone? Rather than try to anticipate the problem, which would require making an assumption, we observe that the quotient  $\frac{x}{x + 2} = \frac{x - 0}{x - (-2)}$  can change sign only at the split points of the numerator and denominator, that is, at  $0$  and  $-2$ . We use the information displayed in the top part of Figure 7. The symbol  $\omega$  indicates that the quotient is undefined at  $-2$ . We conclude that the solution set is  $(-\infty, -2) \cup [0, \infty)$ . Note that  $-2$  is not in the solution set because the quotient is not  $\leq 0$  there. On the other hand,  $0$  is included because the inequality is  $\leq 0$  when  $x = 0$ .

**EXAMPLE 4** Solve  $(x + 1)(x - 1)^2(x - 3) < 0$ .

**SOLUTION** The split points are  $-1$ ,  $1$ , and  $3$ , which divide the real line into four intervals, as shown in Figure 8. After testing these intervals, we conclude that the solution set is  $(-1, 1) \cup [1, 3)$ , which is the interval  $(-1, 3)$ .

**EXAMPLE 5** Solve  $2x < \frac{1}{x} < 3x$ .

**STUDENT TIP** It is tempting to multiply through by  $x$ , but this again brings up the dilemma that  $x$  may be positive or negative. In this case, however,  $x$  must be between  $2/9$  and  $1/3$ , which guarantees that  $x$  is positive, so it is permissible to multiply by  $x$  and not reverse the inequalities. Thus,

$$2/9 < x < 1/3$$

At this point, we must break this compound inequality into two inequalities, which we solve separately.

$$\begin{aligned} 2/9 &< x & \text{and} & & x < 1/3 \\ x &< \frac{1}{3} & \text{and} & & \frac{1}{3} < x \end{aligned}$$

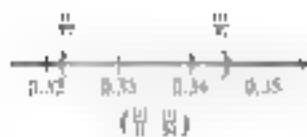
Any value of  $x$  that satisfies the original equation must satisfy both of these inequalities. The solution set thus consists of those values of  $x$  satisfying

$$\frac{1}{3} < x < \frac{2}{9}$$

The inequality can be written as

$$\frac{1}{3} < x < \frac{2}{9}$$

The interval  $(\frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{9})$  is shown in Figure 9.



**ABSOLUTE VALUES** The concept of absolute value is extremely useful and occurs frequently in the study of inequalities. The absolute value of a real number  $x$ , denoted by  $|x|$ , is defined by

$$\begin{aligned} |x| &= x & \text{if } x \geq 0 \\ |x| &= -x & \text{if } x < 0 \end{aligned}$$

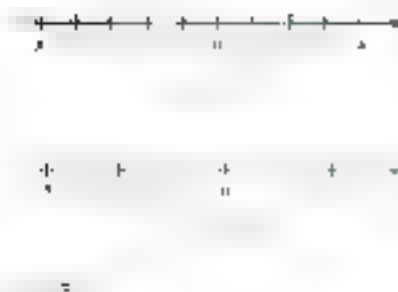
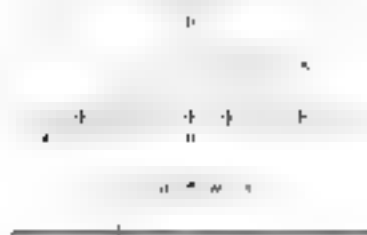
For example,  $|6| = 6$ ,  $|0| = 0$ , and  $|-5| = -(-5) = 5$ . This two-part definition may be difficult to study. Note that it does not say that  $|x| = x$  or  $|x| = -x$ . See what it says: that  $|x|$  is always nonnegative, and  $|x| = -x$  if  $x < 0$ .

One of the best ways to think of the absolute value of a number is as its nonnegative distance from 0. For example, the distance between  $x$  and the origin 0 is denoted by  $|x - 0| = |x|$ . The distance between  $x$  and the origin 0 is denoted by  $|x - 0| = |x|$ .

**PROPERTIES OF ABSOLUTE VALUES** Absolute values behave nicely under multiplication and division, but not so well under addition and subtraction.

### Properties of Absolute Values

- $|ab| = |a||b|$
- $\left| \frac{a}{b} \right| = \frac{|a|}{|b|}$
- $|a - b| \leq |a| + |b|$  Triangle Inequality
- $|a + b| \geq ||a| - |b||$



For example, if  $x = 2$ , then the distance between  $x$  and the origin must be less than 3, or, in other words,  $|x|$  must be nonnegative only less than 3 and greater than  $-3$ ; that is,  $-3 < x < 3$ . On the other hand, if  $|x| > 3$ , then the distance between  $x$  and the origin must be at least 3, which can happen when  $x > 3$  or  $x < -3$  (Figure 11). These are special cases of the following general statements that hold when  $a > 0$ .

- $|x| < a \iff -a < x < a$
- $|x| > a \iff x < -a \text{ or } x > a$

We can use these facts to solve inequalities involving absolute values, since they provide a way of removing absolute value signs.

**EXAMPLE 8** Solve the inequality  $|x - 4| < 2$  and show the solution set on the real line. Interpret the absolute value as a distance.

**SOLUTION** From the equations in (1) with  $a$  replaced by  $x - 4$ , we see that

$$x - 4 = 2 \Leftrightarrow x = 6 \quad \text{or} \quad x - 4 = -2$$

When we add 4 to all three members of the latter inequality we obtain  $x = 6$ . The graph is shown in Figure 12.

In terms of distance, the symbol  $|x - 4|$  represents the distance between  $x$  and 4. The inequality says that the distance between  $x$  and 4 is less than 2. The numbers  $x$  with this property are the numbers between 2 and 6, that is,  $2 < x < 6$ . ■

The statements in (3) are equations just before Example 8 are valid with  $a$  replaced by  $x$  and  $b$  respectively. We need the second statement in this form in our next example.

**EXAMPLE 9** Solve the inequality  $|x + 3| \leq 1$  and show its solution set on the real line.

**SOLUTION** The given inequality may be written successively as

$$\begin{aligned} x + 3 &\leq 1 & \text{or} & & x + 3 &\geq -1 \\ 3x &\leq -4 & \text{or} & & 3x &\geq -6 \\ x &\leq -\frac{4}{3} & \text{or} & & x &\geq -2 \end{aligned}$$

The solution set is the union of two intervals:  $x \leq -\frac{4}{3}$  or  $x \geq -2$ , which is shown in Figure 13. ■

In Chapter 1 we will need to make use of the definition of absolute value by the next two examples. Before we end, we mention one other important fact. The only way to solve an inequality algebraically with an absolute value is to use the two basic properties.

**EXAMPLE 10** Let  $a$  (positive) be a positive number. Show that

$$|x - 2| < \frac{a}{5} \Leftrightarrow |5x - 10| < a$$

In terms of distance, this says that the distance between  $x$  and 2 is less than  $\frac{a}{5}$  if and only if the distance between  $5x$  and 10 is less than  $a$ .

**SOLUTION**

$$\begin{aligned} |x - 2| < \frac{a}{5} &\Leftrightarrow 5|x - 2| < a && \text{(multiplying by 5)} \\ &\Leftrightarrow |5(x - 2)| < a && \text{(5 = 5)} \\ &\Leftrightarrow |5(x - 2)| < a && \text{(5(a) = 5a)} \\ &\Leftrightarrow |5x - 10| < a && \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 11** Let  $a$  be a positive number. Find a positive number  $b$  such that

$$|x - 3| < b \Leftrightarrow |6x - 18| < a$$

**SOLUTION**

$$\begin{aligned} |6x - 18| < a &\Leftrightarrow |6(x - 3)| < a \\ &\Leftrightarrow 6|x - 3| < a && \text{(using } |a \cdot b| = |a| \cdot |b| \text{)} \\ &\Leftrightarrow |x - 3| < \frac{a}{6} && \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{multiplying by } \frac{1}{6} \end{array} \right. \end{aligned}$$

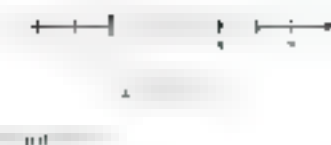


Figure 12

$$(-\infty, -\frac{4}{3}] \cup [-2, \infty)$$

Figure 13

**Note** We have shown that solutions to Example

- 1. The value we find for  $b$  must depend on  $a$ . Our choice is  $b = \frac{a}{6}$ .
- 2. An increase of  $a$  smaller than  $a$  increases the value of  $b$ . If  $a = x$  or  $a = y$ , an increase in  $x$  or  $y$  gives an increase in  $b$ .



Therefore, we choose  $\delta = \varepsilon/6$ . Following the implications backward, we see that

$$|x - 2| < \delta \Rightarrow |x - 2| < \frac{\varepsilon}{6} \Rightarrow 6|x - 2| < \varepsilon \Rightarrow |6x - 12| < \varepsilon.$$

Here is a practical problem that uses the same type of reasoning.

**EXAMPLE 12** A 4-liter (500 cubic centimeter) glass beaker has an inner radius of 4 centimeters. How closely must we measure the height  $h$  of water in the beaker to be sure that we have 1 liter of water within an error of less than 5 cubic centimeters? See Figure 14.

**SOLUTION** The volume  $V$  of water in the glass is given by the formula  $V = 16\pi h$ . We want  $|V - 500| < 5$  or equivalently,  $|16\pi h - 500| < 5$ . Now

$$\begin{aligned} |16\pi h - 500| < 5 &\Leftrightarrow \left| 16\pi \left( h - \frac{500}{16\pi} \right) \right| < 5 \\ &\Leftrightarrow 16\pi \left| h - \frac{500}{16\pi} \right| < 5 \\ &\Leftrightarrow \left| h - \frac{500}{16\pi} \right| < \frac{5}{16\pi} \\ &\Leftrightarrow |h - 9.947| < 0.09947 \approx 0. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, we must measure the height  $h$  in centimeters of water in the beaker to within 0.1.

Now, when we deal with all the Quadratic Formula, the solutions to the quadratic equation  $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$  are given by

$$x = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}.$$

The number  $b^2 - 4ac$  is called the **discriminant** of the quadratic equation. If  $b^2 - 4ac > 0$ ,  $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$  has two real solutions; if  $b^2 - 4ac = 0$ , there is one real solution; if  $b^2 - 4ac < 0$ , there are no real solutions. With the Quadratic Formula, we can convert a quadratic inequality even to a set of two linear inequalities.

**EXAMPLE 13** Solve  $x^2 - 4x + 4 < 0$ .

**SOLUTION** The two solutions of  $x^2 - 2x - 4 = 0$  are

$$x = \frac{2 \pm \sqrt{4 + 16}}{2} = \frac{2 \pm \sqrt{20}}{2} = 1 \pm \sqrt{5} \approx 2.24$$

and

$$x = \frac{2 - \sqrt{20}}{2} = 1 - \sqrt{5} \approx -1.24.$$

Thus

$$x^2 - 4x + 4 < 0 \Leftrightarrow (x - 1 - \sqrt{5})(x - 1 + \sqrt{5}) < 0.$$

The split points  $1 - \sqrt{5}$  and  $1 + \sqrt{5}$  divide the real line into three intervals (Figure 15). When we test them with the test points  $-2$ ,  $0$ , and  $4$ , we conclude that the solution set for  $x^2 - 4x + 4 < 0$  is  $1 - \sqrt{5} < x < 1 + \sqrt{5}$ .

**Squares** Turning to squares, we notice that

$$x^2 \geq x^2 \text{ and } |x| = \sqrt{x^2}.$$

### Notation for Square Roots

Every positive number has two square roots. For example, the two square roots of 9 are 3 and  $-3$ . We sometimes represent these two numbers as  $\pm 3$ . For  $a \geq 0$ , the symbol  $\sqrt{a}$ , called the **principal square root** of  $a$ , denotes the nonnegative square root of  $a$ . Thus,  $\sqrt{9} = 3$  and  $\sqrt{2} = 1.414213562$ . It is incorrect to write  $\sqrt{9} = \pm 3$  because  $\sqrt{9}$  means the nonnegative square root of 9, that is, 3. The number 9 has two square roots, which are written as  $\pm\sqrt{9}$ , not  $\sqrt{9}$  represents a single real number and is neither plus nor minus.

$$x^2 = 9$$

has two solutions,  $x = -3$  and  $x = 3$ .

$$\sqrt{9} = 3$$

$$x^2 - 4x + 4 < 0$$

$$(x - 1 - \sqrt{5})(x - 1 + \sqrt{5}) < 0$$

or

$$1 - \sqrt{5} < x < 1 + \sqrt{5}$$



## Notation for Roots

If  $a$  is given such that  $a \geq 0$ , the symbol  $\sqrt[n]{a}$  denotes the nonnegative  $n$ th root of  $a$ . When  $n$  is 2, there is only one real  $n$ th root of  $a$ , denoted by the symbol  $\sqrt{a}$ . Thus,  $\sqrt{16} = 2$ ,  $\sqrt[3]{27} = 3$ , and  $\sqrt[4]{81} = 3$ .

These follow from the property  $(a/b)^n = a^n/b^n$ .

Does the squaring operation preserve inequalities? In general, the answer is no. For instance,  $-3 < 2$  but  $(-3)^2 > 2^2$ . On the other hand,  $2 < 3$  and  $2^2 < 3^2$ . If we are dealing with nonnegative numbers, then  $a < b \Leftrightarrow a^2 < b^2$ . A useful variant of this (see Problem 62) is

$$a < b \Leftrightarrow a^2 < b^2 \text{ if } a, b \geq 0$$

**EXAMPLE 14** Solve the inequality  $|3x + 1| < 2|x - 0|$ .

**SOLUTION** This inequality is more difficult to solve than our earlier examples, because there are two sets of absolute value signs. We can remove both of them by using the last boxed result.

$$\begin{aligned} |3x + 1| < 2|x - 0| &\Leftrightarrow 3x + 1 < 2|x - 12| \\ &\Leftrightarrow (3x + 1)^2 < (2x - 12)^2 \\ &\Leftrightarrow 9x^2 + 6x + 1 < 4x^2 - 48x + 144 \\ &\Leftrightarrow 5x^2 + 54x - 143 < 0 \\ &\Leftrightarrow (x + 11)(x - 13) < 0 \end{aligned}$$

The  $x$ -intercepts for the quadratic inequality are  $-11$  and  $13$ , which divide the real line into the three intervals  $x < -11$ ,  $-11 < x < 13$ , and  $x > 13$ . When we test the test points  $x = -12$  and  $x = 14$ , we discover that only the points in  $-11 < x < 13$  satisfy the inequality.  $\square$

## Concepts Review

1. If  $a$  is a real number,  $x \geq 0$ , is whether or not  $x$  is a solution of the inequality  $|x - a| \leq -2$  is whether or not  $x$  is a solution of  $x \geq 0$ .

2. If  $a < b$ , then  $a < 0$  if and only if  $a < 0$  and  $b > 0$ .

3. Which of the following are true or false?

- (a)  $-a \geq 0$  (b)  $a^2 \geq 0$   
(c)  $a^2 \geq a^3$  (d)  $a^2 \geq a^4$

4. The inequality  $|x - 5| < 4$  is equivalent to

$$x < 1$$

## Problem Set 0.2

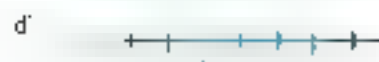
1. Show each of the following intervals on the real line.

a)  $[-3, 5]$  (b)  $[-4, 1]$

c)  $(-5, 2)$  (d)  $[1, 4)$

e)  $|x| < \infty$  (f)  $|x| > 0$

2. Use the notation of Problem 1 to describe the following intervals.



3. Write a Problem 1 notation for each of the given intervals.

1.  $x < 5$  2.  $x \geq 1$  3.  $x < 5$  and  $x \geq 4$

4.  $x \geq 1$  and  $x \leq 2$  5.  $x < 1$  and  $x \geq 2$

6.  $x < 1$  and  $x \geq 2$  7.  $x < 1$  and  $x \geq 2$

8.  $x < 1$  and  $x \geq 2$  9.  $x < 1$  and  $x \geq 2$

10.  $x < 1$  and  $x \geq 2$  11.  $x < 1$  and  $x \geq 2$

12.  $x < 1$  and  $x \geq 2$  13.  $x < 1$  and  $x \geq 2$

14.  $x < 1$  and  $x \geq 2$  15.  $x < 1$  and  $x \geq 2$

16.  $x < 1$  and  $x \geq 2$  17.  $x < 1$  and  $x \geq 2$

18.  $x < 1$  and  $x \geq 2$  19.  $x < 1$  and  $x \geq 2$

20.  $x < 1$  and  $x \geq 2$



69. Show that

$$x^2 = (x - 1)(x + 1) + 1$$

70. Show each of the following:

- (a)  $x^2 \leq 0$  if and only if  $x = 0$   
 (b)  $x^2 \leq x$  if and only if  $0 \leq x \leq 1$

71. Show that  $x^2 + y^2 = z^2$  is true if  $z \geq 2$ . *Hint:* Consider  $z = 1$ .72. The number  $\frac{a+b}{2}$  is called the **average** or **arithmetic mean** of  $a$  and  $b$ . Show that the arithmetic mean of two numbers is always between the numbers. *Hint:* Assume that

$$a < b \Rightarrow a < \frac{a+b}{2} < b$$

73. The number  $\sqrt{ab}$  is called the **geometric mean** of two positive numbers  $a$  and  $b$ . Prove that

$$\frac{a+b}{2} \geq \sqrt{ab} \geq \frac{2ab}{a+b}$$

74. For two positive numbers  $a$  and  $b$ , prove that

$$\sqrt{ab} \leq \sqrt{a} \sqrt{b} \leq \frac{a+b}{2}$$

This is the simplest version of a more general inequality, the **geometric mean–arithmetic mean inequality**.75. Show that among rectangles with given perimeter, the rectangle with the greatest area is a square. *Hint:* Let  $a$  and  $b$  denote the lengths of adjacent sides of a rectangle of perimeter  $p$ , then the area is  $ab$ , and for the square the area is  $a^2 = (a+b)^2/4$ . *Now see Problem 6.*76. Set  $R = \{R_1, R_2, \dots, R_n\}$  where
$$R_i = R_1 + \frac{1}{R_2} + \frac{1}{R_3} + \dots + \frac{1}{R_n}$$

and  $R$  is an increasing chain of real numbers. Assume  $R_1 \leq R_2$  and  $R_2$  connected to parallel  $R_1$  is  $10 \leq R_2 \leq 30$  or  $31 \leq R_2 \leq 30$ , and  $30 \leq R_3 \leq 40$ . Find the range of values for  $R$ .

77. The radius of a sphere is measured to be about 10 inches. Determine a tolerance  $\delta$  in the radius calculation with which the error is less than 0.1 square inch in the calculated value of the surface area of the sphere.

$$S = 4\pi r^2 \quad \text{where } r = 10 \pm \delta \quad \text{and} \quad 0 \leq \delta \leq 1$$

## 0.3 The Rectangular Coordinate System

In this part, we produce two copies of the Cartesian coordinate system, one horizontal and the other vertical, so that they intersect at the zero points of the two lines. The two lines are called **coordinate axes**; their intersection is called the **origin**. By convention, the horizontal line is called the **x-axis** and the vertical line is called the **y-axis**. The positive half of the x-axis is to the right; the positive half of the y-axis is upward. The coordinate axes divide the plane into four regions, called **quadrants**, labeled I, II, III, and IV as shown in Figure 1.

Each point  $P$  in the plane can now be assigned a pair of numbers, called its **Cartesian coordinates**. If  $x$  and  $y$  are real numbers such that  $P$  lies on the x-axis at  $x = x_0$  and on the y-axis at  $y = y_0$ , then  $(x_0, y_0)$  is the Cartesian coordinates of  $P$ . We call  $(x_0, y_0)$  an **ordered pair** of numbers because the order in which the numbers is important. The first number,  $x_0$ , is the **x-coordinate**; the second number,  $y_0$ , is the **y-coordinate**.

With coordinates in hand, we can now derive a simple formula for the distance between any two points in the plane. Let's begin with the **Pythagorean Theorem**, which says that if  $a$  and  $b$  measure the legs of a right triangle and  $c$  measures its hypotenuse (Figure 2), then

$$a^2 + b^2 = c^2$$

Conversely, the relationship between the three sides of a triangle holds only for a right triangle.

Now consider any two points  $P$  and  $Q$  with coordinates  $(x_1, y_1)$  and  $(x_2, y_2)$ , respectively. Together with  $R$ , the point with coordinates  $(x_1, y_2)$ ,  $P$  and  $Q$  are vertices of a right triangle (Figure 3). The lengths of  $PR$  and  $RQ$  are  $|x_2 - x_1|$  and  $|y_2 - y_1|$ , respectively. When we apply the Pythagorean Theorem and take the principal square root of both sides, we obtain the following expression for the **Distance Formula**:

$$d(P, Q) = \sqrt{(x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2}$$

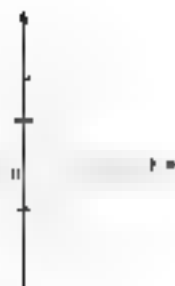


FIGURE 1

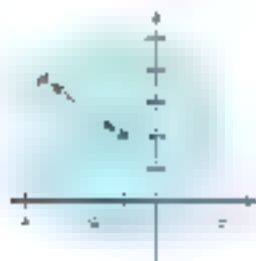


$$a^2 + b^2 = c^2$$

Figure 3



Figure 4

**EXAMPLE 1** Find the distance between

(a)  $P(-2, 3)$  and  $Q(4, -1)$

(b)  $P(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3})$  and  $Q(\pi, \pi)$

**SOLUTION**

(a)  $d(P, Q) = \sqrt{(-2 - 4)^2 + (3 - (-1))^2} = \sqrt{36 + 16} = \sqrt{52} \approx 7.21$

(b)  $d(P, Q) = \sqrt{(\pi - \sqrt{2})^2 + (\pi - \sqrt{3})^2} \approx \sqrt{4.971} \approx 2.23$

The formula holds even if the two points lie on the same horizontal line or the same vertical line. Thus, the distance between  $P(-2, 3)$  and  $Q(6, 3)$  is

$$\sqrt{(6 - (-2))^2 + (3 - 3)^2} = \sqrt{64} = 8$$

**DEFINITION** A circle is the set of points that are at a fixed distance (the radius) from a fixed point (the center). The center of a circle is denoted by  $C$ . Figure 5 shows the notation for this circle. By the Distance Formula,

$$r = \sqrt{(x - h)^2 + (y - k)^2}$$

When we square both sides, we obtain

$$r^2 = (x - h)^2 + (y - k)^2$$

which we call the equation of this circle.

More generally, the circle of radius  $r$  and center  $(h, k)$  has the equation

$$(x - h)^2 + (y - k)^2 = r^2$$

We call this the **standard equation of a circle**.

**EXAMPLE 2** Find the standard equation of a circle with center  $C(2, -5)$ . Also find the  $x$ -coordinates of the two points on the circle with  $x$ -coordinate 2.

**SOLUTION** The desired equation is

$$(x - 2)^2 + (y + 5)^2 = r^2$$

To accomplish the second task, we substitute  $x = 2$  in the equation and solve for  $y$ :

$$(2 - 2)^2 + (y + 5)^2 = 25$$

$$(y + 5)^2 = 25$$

$$y + 5 = \pm \sqrt{25}$$

$$y = -5 \pm \sqrt{25} = -5 \pm 5$$

If we expand the two squares in the boxed equation (1) and combine the constants, then the equation takes the form

$$x^2 + y^2 + cx + cy + d = 0$$

This suggests asking whether every equation of the latter form is the equation of a circle. The answer is yes, with some obvious exceptions.

**Circle  $\leftrightarrow$  Equation**

To say that

$$(x - a)^2 + (y - b)^2 = r^2$$

is the equation of the circle of radius  $r$  with center  $(a, b)$  means two things:

1. If a point is on this circle, then its coordinates  $(x, y)$  satisfy the equation.
2. If  $x$  and  $y$  are numbers that satisfy the equation, then they are the coordinates of a point on the circle.

**EXAMPLE** Show that the equation

$$x^2 - 7x + y^2 + 6y = 6$$

represents a circle and find its center and radius.

**SOLUTION** We need to complete the square a process major part of which is called *completing the square*. The square of  $x - 7/2$  is  $x^2 - 7x + 49/4$ . But we add  $49/4 = 12\frac{1}{4}$  to  $x^2 - 7x$  and  $(6/2)^2 = 9$  to  $y^2 + 6y$ , and of course we must add the same numbers to the right side of the equation to obtain

$$\begin{aligned}x^2 - 7x + 12\frac{1}{4} + y^2 + 6y + 9 &= 6 + 12\frac{1}{4} + 9 \\(x - 7/2)^2 + (y + 3)^2 &= 25\end{aligned}$$

The last equation is in standard form. It is the equation of a circle with center  $(7/2, -3)$  and radius 5. If, as a result of this process, we had come up with a negative number on the right side of the last equation, the equation would not have represented any circle. If we had come up with zero, the equation would have represented a single point.  $\blacksquare$

**EXAMPLE** Consider two points  $P(x_1, y_1)$  and  $Q(x_2, y_2)$  with  $x_1 \neq x_2$  and  $y_1 \neq y_2$ , as in Figure 6. The distance between  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  is  $|x_2 - x_1|$ . When we add half this distance,  $|x_2 - x_1|/2$ , to  $x_1$ , we should get the  $x$ -coordinate of the midpoint  $M$  of  $PQ$ , and a

$$x = \frac{1}{2}(x_2 - x_1) + x_1 = \frac{1}{2}(x_2 + x_1) \quad \text{or} \quad x_M = \frac{1}{2}(x_1 + x_2)$$

Thus the point  $x = \frac{1}{2}(x_1 + x_2)$  is midway between  $x_1$  and  $x_2$ . In a similar manner, we can show that  $y = \frac{1}{2}(y_1 + y_2)$  is the  $y$ -coordinate of  $M$ . Thus we have the **Midpoint Formula**.

The midpoint of the segment joining  $P(x_1, y_1)$  and  $Q(x_2, y_2)$  is

$$\left( \frac{x_1 + x_2}{2}, \frac{y_1 + y_2}{2} \right)$$

**EXAMPLE** Find the equation of the circle having the segment from  $(1, 3)$ ,  $(11, 11)$  as a diameter.

**SOLUTION** The center of the circle is at the midpoint of the diameter. Thus the center has coordinates  $(1 + 11)/2 = 6$  and  $(3 + 11)/2 = 7$ . The length of the diameter obtained from the distance formula is

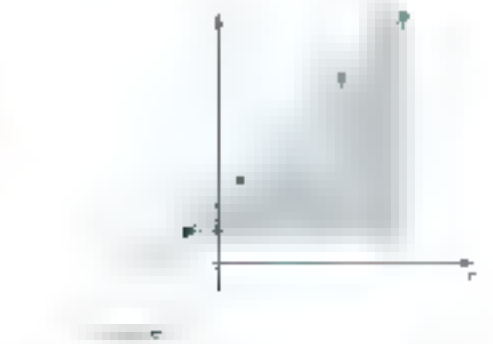
$$\sqrt{(7 - 1)^2 + (11 - 3)^2} = \sqrt{36 + 64} = 10$$

and so the radius of the circle is 5. The equation of the circle is

$$(x - 6)^2 + (y - 7)^2 = 25$$

To describe the line in Figure 7, we find point  $A$  on point  $B$ ; there is a **rise** (or **run**) of 3 units and a **run** (or **rise**) of 5 units. We say that the line has a **slope** of  $\frac{3}{5}$ . In general, Figure 8, for a line through  $A(x_1, y_1)$  and  $B(x_2, y_2)$ , where  $x_1 \neq x_2$ , we define the **slope**  $m$  of that line by

$$m = \frac{\text{rise}}{\text{run}} = \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1}$$



Does the value we get for the slope depend on which pair of points we use for  $A$  and  $B$ ? The similar triangles in Figure 9 show us that

$$\frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1} = \frac{y_3 - y_2}{x_3 - x_2}.$$

Thus points  $C$  and  $D$  would do just as well as  $A$  and  $B$ . It does not even matter whether  $A$  is to the left or right of  $B$  since

$$\frac{y_1 - y_2}{x_1 - x_2} = \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1}.$$

All that matters is that we subtract the coordinates in the same order in the numerator and the denominator.

The slope  $m$  is a measure of the steepness of a line, as Figure 10 illustrates. A horizontal line has a slope of 0, that is, the line has no rise and a finite run. A vertical line has no run and a finite rise, so the absolute value of the slope is the slope of the line. The slope of a horizontal line is 0, and the slope of a vertical line is undefined.

**Slope and Pitch**

In its technical symbol for the slope of a road (called the grade) is shown below. The grade is given as a percentage. A road that goes up 3 units in a slope of 10% has a slope of  $\frac{3}{10}$ .

Exercises: Use the same path. A road with a slope of 10% has a slope of  $\frac{3}{10}$ .

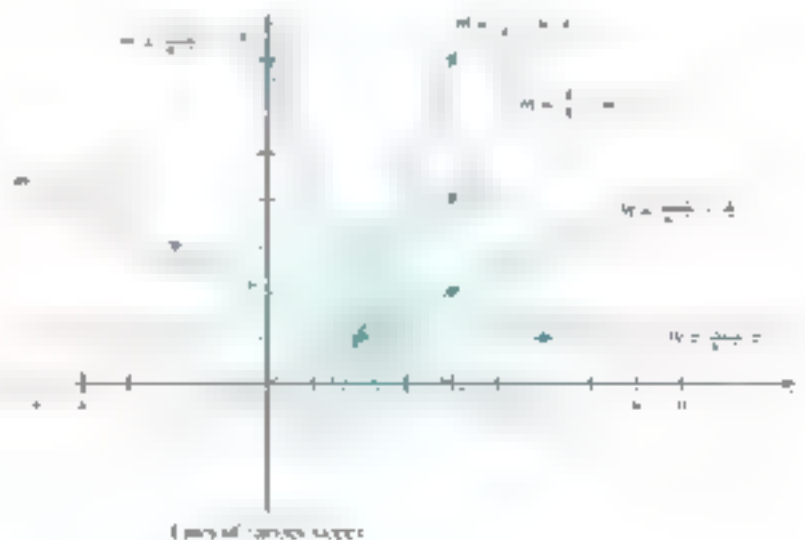


Figure 10

Consider again the line of our opening discussion (reproduced in Figure 11). We know that this line

1. passes through  $(3, 2)$  and
2. has slope  $\frac{2}{3}$ .





Take any other point on this line, such as one with coordinate  $x = 2$ . If we use this point and the point  $(3, -5)$  to measure slope, we must get  $\frac{2}{3} = \frac{y+5}{2-3}$ .

$$\frac{2}{3} = \frac{y+5}{2-3}$$

or, after multiplying by  $x - 3$ ,

$$2(x - 3) = 3(y + 5)$$

Notice that this last equation is satisfied by all points on the line given by  $\frac{2}{3}$ . Moreover, none of the points not on the line can satisfy this equation.

What we have just done is an example that can be done in general. The line passing through the (fixed) point  $(x_1, y_1)$  with slope  $m$  has equation

$$y - y_1 = m(x - x_1)$$

We call this the **point-slope form** of the equation of a line.

Let us derive once more the equation of our example. This line passes through  $(8, 4)$  as well as  $(7, 2)$ . If we use  $(8, 4)$  as  $(x_1, y_1)$ , we get the equation

$$y - 4 = m(x - 8)$$

which works quite well even if  $m = \frac{2}{3}$ . If we use  $(7, 2)$  as  $(x_1, y_1)$ , we get the equation  $y - 2 = m(x - 7)$ . (They are equivalent.)

**EXAMPLE 1** Find an equation of the line through  $(-4, -2)$  and  $(0, 6)$ .

**SOLUTION** The slope is  $m = \frac{6 - (-2)}{0 - (-4)} = \frac{8}{-4} = -2$ . Using  $(-4, -2)$  as the fixed point, we obtain the equation

$$y + 2 = -2(x + 4)$$

The equation of a line can be expressed in various forms. Suppose that we are given the slope of a line and the  $y$ -intercept  $b$ ; the  $y$ -intercept is the  $y$ -coordinate of the point  $(0, b)$ . As mentioned previously, if we know  $b$  and applying the point-slope form, we get

$$y - b = m(x - 0)$$

which we can rewrite as

$$y = mx + b$$

The latter is called the **slope-intercept form**. Any time we are an equation written this way, we recognize it as a line and can immediately read its slope and  $y$ -intercept. For example, consider the equation

$$3x - y - 4 = 0$$

If we solve for  $y$ , we get

$$y = 3x - 4$$

It is the equation of a line with slope 3 and  $y$ -intercept -4.

Not all lines do not fit within the preceding discussion since the concept of slope is not defined for them. But they do have equations very simple ones. The line in Figure 3 has equation  $x = 3$  since it passes through the line, and only if  $x$  satisfies this equation. The equation of any vertical line can be put in the form  $x = k$ , where  $k$  is a real number. Similarly, the equation of a horizontal line can be written in the form  $y = k$ .

**The Form  $Ax + By + C = 0$**  It would be nice to have a form that covered all lines, including vertical lines. Consider, for example

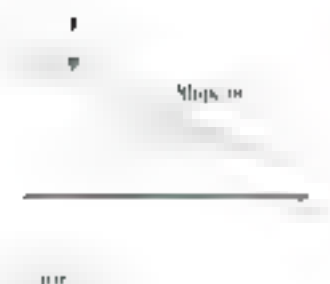


Figure 3

## Summary: Equations of Lines

Vertical line:  $x = a$ Horizontal line:  $y = b$ 

Point-slope form:

$$y - y_1 = m(x - x_1)$$

Slope-intercept form:

$$y = mx + b$$

General linear equation:

$$Ax + By = C$$

$$y - 2 = -4(x + 2)$$

$$y - 2 = -4x - 8$$

$$y = -4x - 6$$

These can be rewritten by taking everything to the left-hand side, as follows:

$$4x + y + 6 = 0$$

$$4x + y - 3 = 0$$

$$x - 0y - 5 = 0$$

All are of the form

$$Ax + By + C = 0 \quad A \text{ and } B \text{ not both } 0$$

which we call the **general linear equation**. To check this, we often write a graph to see that an equation of any line can be put in this form. Conversely, the graph of the general linear equation is always a line.

**EXAMPLE 1** Two lines that have no points in common are called **disjoint** lines. For example, the lines whose equations are  $x = 2$  and  $y = 3$  are disjoint because for every value of  $x$ , the second line is three units above the first (see Figure 14). Similarly, the lines with equations  $2x - 3y - 2 = 0$  and  $4x - 6y - 5 = 0$  are disjoint. To see this, write each equation in slope-intercept form. The first gives  $y = \frac{2}{3}x - \frac{2}{3}$  and the second gives  $y = \frac{2}{3}x - \frac{5}{6}$ . Because the slopes are equal, one line will be always  $\frac{1}{6}$  unit above or below the other so the lines will never intersect. If two lines have the same slope and the same  $y$ -intercept, then the lines are the same and the lines are **coincident**.

We summarize by stating that two distinct lines are **parallel** if and only if they have the same slope and different  $y$ -intercepts. We call two parallel lines **distinct** if and only if they are distinct lines.

**EXAMPLE 2** Find the equations of the line the slope is 4 that is parallel to the line with equation  $3x - 2y = 11$ .

**SOLUTION** When we write  $3x - 2y = 11$  for  $y$ , we obtain  $y = \frac{3}{2}x - \frac{11}{2}$ , from which we read the slope of the line to be  $\frac{3}{2}$ . The equation of the desired line is

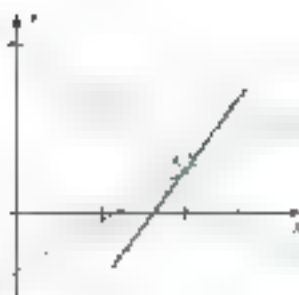
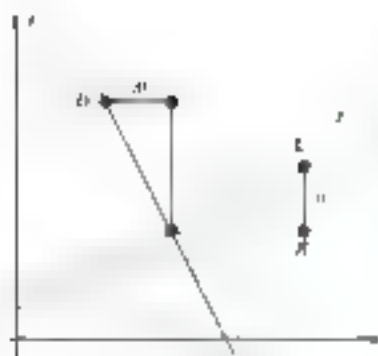
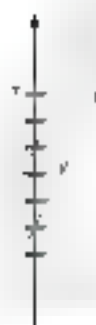
$$y - 8 = \frac{3}{2}(x - 6)$$

or equivalently  $3x - 2y = 4$ . We know the lines are distinct because the  $y$ -intercepts are different.

**EXAMPLE 3** Is there a simple, easy condition that characterizes perpendicular lines? Yes, but it involves a concept we introduce with the next slope: the **negative reciprocal** of each slope. To see why this is true, consider Figure 15. This picture tells us that the whole line is perpendicular to the line  $5x = 0$  and that a geometric proof that the line is vertical. The line is perpendicular if and only if  $m_1 = -1/m_2$ .

**EXAMPLE 4** Find the equation of the line through the point of intersection of the lines with equations  $3x + 4y = 8$  and  $6x - 7y = 2$  that is perpendicular to the first of these two lines (Figure 16).

**SOLUTION** To find the point of intersection of the two lines, we multiply the first equation by  $-2$  and add it to the second equation.



$$6x - 5y = 10$$

$$\text{or } y = \frac{6}{5}x - 2$$

$$18 = -9$$

$$1$$

$$2$$

Substituting  $y = 2$  in either of the original equations yields  $x = 2$ . The point of intersection is  $(2, 2)$ . When we solve the first equation for  $y$  to put it in slope-intercept form, we get  $y = \frac{6}{5}x - 2$ . A line perpendicular to it has slope  $-\frac{5}{6}$ . The equation of the required line is

$$y - 2 = -\frac{5}{6}(x - 2)$$

## Concepts Review

1. The distance between the points  $(-2, 3)$  and  $(1, 7)$  is \_\_\_\_\_.
2. The equation of the circle of radius 5 and center  $(-4, 2)$  is \_\_\_\_\_.
3. The midpoint of the line segment joining  $(-2, 3)$  and  $(5, 7)$  is \_\_\_\_\_.
4. The line through  $(2, 6)$  and  $(-1, 0)$  has slope  $m =$  \_\_\_\_\_.

## Problem Set 0.3

In Problems 1–4, plot the given points in the coordinate plane and find the distance between them.

1.  $(3, 4)$  and  $(-1, 2)$
2.  $(-3, 5)$  and  $(2, -2)$
3.  $(-4, -5)$  and  $(-1, 3)$
4.  $(-2, 1)$  and  $(3, 4)$
5. Show that the triangle whose vertices are  $(5, 3)$ ,  $(-2, 4)$  and  $(0, 6)$  is isosceles.
6. Show that the triangle whose vertices are  $(2, -4)$ ,  $(4, 0)$  and  $(6, -2)$  is a right triangle.
7. The points  $(3, -1)$  and  $(5, 3)$  are two vertices of a square. Give three other pairs of possible vertices.
8. Plot the point on the  $x$ -axis that is equidistant from  $(3, 1)$  and  $(-6, 4)$ .
9. Find the distance between  $(-2, 3)$  and the midpoint of the segment joining  $(2, -2)$  and  $(4, 5)$ .
10. Find the length of the line segment joining the midpoints of the segments  $AB$  and  $CD$ , where  $A = (1, 3)$ ,  $B = (2, 6)$ ,  $C = (4, 7)$ , and  $D = (3, 4)$ .

In Problems 11–18, find the equation of the circle satisfying the given conditions.

11. Center  $(-2, 3)$  and radius 4
12. Center  $(-7, 0)$  and radius 4
13. Center  $(2, -1)$  and goes through  $(5, 3)$
14. Center  $(4, 7)$  and goes through  $(6, 7)$
15. Diameter  $AB$  where  $A = (1, 3)$  and  $B = (5, 1)$
16. Center  $(3, 4)$  and tangent to  $x$ -axis

In Problems 19–22, find the center and radius of the circle with the given equation.

17.  $x^2 + 2x + 10 + y^2 - 6y - 10 = 0$
18.  $x^2 + y^2 - 6x - 16 = 0$
19.  $x^2 + y^2 - 4x + 6y - 12 = 0$
20.  $x^2 + y^2 - 10x + 10y = 0$
21.  $x^2 + y^2 - 4x - 6y + 13 = 0$
22.  $x^2 + y^2 - 10x - 10y + 35 = 0$

In Problems 23–28, find the slope of the line containing the given points.

23.  $(-1, 3)$  and  $(2, 5)$
24.  $(3, 5)$  and  $(-4, 7)$
25.  $(-2, 4)$  and  $(-5, 6)$
26.  $(-7, -4)$  and  $(-10, -6)$
27.  $(3, 0)$  and  $(0, 3)$
28.  $(-6, 0)$  and  $(0, 6)$

In Problems 29–34, find an equation for each line. Then write your answer in the form  $Ax + By + C = 0$ .

29. Through  $(1, 2)$  with slope  $-1$
30. Through  $(2, 4)$  with slope  $-1$
31. With  $x$ -intercept 5 and slope 2
32. With  $x$ -intercept 5 and slope  $d$
33. Through  $(2, 3)$  and  $(4, 6)$
34. Through  $(4, 1)$  and  $(9, 2)$

In Problems 35–38, find the slope and  $x$ -intercept of each line.

35.  $x^2 + y^2 - 4x - 6y + 13 = 0$
36.  $x^2 + y^2 - 10x - 10y + 35 = 0$

37. a)  $2y = 16x - 7$       b)  $4x + 3y = 7$

38. Write an equation for the line through  $(-5, 3)$  that is

- a) parallel to the line  $y = 2x + 5$ ;  
 b) perpendicular to the line  $y = 2x + 5$ ;  
 c) parallel to the line  $3x + 3y = 6$ ;  
 d) perpendicular to the line  $2x + 3y = 6$ ;  
 e) parallel to the line through  $(-1, 2)$  and  $(3, 1)$ ;  
 f) parallel to the line  $x = 6$ ;  
 g) perpendicular to the line  $x = 6$ .

40. Find the value of  $c$  for which the line  $3x + cy = 5$ 

- a) passes through the point  $(3, 1)$ ;  
 b) is parallel to the  $y$ -axis;  
 c) is parallel to the line  $3x + y = 6$ ;  
 d) has equal  $x$ - and  $y$ -intercepts;  
 e) is perpendicular to the line  $y - 3 = 7(x - 3)$ .

41. Write the equation for the line through  $(-2, -1)$  that is perpendicular to the line  $x - 3 = 3(y - 5)$ .42. Find the value of  $k$  such that the line  $kx - 3y = 4$ 

- a) is parallel to the line  $y = 2x + 4$ ;  
 b) is perpendicular to the line  $y = 2x + 4$ ;  
 c) is perpendicular to the line  $2x - 3y = 6$ .

43. Does  $(1, 4)$  lie above or below the line  $y = -x + 1$ ?44. Show that the equation of the line with  $x$ -intercept  $a \neq 0$  and  $y$ -intercept  $b \neq 0$  can be written as

$$\frac{x}{a} + \frac{y}{b} = 1$$

45. Find the slope of the line that passes through the points  $(-1, 2)$  and  $(3, 4)$ .  
 46. Find the slope of the line that passes through the points  $(-1, 2)$  and  $(3, 4)$ .  
 47. Find the slope of the line that passes through the points  $(-1, 2)$  and  $(3, 4)$ .

$$48. \frac{x}{2} + \frac{y}{3} = 1$$

$$49. 3x - 4y = 5$$

$$50. \frac{x}{2} + \frac{y}{3} = 1$$

$$51. \frac{x}{2} + \frac{y}{3} = 1$$

52. The points  $(2, 3)$ ,  $(8, 3)$ ,  $(6, -1)$ , and  $(2, -1)$  are corners of a square. Find the equations of the inscribed and circumscribed circles.53. A hole fits tightly around the two circles with equations  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$  and  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$ . How long is this hole?

54. Show that the inscribed circle of the hypotenuse of any right triangle is equidistant from the three vertices.

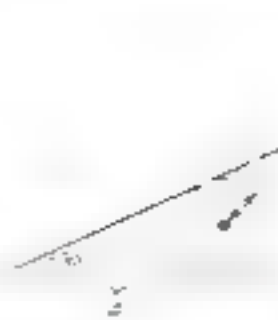
55. Find the equation of the circle circumscribed about the right triangle whose vertices are  $(1, 0)$ ,  $(5, 0)$ , and  $(2, 6)$ .56. Show that the two circles  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$  and  $x^2 + y^2 + 20x + 12y + 72 = 0$  do not intersect. How far is the distance between their centers?57. What relationship between  $a$ ,  $b$ , and  $c$  must hold if  $x^2 + ax + y^2 + by + c = 0$  is the equation of a circle?58. The ceiling of an attic makes an angle of  $30^\circ$  with the floor. A pipe of radius 2 inches is placed along the edge of the attic so such a way that one side of the pipe touches the ceiling and another side touches the floor (see Figure 17). What is the distance  $d$  from the edge of the attic to where the pipe touches the floor?

Figure 17

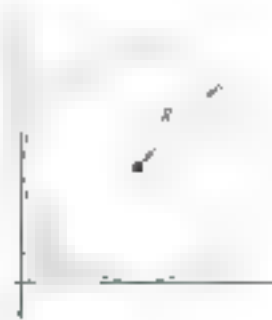


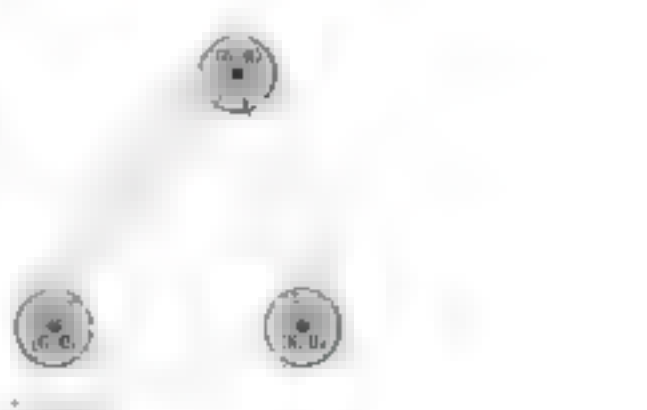
Figure 18

59. A circle of radius  $R$  is placed in the first quadrant as shown in Figure 18. What is the radius  $r$  of the largest circle that can be placed between the original circle and the origin?

60. Construct a geometric proof using Figure 19 that shows two lines are perpendicular if and only if their slopes are negative reciprocals of one another.

61. Show that the set of points that are twice as far from  $(3, 4)$  as from  $(1, 1)$  form a circle. Find its center and radius.62. The Pythagorean Theorem says that the areas  $A$ ,  $B$ , and  $C$  of the squares in Figure 19 satisfy  $A + B = C$ . Show that non-right and equilateral triangles satisfy the same relation and thus prove what a very general theorem says.

Figure 19

63. Consider a circle  $C$  and a point  $P$  exterior to the circle. Let line segment  $PT$  be tangent to  $C$  at  $T$  and let the line through  $P$  and the center of  $C$  intersect  $C$  at  $M$  and  $N$ . Show that  $PT^2 = PM \cdot PN$ .64. A hole fits around the three circles  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$ ,  $x^2 + y^2 + 20x + 12y + 72 = 0$ , and  $x^2 + y^2 + 12x + 16y + 16 = 0$ , as shown in Figure 20. Find the length of this hole.

62. Study Problems 50 and 61. Consider a set of nonintersecting circles of radius  $r$  with centers at the vertices of a convex  $n$ -sided polygon having sides of lengths  $d_1, d_2, \dots, d_n$ . How long is the belt that fits around these circles (in the manner of Figure 70)?

It can be shown that the distance  $d$  from the point  $(x_1, y_1)$  to the line  $Ax + By + C = 0$  is

$$d = \frac{|Ax_1 + By_1 + C|}{\sqrt{A^2 + B^2}}$$

Use this result to find the distance from the given point to the given line.

63.  $y = x + 4$   $(-1, 4)$

64.  $x = 4$   $(-4, 4)$

65.  $2x + 3y = 12$   $(1, 1)$

66.  $3x = 2$   $(1, 1)$

67. Find the distance from the origin to the line that is perpendicular to the given parallel lines. Hint: First find a point on one of the lines.

68.  $2x + 4y = 7$   $2x + 4y = 5$

69.  $3x = 5$   $x = 4$

70. Find the equation of the line that bisects the line segment from  $(-2, 3)$  to  $(4, -2)$  and is at right angles to this line segment.

71. The center of the circumscribed circle of a triangle lies at the perpendicular bisectors of the sides. Use this fact to find the center of the circle that circumscribes the triangle with vertices  $A(1, 1)$ ,  $B(2, 3)$ , and  $C(4, 2)$ .

72. Find the radius of the circle that is inscribed in a triangle with sides of lengths 3, 4, and 5 (see Figure 71).



73. Suppose that  $(a, b)$  is on the circle  $x^2 + y^2 = r^2$ . Show that the line  $ax + by = r^2$  is tangent to the circle at  $(a, b)$ .

74. Find the equations of the two tangent lines to the circle  $x^2 + y^2 = 36$  that go through  $(12, 0)$ . (See Problem 73.)

75. Express the perpendicular distance between the parallel lines  $y = mx + b$  and  $y = mx + d$  in terms of  $m$ ,  $b$ , and  $d$ . Hint: The required distance is the same as that between  $y = mx$  and  $y = b - d$ .

76. Show that the line through the midpoints of two sides of a triangle is parallel to the third side. Hint: You may assume that the triangle has vertices at  $(0, 0)$ ,  $(a, b)$ , and  $(c, d)$ .

77. Show that the line segments joining the midpoints of adjacent sides of any quadrilateral (four-sided polygon) form a rectangle.

78. A wheel whose rim has equation  $x^2 + y^2 = 25$  is rotating rapidly in the counter-clockwise direction. A speck of oil on the rim came loose at the point  $(3, 2)$  and flew toward the wall  $x = 1$ . About how high upon the wall did it hit? Hint: The speck of oil flew off on a tangent to the circle at  $(3, 2)$ .

**Answers to Concepts Review:** 1.  $\sqrt{13}$  2.  $2x^2 + y - 3y^2$  3.  $(3 + 4)^2 = (y - 2)^2 + 25$  4.  $(d - b)^2 = c^2 - a^2$

## Graphs of Equations

The set of coordinates for points in the plane is known as the **plane**. A curve in the plane is described by an equation in two variables. We saw how this was done for circles and lines in the previous section. Now we will consider the process of graphing an equation. The **graph of an equation** in two variables is the set of points in the plane whose coordinates  $(x, y)$  satisfy the equation that defines the curve.

To graph an equation, for example  $2x^2 = x + 19$ , by hand, we can follow a simple three-step procedure:

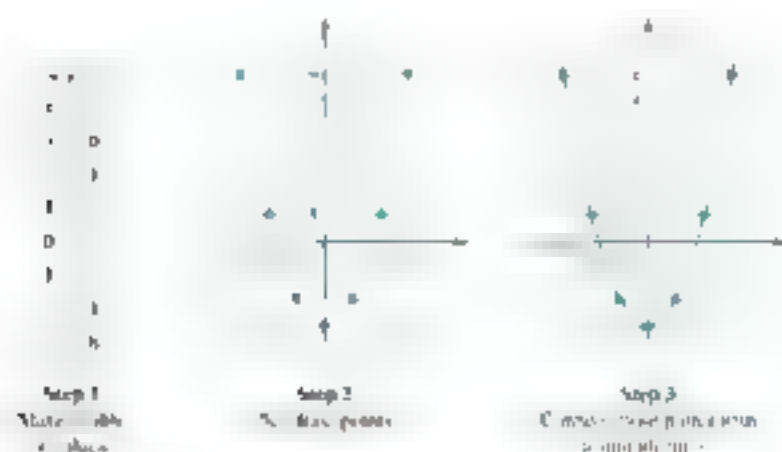
**Step 1:** Obtain the coordinates of a few points that satisfy the equation.

**Step 2:** Plot these points in the plane.

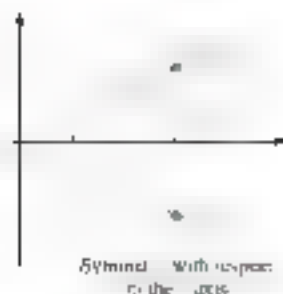
**Step 3:** Connect the points with a smooth curve.

This simple method will have to suffice until Chapter 4 when we use more advanced methods to graph equations. To best way to do Step 1 is to make a table of values. Assign values to one of the variables, such as  $x$ , and determine the corresponding values of the other variable, listing the results in tabular form.

A graphing calculator or a computer algebra system will follow much the same procedure, although its procedure is transparent to the user. A user simply defines the function and uses the graphing calculator or computer to plot it.

**EXAMPLE 1** Graph the equation  $y = x^2 - 3$ .**SOLUTION** The three-step procedure is shown in Figure 1.

Of course, you need to use common sense and even a little faith. When you have a point that seems out of place, check your arithmetic. When you connect the points, you have plotted only a few points, yet you are assuming that the curve behaves exactly the way it should behave. Think of it this way: you have plotted enough points so that the curve or the  $x$ -curve seems right. Then, if you plot a few more points, the curve looks even better. Also, you should recognize that you can sketch in depth the whole curve. In our example, the curve has an  $x$ -intercept at  $x = \pm\sqrt{3}$  and a  $y$ -intercept at  $y = -3$ . The curve does show all essential features. This is an *ideal* graph. Show enough of the graph so that the essential features are visible. For example, the graph of  $y = x^2 - 3$  is shown in Figure 2 to improve our understanding of graphs.



**SYMMETRY**  $y = x^2 - 3$  We can sometimes reduce our graphing effort by recognizing certain symmetries. If the graph is revealed by its equation, then the graph of  $y = x^2 - 3$  draws itself on you again. Figure 4 illustrates the plane is divided along the  $y$ -axis into two symmetric regions. If we sample points, we will coincide with  $(x, y)$  with  $(-x, y)$  and more generally,  $(x, y)$  will coincide with  $(-x, y)$ . Algebraically this corresponds to the fact that replacing  $x$  by  $-x$  in the equation  $y = x^2 - 3$  results in an equivalent equation.

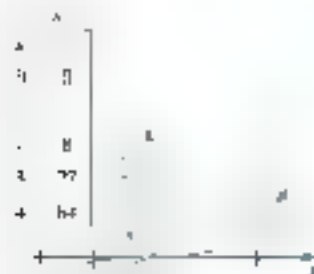
Consider an arbitrary graph. It is **symmetric with respect to the  $y$ -axis** whenever  $(x, y)$  is on the graph,  $(-x, y)$  is also on the graph (Figure 2). Similarly, it is **symmetric with respect to the  $x$ -axis** if, whenever  $(x, y)$  is on the graph,  $(x, -y)$  is also on the graph (Figure 3). Finally, a graph is **symmetric with respect to the origin** if whenever  $(x, y)$  is on a graph,  $(-x, -y)$  is also on the graph (see Example 2).

In terms of equations, we have three simple tests. The graph of an equation is

1. symmetric with respect to the  $y$ -axis if replacing  $x$  by  $-x$  gives an equivalent equation (e.g.,  $y = x^2$ );
2. symmetric with respect to the  $x$ -axis if replacing  $y$  by  $-y$  gives an equivalent equation (e.g.,  $x = y^2 + 1$ );

symmetric with respect to the origin if replacing  $x$  by  $-x$  and  $y$  by  $-y$  gives an equivalent equation.  $y = x^2$  is a good example since  $y = x^2$  is equivalent to  $y = (-x)^2$ .





Symmetry with respect to the origin

Figure 3

If you have a graphing calculator, use it whenever possible to reproduce the plots shown in the figures.



Figure 4

### EXAMPLE 3 Sketch the graph of $y = x^2$ .

**SOL. (1) (2) (3) (4)** We note as points in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  how the graph of the symmetric  $y = x^2$  is related to the origin, so we need only get a table of  $x$ 's for nonnegative  $x$ 's. We can find matching points by symmetry. For example,  $(2, 4)$  being on the graph tells us that  $(-2, 4)$  is on the graph.  $(3, 9)$  being on the graph tells us that  $(-3, 9)$  is on the graph, and so on. See Figure 4. ■

In graphing  $y = x^2$ , we used a different scale on the  $y$ -axis than on the  $x$ -axis. This makes it possible to show a larger portion of the graph than otherwise and the graph by hand is better. When you graph by hand, we suggest that before putting scales on the  $x$ -axis and  $y$ -axis, you should examine the equation to decide which scales are best. It is best if your points can be plotted and you keep your graph at a useful size. A graphing calculator or a CAS will then choose the scale for the  $x$ -axis you have chosen the  $y$ 's to be used. The first choice you make therefore is the  $y$ -values to plot. Most graphing calculators and CASs allow you to use the automatic  $x$ -axis scaling. In some cases you may want to use this option.

The most serious difficulty of an equation is the two-pointed nature of many products. Consider, for example

$$y = x^2 - 5x + 6 = (x - 2)(x - 3).$$

Notice that  $y = 0$  when  $x = -2$  or  $3$ . The numbers  $-2$ ,  $1$ , and  $3$  are called  **$x$ -intercepts**. Similarly,  $y = 6$  when  $x = 0$ , and we call  $6$  the  **$y$ -intercept**.

**EXAMPLE 4** Find all intercepts of the graph of  $y = x^2 - 5x + 6$ .

**SOL. (1) (2) (3) (4)** Putting  $y = 0$  in the given equation we get  $x^2 - 5x + 6 = 0$ , and so the  $x$ -intercepts are  $2$  and  $3$ . Putting  $x = 0$  in the equation we find  $y = 6$ . If  $y = 0$ ,  $x^2 - 5x + 6 = 0$ , the  $x$ -intercepts are  $-3$  and  $2$ . A check on symmetry indicates that the graph has none of the three types discussed earlier. The graph is displayed in Figure 5. ■

Since quadratic (or cubic) equations will often be used as examples in this work, we display their typical graphs in Figure 6.

The graphs of quadratic equations are shaped like **parabolas**. If an equation has the form  $y = ax^2 + bx + c$  or  $x = ay^2 + by + c$  with  $a \neq 0$ , its graph is a parabola. If the first  $c$  of the graph opens up ( $a > 0$ ) and opens down ( $a < 0$ ). In the second case for graphing  $x = ay^2 + by + c$ , the parabola opens right or left. Note that the equation of Example 4 can be put in the form  $y = x^2 - 5x + 6$ .

**EXAMPLE 5** Find the points of intersection of the parabolas  $y = x^2 - 5x + 6$  and  $y = x^2 - 4x + 2$ . These points are found by solving the two equations for  $x$  and  $y$  simultaneously as illustrated in the next example.

**EXAMPLE 6** Find the points of intersection of the line  $y = -2x + 2$  and the parabola  $y = 2x^2 - 4x + 2$ , and sketch both graphs on the same coordinate plane.

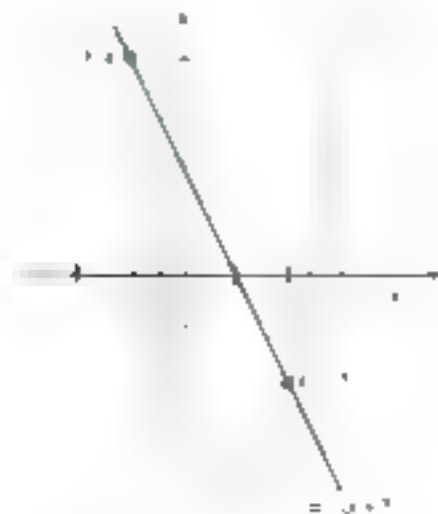
**SOL. (1) (2) (3) (4)** We must solve the two equations simultaneously. This is easy to do by substituting the expression for  $y$  from the first equation into the second equation and then solving the resulting equation for  $x$ .

$$\begin{aligned} 2x + 2 &= 2x^2 - 4x + 2 \\ 0 &= 2x^2 - 6x \\ 0 &= 2x^2 - 6x + 0 \\ 0 &= 2x^2 - 6x \end{aligned}$$

## BASIC QUADRATIC AND CUBIC GRAPHS



(By substitution, we find the corresponding values of  $y$  to be 4 and  $-2$ ; the intersection points are therefore  $(-4, 4)$  and  $(2, -2)$ ). The two graphs are shown in Figure 7.



## Concepts Review

1. If whenever  $(x, y)$  is on a graph  $(-x, y)$  is also on the graph, then the graph is symmetric with respect to the  $y$ -axis.
2. If  $(x, -y)$  is on a graph that is symmetric with respect to the origin, then  $(-x, y)$  is also on the graph.

3. If  $p$  and  $q$  are real numbers, then  $(x - p)^2 + (y - q)^2 = r^2$  is the equation of a circle with center  $(p, q)$  and radius  $r$  if  $r > 0$ .
4. The graph of  $y = ax^2 + bx + c$  is a parabola opening upward if  $a > 0$ .

## Problem Set 0.4

In Problems 1–30, plot the graph of each equation. Begin by checking for symmetry and be sure to find all  $x$ - and  $y$ -intercepts.

1.  $y = x^2 - 4$
2.  $y = x^2 + 4$
3.  $y = x^2 - 4x + 4$
4.  $y = x^2 + 4x + 4$
5.  $y = x^2 - 4x + 3$
6.  $y = x^2 + 4x + 3$
7.  $y = x^2 - 4x + 4$
8.  $y = x^2 + 4x + 4$
9.  $y = x^2 - 4x + 3$
10.  $y = x^2 + 4x + 3$
11.  $y = x^2 - 4x + 4$
12.  $4x^2 + 3y^2 = 12$
13.  $4x^2 + 3y^2 = 12$
14.  $4x^2 + 3y^2 = 12$
15.  $4x^2 + 3y^2 = 12$
16.  $x^2 - 4x + 3y^2 = 0$
17.  $x^2 - 4x + 3y^2 = 0$
18.  $x^2 - 4x + 3y^2 = 0$
19.  $x^2 - 4x + 3y^2 = 0$
20.  $x^2 - 4x + 3y^2 = 0$
21.  $x^2 - 4x + 3y^2 = 0$
22.  $x^2 - 4x + 3y^2 = 0$
23.  $2x^2 - 4x + 3y^2 + 12y = 3$
24.  $x^2 + y^2 - 4x - 6y + 13 = 0$
25.  $x^2 + y^2 - 4x - 6y + 13 = 0$
26.  $x^2 + y^2 - 4x - 6y + 13 = 0$
27.  $x^2 + y^2 - 4x - 6y + 13 = 0$
28.  $y = 5^{\frac{1}{2}x} - 1$
29.  $y = 5^{\frac{1}{2}x} - 1$
30.  $y = 5^{\frac{1}{2}x} - 1$

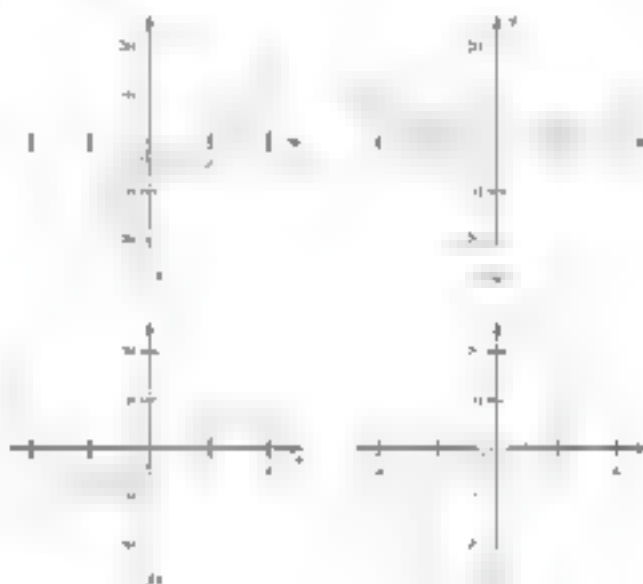
In Problems 31–34, plot the graphs of both equations on the same Cartesian plane. Find and label the points of intersection of the two graphs (see Example 4).

31.  $y = x^2 - 4x + 4$
32.  $y = x^2 - 4x + 4$
33.  $y = x^2 - 4x + 4$
34.  $y = x^2 - 4x + 4$
35.  $y = x^2 - 4x + 4$
36.  $y = x^2 - 4x + 4$

37.  $y = x^2 - 4x + 4$
38.  $y = x^2 - 4x + 4$

39. Choose the equation that corresponds to each graph in Figure 5.

- (a)  $y = ax^2 + bx + c$  with  $a < 0$
- (b)  $y = ax^2 + bx + c$  with  $a > 0$
- (c)  $y = ax^2 + bx + c$  with  $a < 0$
- (d)  $y = ax^2 + bx + c$  with  $a > 0$



40. Find the distance between the points on the circle  $x^2 + y^2 = 12$  with the  $x$ -coordinates  $-3$  and  $3$ . How many such distances are there?

41. Find the distance between the points on the circle  $x^2 + 2x + y^2 - 2y = 2$  with the  $x$ -coordinates  $-2$  and  $2$ . How many such distances are there?

42.  $y = x^2 - 4x + 4$
43.  $y = x^2 - 4x + 4$

# 0.5 Functions and Their Graphs

The concept of function is one of the most basic in all mathematics and it plays an indispensable role in calculus.

## Definition

A **function** is a rule of correspondence that associates with each object  $x$  in one set, called the **domain**, a single value  $f(x)$  from a second set. The set of all values so obtained is called the **range** of the function. (See Figure 1.)

Think of a function as a machine that takes as its input a value  $x$  and produces as output  $f(x)$ . (See Figure 2.) Each input value is associated with a single output value. It may happen that several different input values give the same output value.

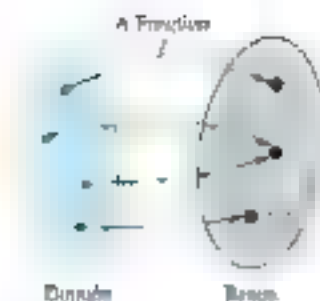


Figure 1



Figure 2

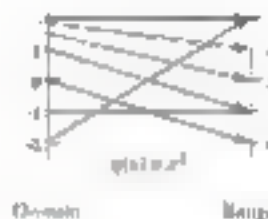


Figure 3

The set of all points plotted corresponds to the domain and range of  $f$ . The domain might consist of the set of people, and the plotted points might be single people, grades  $(x, f(x))$ , or  $(D, f)$ . It will be convenient to use the notation  $f(x)$  to assign a value of grade  $x$  at a certain time, day, or age, and so on, to a being with the function of the  $x$  coordinate. Numbers, for example, for functions might take the number 1000 as input, and produce the output number 1000, as we will see. In this case, the rule of correspondence has to be  $f(x) = x$ . A schematic diagram of this function is shown in Figure 3.

**EXAMPLE 1** A map  $f$  takes the age of a person  $t$  and assigns a value  $f(t)$  to it. Then, if the age of a person is  $t$  years, he or she has the  $f$  assigned value. If  $f(t) = t^2 - 4$ , then

$$f(1) = 1^2 - 4 = -3$$

$$f(0) = 0^2 - 4 = -4$$

$$f(x + h) = (x + h)^2 - 4 = x^2 + 2xh + h^2 - 4$$

Study the following examples carefully. Although some of these examples may look odd now, they will play an important role in Chapter 2.

**EXAMPLE 1** For  $f(x) = x^2 - 2x$ , find and simplify

(a)  $f(4)$

(b)  $f(4 + h)$

(c)  $f(4) + f(h)$

(d)  $f(4) + f(h) - f(4 + h)$

## SOLUTION

(a)  $f(4) = 4^2 - 2 \cdot 4 = 8$

(b)  $f(4 + h) = (4 + h)^2 - 2(4 + h) = 16 + 8h + h^2 - 8 - 2h = 8 + 6h + h^2$

(c)  $f(4) + f(h) = 8 + 6h + h^2 + 8 - 2h = 16 + 4h + h^2$

(d)  $f(4) + f(h) - f(4 + h) = 8 + 6h + h^2 + 8 - 2h - (8 + 6h + h^2) = 8$

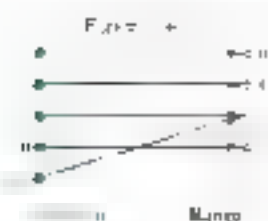


FIGURE 4

$F(x) = x^2 + 1$ . To specify a function completely we must state, in addition to the rule of correspondence, the domain of the function. For example, if  $F$  is the function defined by  $F(x) = x^2 + 1$  with domain  $\{-1, 0, 1, 2, 3\}$  (Figure 4), then the range is  $\{1, 2, 5\}$ . The rule of correspondence, together with the domain, determines the range.

When no domain is specified for a function we assume that it is the set of real numbers for which the rule for the function makes sense. This is called the **natural domain**. Numbers that we should exclude from the natural domain are those values that would cause division by zero or the square root of a negative number.

### EXAMPLE 2 Find the natural domains for

- (a)  $F(x) = 1/(x - 3)$  (b)  $F(x) = \sqrt{x + 9}$   
 (c)  $A(t) = 1/\sqrt{9 - t^2}$

#### SOLUTION

- (a) We must exclude 3 from the domain because it would require division by zero. Thus, the natural domain is  $\{x \mid x \neq 3\}$ . This may be read “the set of  $x$ ’s such that  $x$  is not equal to 3.”  
 (b) To avoid the square root of a negative number, we must choose  $x$  so that  $0 \leq x + 9$ . Thus,  $x$  must satisfy  $x \geq -9$ . The natural domain is, therefore,  $\{x \mid x \geq -9\}$ , which we can write using interval notation as  $[-9, \infty)$ .  
 (c) Now we must avoid division by zero and square roots of negative numbers. Here we must exclude  $-3$  and  $3$  from the natural domain. The natural domain is, therefore, the interval  $(-3, 3)$ . ■

When the rule for a function is given by an equation of the form  $y = f(x)$ , we call the **independent variable** and  $x$  the **dependent variable**. Any value in the domain may be substituted for the independent variable, and a corresponding value of  $y$ , such as  $y = f(x)$ , finds the corresponding value of the dependent variable  $y$ .

The input of a function is called the **input**, and the output is called the **output**. In other words, a function depends on more than one independent variable. For example, the amount of a monthly car payment depends on the loan’s principal, the interest rate, and the number of months required to pay off the loan. We can write such a function as  $A = f(P, r, n)$ . The value of  $A$  (dollars per month) is expressed monthly payment to retire a \$5000 loan in 48 months at an interest rate of  $r = 0.05$  (5%). In this notation, there is the simple machine  $A = f(P, r, n)$  that gives the output  $A$  in terms of the input variables  $P$ ,  $r$ , and  $n$ .

### EXAMPLE 3 Let $V(x, d)$ denote the volume of a cylindrical rod of length $x$ and diameter $d$ . (See Figure 5.) Find

- (a) a formula for  $V(x, d)$   
 (b) the domain and range of  $V$   
 (c)  $V(4, 0.1)$

#### SOLUTION

- (a)  $V(x, d) = \pi r^2 h = \pi \left(\frac{d}{2}\right)^2 x = \frac{\pi d^2 x}{4}$   
 (b) Because the length and diameter of the rod must be positive, the domain is the set of all ordered pairs  $(x, d)$  where  $x > 0$  and  $d > 0$ . Any positive volume is possible so the range is  $(0, \infty)$ .  
 (c)  $V(4, 0.1) = \frac{\pi (4)(0.1)^2}{4} = \pi(0.01)$  ■

Chapters 1 through 11 will deal mostly with functions of a single independent variable. Beginning in Chapter 12, we will study properties of functions of two or more independent variables.



FIGURE 5

Remember, use your graphing calculator to check the graphs on this book. Experiment with various graphing windows until you are convinced that you understand all important aspects of the graph.

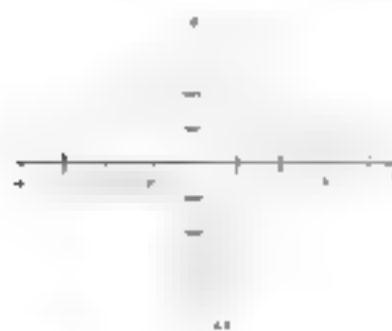


graph of a function  $y = f(x)$ . When both the domain and range of a function are sets of real numbers, we can picture the function by drawing its graph on a Cartesian plane. The **graph of a function**  $f$  is simply the graph of the equation  $y = f(x)$ .

### EXAMPLE 4 Sketch the graphs of

- a.  $f(x) = x^2 - 1$       b.  $g(x) = \frac{1}{x+1}$

**SOLUTION** The domains of  $f$  and  $g$  are respectively all real numbers and all real numbers, except  $-1$ . Following the procedure described in Section 0.4, make a table of values for the corresponding points (notice these points will be enough to sketch the curves), we obtain the two graphs shown in Figures 6 and 7a.



Pay special attention to the graph of  $g$ ; it points to an oversimplification that we have made. We now need to comment. When constructing the plotted points for a smooth curve, as you do with a table, we have not emphasized it. It turns out that the apparent smooth behavior of the function in the case of  $f(x) = x^2 - 1$  is something dramatic happens as  $x$  gets close to the values of  $x$  where the function becomes 0 (for example,  $g(x) = \frac{1}{x+1}$  at  $x = -1$ ), and  $y$  gets very large. We have not called this out, drawing it as does Figure 7a, as an asymptote, at  $x = -1$ . As  $x$  approaches  $-1$ , the graph gets closer and closer to this line, though the farther you go, the farther the graph stays away from it. Notice that the graph of  $g$  also has a horizontal asymptote, the  $x$ -axis.

There was like  $g(x) = \frac{1}{x+1}$  an even cause problems when you graph them on a CAS. An example: Graph when speed is  $g(x) = \frac{1}{x+1}$  over the domain  $[-1, 1]$ . Compared with the graph in Figure 7a, Figure 7b illustrates a behavior that you see in a graphing much like that described in Section 1.4. How does it work? Another idea is to think of the graph as a curve that goes to infinity as  $x$  approaches  $-1$  from both sides. When  $M$  is a large number, say  $10^6$ , the  $x$ -axis is very close to the  $y$ -axis. When  $M$  is a large number, say  $10^6$ , the  $y$ -axis is very close to the  $x$ -axis. When  $M$  is a large number, say  $10^6$ , the  $x$ -axis is very close to the  $y$ -axis. When  $M$  is a large number, say  $10^6$ , the  $y$ -axis is very close to the  $x$ -axis. When  $M$  is a large number, say  $10^6$ , the  $x$ -axis is very close to the  $y$ -axis. When  $M$  is a large number, say  $10^6$ , the  $y$ -axis is very close to the  $x$ -axis.

The domains and ranges for the functions  $f$  and  $g$  are shown in the table below.

Function	Domain	Range
$f(x) = x^2 - 1$	All real numbers	$y \geq -1$
$g(x) = \frac{1}{x+1}$	$x \neq -1$	$y \neq 0$

**DEFINITION** We can often predict the symmetries of the graph of a function by inspecting the formula for the function. If  $f(-x) = f(x)$  for all  $x$ , then the graph is symmetric with respect to the  $y$ -axis. Such a function is called an

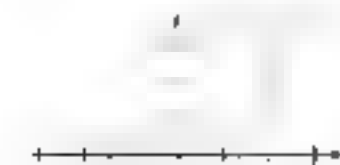


FIGURE 6

FIGURE 7



FIGURE 8

even function, probably because a function that specifies  $x^2$  as a sum of odd powers of  $x$  is even. The function  $f(x) = x^2 - 2$  (graphed in Figure 6) is even, so are  $f(x) = x^2 + 2$ ,  $f(x) = x^4 - 1$ ,  $f(x) = x^6 + x^4 + x^2$  and  $f(x) = (x^3 - 2x)^2$ .

If  $f(-x) = -f(x)$  for all  $x$ , the graph is symmetric with respect to the origin. We call such a function an **odd function**. A function that gives  $-x$  as a sum of odd powers of  $x$  is odd. Thus  $g(x) = x^3 - 2x$  (graphed in Figure 8) is odd. Note that

$$g(-x) = (-x)^3 - 2(-x) = -x^3 + 2x = -(x^3 - 2x) = -g(x).$$

Consider the function  $y = x^2 + 2x - 1$  from Example 4, which we graphed in Figure 7. It is neither even nor odd. To see this, observe that  $g(x) = 2 + x - 1$ , which is not equal to either  $g(x)$  or  $-g(x)$ . Note that the graph of  $y = g(x)$  is neither symmetric with respect to the  $y$ -axis nor the origin.

**EXAMPLE 5** Is  $f(x) = x^3 + x^2 - 4$  even, odd, or neither?

**SOLUTION** Since

$$f(-x) = (-x)^3 + (-x)^2 - 4 = -x^3 + x^2 - 4 \neq f(x) \quad \text{and} \quad f(-x) \neq -f(x)$$

$f$  is an odd function. The graph of  $y = f(x)$  (Figure 9) is symmetric with respect to the origin.

Some odd functions that will often be given by example are the very special ones the **absolute value function**,  $|x|$ , and the **greatest integer function**,  $\lfloor x \rfloor$ . They are defined by

$$|x| = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x \geq 0 \\ -x & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases}$$

and

$\lfloor x \rfloor =$  the greatest integer less than or equal to  $x$ .

Thus  $\lfloor -3.1 \rfloor = \lfloor 3.1 \rfloor = 3$ , while  $\lfloor -3.1 \rfloor = -4$  and  $\lfloor 3.1 \rfloor = 3$ . We show the graphs of these two functions in Figures 10 and 11. The absolute value function is even, since  $|x| = |-x|$ . The greatest integer function is neither even nor odd, as you can see from its graph.

We will often repeat in the following special features of these graphs. The graph of  $|x|$  has a sharp corner at the origin; while the graph of  $\lfloor x \rfloor$  takes values only at each integer.

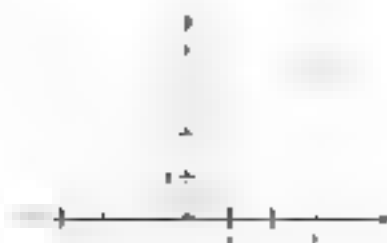


FIGURE 10



FIGURE 11

## Concepts Review

1. The set of allowable inputs for a function is called the domain of the function; the set of outputs that are obtained is called the range of the function.

2. If  $f(3) = 7$ , then  $3 \in \text{domain}$  and  $f(3) = 7 \in \text{range}$ .

3. As  $x$  gets closer and closer to  $L$  as  $x$  increases indefinitely, then the line  $y = L$  is a(n) horizontal asymptote for the graph of  $f$ .

4. If  $f(-x) = f(x)$  for all  $x$  in the domain of  $f$ , then  $f$  is called an even function; if  $f(-x) = -f(x)$  for all  $x$  in the domain of  $f$ , then  $f$  is called an odd function. In the first case, the graph of  $f$  is symmetric with respect to the y-axis; in the second case, it is symmetric with respect to the origin.

## Problem Set 0.5

1. For  $f(x) = -x^2$  find each value.

- (a)  $f(4)$  (b)  $f(-5)$  (c)  $f(1)$   
 (d)  $f(-h)$  (e)  $f(1+h) - f(1)$

2. For  $F(x) = x^2 + 3$  find each value.

- (a)  $F(1)$  (b)  $F(\sqrt{2})$  (c)  $F(1.1)$   
 (d)  $F(2+h) - F(2)$

3. For  $f(x, y) = 1 - y$  find each value.

- (a)  $G(1)$  (b)  $G(0, 2)$  (c)  $f(1, 2)$   
 (d)  $G(x^2)$  (e)  $f(x, 1)$

4. For  $\Phi(x) = \frac{x+1}{\sqrt{x}}$  find each value. ( $\Phi$  is the uppercase Greek letter phi.)

- (a)  $\Phi(1)$  (b)  $\Phi(-1)$  (c)  $\Phi(x)$   
 (d)  $\Phi(x-1)$  (e)  $\Phi(x^2)$

5. For

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x+2}}$$

find each value.

- (a)  $f(25)$  (b)  $f(4)$  (c)  $f(3 - \sqrt{2})$

6. For  $f(x) = \sqrt{x^2 + 9}$ ,  $x \in [-3, 3]$  find each value.

- (a)  $f(0.5)$  (b)  $f(2.2)$  (c)  $f(\sqrt{3})$

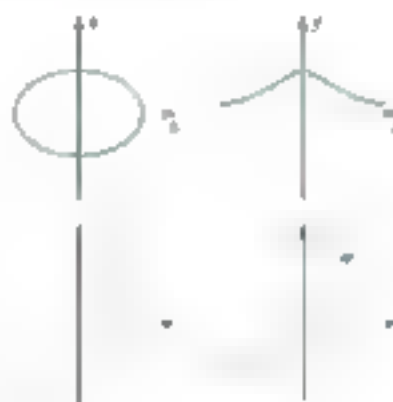
7. Which of the following determine a function  $f$  with formula  $y = f(x)$ ? For those that do, find  $f(y)$ . *Hint:* Solve for  $x$  in terms of  $y$  and write that the definition of a function requires a single  $x$  each.

(a)  $x = \sqrt{2y+1}$  (b)  $x = \frac{y}{y+1}$

8. Which of the graphs in Figure 1.3 are graphs of functions?

This problem suggests a rule: For a graph to be the graph of a function, each vertical line must meet the graph at at most one point.

9. For  $f(x) = 2x - 1$  find and simplify  $[f(x+h) - f(x)]/h$ .



10. For  $F(x) = 4x^3$  find and simplify  $F(h) - F(1)$ .

11. For  $g(x) = 3(x-2)$ , find and simplify  $g(1+h) - g(1)/h$ .

12. For  $h(x) = x/(x+4)$ , find and simplify  $h(1+h) - h(1)/h$ .

13. Find the natural domain for each of the following.

- (a)  $F(x) = \sqrt{x-3}$  (b)  $g(x) = 1/(4x-1)$   
 (c)  $h(x) = \sqrt{x^2-9}$  (d)  $f(x) = -\sqrt{625-x^2}$

14. Find the natural domain in each case.

- (a)  $F(x) = \frac{4-x}{x^2-6}$  (b)  $G(x) = \sqrt{y+x^2}$   
 (c)  $h(x) = (2x+3)$  (d)  $P(x) = x^{2/3} - 4$

In Problems 15–30, specify whether the given function is even, odd, or neither, and then sketch its graph.

15.  $f(x) = -4$  16.  $f(x) = x^2 + 1$   
 17.  $f(x) = 2x + 1$  18.  $f(x) = 3x - \sqrt{2}$   
 19.  $g(x) = 3x^2 + 2x$  20.  $h(x) = \frac{x}{x^2+1}$   
 21.  $g(x) = \frac{x}{x^2}$  22.  $h(x) = x^2 + 1$   
 23.  $f(x) = \sqrt{x-1}$  24.  $h(x) = x^2 + 4$   
 25.  $f(x) = (2x-1)^2$  26.  $f(x) = x^2 - 1$   
 27.  $h(x) = \left[ \frac{x}{x^2+1} \right]^2$  28.  $G(x) = [2x-1]^2$

$$29. g(x) = \begin{cases} 5 & \text{if } x \leq 0 \\ 4 & \text{if } 0 < x < 1 \\ x^2 & \text{if } x \geq 1 \end{cases}$$

$$30. h(x) = \begin{cases} x + 4 & \text{if } x \leq 1 \\ x^2 & \text{if } x > 1 \end{cases}$$

31. A plant has the capacity to produce from 0 to 100 computers per day. The daily overhead for the plant is \$5000, and the direct cost (labor and materials) of producing one computer is \$400. Write a formula for  $T(x)$ , the total cost of producing  $x$  computers in one day, and also for the unit cost  $u(x)$  (average cost per computer). What are the domains of these functions?

32. It costs ABC Company  $300 + 5\sqrt{x}$  dollars to make  $x$  toy trucks that sell for 36 each.

a. Find a formula for  $P(x)$ , the total profit in making  $x$  trucks. Evaluate  $P(20)$  and  $P(40)$ .

b. How many trucks does ABC have to make to not break even?

33. Find the formula for the area  $A(x)$  by which a number  $x$  exceeds its square. Plot a graph of  $A(x)$  for  $0 \leq x \leq 2$ . Use the graph to estimate the positive number less than or equal to 1 that exceeds its square by the maximum amount.

34. Let  $p$  denote the perimeter of an equilateral triangle. Find a formula for  $A(p)$ , the area of such a triangle.

35. A right triangle has a fixed hypotenuse of length  $h$  and one leg that has length  $x$ . Find a formula for the length  $L(x)$  of the other leg.

36. A right triangle has a fixed hypotenuse of length  $h$  and one leg that has length  $x$ . Find a formula for the area  $A(x)$  of the triangle.

37. The Acme Car Rental Agency charges \$24 a day for the rental of a car plus \$0.40 per mile.

a. Write a formula for the total rental expense  $F(x)$  for one day, where  $x$  is the number of miles driven.

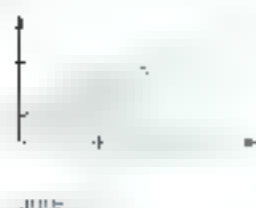
you will a car for one day how many miles can you drive for \$50?

38. A right circular cylinder of radius  $r$  is inscribed in a sphere of radius  $R$ . Find a formula for  $V(r)$ , the volume of the cylinder in terms of  $r$ .

39. A 1-mile track has parallel sides and semi-circular ends. Find a formula for the area enclosed by the track,  $A(r)$ , in terms of the diameter  $d$  of the semicircles. What is the natural domain for this function?

40. Let  $A(x)$  denote the area of the region bounded from above by the line  $y = x + 1$ , from the left by the  $y$ -axis, from below by the  $x$ -axis, and from the right by the line  $x = 5$ . Such a function is called an *accumulation function*. See Figure 1.1.6.

- $A(1)$
- $A(0)$
- Sketch the graph of  $A(x)$ .
- What are the domain and range of  $A$ ?



41. Let  $B(x)$  denote the area of the region bounded from above by the graph of the curve  $y = x(1 - x^2)$ , from below by the  $x$ -axis, and from the right by the line  $x = e$ . The domain of  $B$  is the interval  $[0, 1]$ . (See Figure 1.4.) Given that  $B(1) = \frac{1}{2}$ .

- Find  $B(0)$ .
- Find  $B(\frac{1}{2})$ .
- As best you can, sketch a graph of  $B(x)$ .

42.

43. Which of the following functions satisfies  $f(1) = 1$  and all the other conditions?

- $f(x) = 2x + 1$
- $f(x) = 3x$

44. Let  $f(x + y) = f(x) + f(y)$  for all  $x$  and  $y$ . Prove that there is a number  $m$  such that  $f(x) = mx$  for all rational numbers  $x$ . First decide what  $m$  has to be. Then proceed in steps, starting with  $f(0) = 0$ ,  $f(1) = m$  for a rational number  $a$ ,  $f(1/a) = m/a$  and so on.

45. A baseball diamond is a square with sides of 90 feet. A player starts running a home run, loops around the diamond, and is out just second. Let  $t$  represent the player's distance in feet home after  $t$  seconds.

- Express  $t$  as a function of  $s$  by means of a (complicated) formula.
- Express  $s$  as a function of  $t$  by means of a (third party) formula.

To use technology effectively, you need to discover its capabilities and its limitations. We urge you to practice graphing functions of various types using your most sophisticated package or calculator. Problems 43–50 are designed for this purpose.

46. Let  $f(x) = (x^2 + 4x - 5)(x^2 + 4)$ .

- Evaluate  $f(1)$ ,  $f(2)$ , and  $f(4)$ .
- Construct a table of values for this function corresponding to  $x = -4, -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, 4$ .

47. Follow the instructions in Problem 43 for  $f(x) = \sin x + 4 \cos x + \cos x$ .

48. Draw the graph of  $f(x) = e^x + 5x + x - 6$  on the domain  $[-2, 5]$ .

- Determine the range of  $f$ .
- Where on this domain is  $f(x) \geq 0$ ?

49. Superimpose the graph of  $g(x) = 2x^2 - 8x + 1$  with domain  $[-2, 5]$  on the graph of  $f(x)$  of Problem 47.

- Estimate the  $x$ -values where  $f(x) = g(x)$ .
- Where on  $[-2, 5]$  is  $f(x) \geq g(x)$ ?
- Estimate the largest value of  $f(x) - g(x)$  on  $[-2, 5]$ .

50. Graph  $f(x) = 3.2x - 4.7x^2 + x - 4.7$  on the domain  $[-6, 6]$ .

- Determine the  $x$ - and  $y$ -intercepts.
- Determine the range of  $f$  for the given domain.
- Determine the vertical asymptotes of the graph.

- it. Determine the horizontal asymptote of the graph when the domain is enlarged to the natural domain.
50. Follow the directions in Problem 49 for the function  $g(x) = (2x - 4)\sqrt{x^2 + x - 6}$ .

51.  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2 + 1}$  1 domain, none  
 $2. 12x^2 - 3(x + 4)^2 = 3x - 6x^2 + 36^2$  3 asymptote  
 $3. x = 0, y(0) = 0, y(1) = 0, y(2) = 0$

## 6.6 Operations on Functions

Just as we numbers  $a$  and  $b$  can be added to produce a new number  $a + b$ , we can functions  $f$  and  $g$  can be added to produce a new function  $f + g$ . We will describe several operations on functions that we will describe in this section.

Let  $f(x) = (x - 3)/2$  and  $g(x) = \sqrt{x}$ . We can make a new function  $f + g$  by having it assign to  $x$  the value  $f(x) + g(x)$  with formula

$$(f + g)(x) = \frac{x - 3}{2} + \sqrt{x}$$

We can make a new function  $f + g$  by having it assign to  $x$  the value  $f(x) + g(x) = (x - 3)/2 + \sqrt{x}$  that is,

$$(f + g)(x) = f(x) + g(x) = \frac{x - 3}{2} + \sqrt{x}$$

Of course we must be a little careful about domains. Clearly  $x$  must be a number in which both  $f$  and  $g$  can work. In other words, the domain of  $f + g$  is the intersection (common part) of the domains of  $f$  and  $g$  (Figure 1).

The functions  $f(x) = (x - 3)/2$  and  $g(x) = \sqrt{x}$  can be added only for nonnegative  $x$ . Assume that  $f$  and  $g$  have their natural domains; we have the following:

Formula	Domain
$(f + g)(x) = f(x) + g(x) = \frac{x - 3}{2} + \sqrt{x}$	$[0, \infty)$
$(f - g)(x) = f(x) - g(x) = \frac{x - 3}{2} - \sqrt{x}$	$[0, \infty)$
$(f \cdot g)(x) = f(x) \cdot g(x) = \frac{x - 3}{2} \sqrt{x}$	$[0, \infty)$
$(f/g)(x) = \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{x - 3}{2\sqrt{x}}$	$(0, \infty)$

We had to exclude 0 from the domain of  $f/g$  to avoid division by 0.

We may also raise a function to a power. By  $f^n$  we mean the function that assigns to  $x$  the value  $[f(x)]^n$ . Thus,

$$g^2(x) = [g(x)]^2 = (\sqrt{x})^2 = x^{2/2}$$

There is one exception to the above agreement on exponents: namely, when  $n = -1$ . We reserve the symbol  $f^{-1}$  for the inverse function, which will be discussed in Section 6.2. Thus,  $f^{-1}$  does not mean  $1/f$ .

**EXAMPLE** Let  $F(x) = \sqrt{x - 1}$  and  $G(x) = \sqrt{x + 2}$  with respective natural domains  $[1, \infty)$  and  $[-2, \infty)$ . Find formulas for  $F + G$ ,  $F - G$ ,  $F \cdot G$ ,  $F/G$ , and  $F^2$  and give their natural domains.

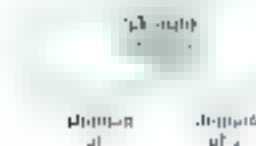


Figure 1

## SOLUTION

	Form. 1	Form. 2	Domain
$F(x) = G(x) = F(x)$	$G(x) = \sqrt{x}$	$x = \sqrt{x}$	$\{1\}$
$(F \circ G)(x) = F(G(x))$	$G(x) = \sqrt{x+1}$	$\sqrt{9-x^2}$	$[-1, 1]$
$F \circ G(x) = F(G(x)) = \sqrt{G(x)} = \sqrt{\sqrt{x+1}}$	$\sqrt{x}$	$\sqrt{x}$	$\{1\}$
$(F \circ G)(x) = F(G(x)) = \sqrt{G(x)} = \sqrt{\sqrt{x+1}}$	$\sqrt{x}$	$\sqrt{x}$	$[1, \infty)$

Further, we ask you to think of composition as a machine that accepts an input, works on it, and produces an output. Two machines may often be put together in tandem to make a more complicated machine. This is what we call composition. If we work on an input  $x$  and the works on  $f$  to produce  $g$ , then we say that we have composed  $g$  with  $f$ . The resulting function, called the **composition** of  $g$  with  $f$  is denoted by  $g \circ f$  thus:

$$(g \circ f)(x) = g(f(x))$$

In our previous examples we had  $f(x) = (x-3)/2$  and  $g(x) = \sqrt{x}$ . We may compose these functions in two ways:

$$\begin{aligned} (f \circ g)(x) &= f(g(x)) = f(\sqrt{x}) = \frac{\sqrt{x}-3}{2} \\ (g \circ f)(x) &= g(f(x)) = g\left(\frac{x-3}{2}\right) = \sqrt{\frac{x-3}{2}} \end{aligned}$$

Right away we note that  $f \circ g$  does not equal  $g \circ f$ , thus we say that the composition of functions is not commutative.

We must be careful in describing the domain of a composite function. The domain of  $g \circ f$  is equal to the set of those values  $x$  that satisfy the following properties:

1.  $x$  is in the domain of  $f$
2.  $f(x)$  is in the domain of  $g$

In our example, we must be a valid equation  $f(x)$  and  $f(x)$  must be non-negative for  $g$ . In our example these are  $x \geq 3$  in the domain of  $f$  but  $f(x)$  must be in the domain of  $g$  because this would lead to the square root of a negative number.

$$g(f(2)) = g((2-3)/2) = g\left(-\frac{1}{2}\right) = \sqrt{-\frac{1}{2}}$$

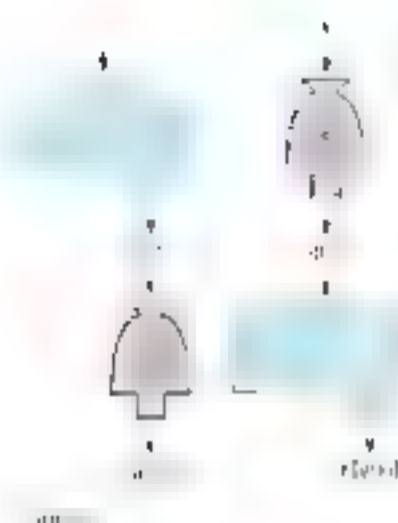
The domain for  $g \circ f$  is the interval  $[3, \infty)$ . We use  $f$  as much as we can, but it is not always the input to  $g$  and  $f$  is not always the output of  $g$ . The domain for  $f \circ g$  is the interval  $[0, \infty)$  where  $x \geq 0$  so we see that the domains of  $f \circ g$  and  $g \circ f$  can be different. Again, when the domain of  $g$  excludes those inputs  $x$  which  $f$  is not in the domain of  $g$ .

**EXAMPLE 2** Let  $f(x) = 6x/(x^2-9)$  and  $g(x) = \sqrt{3x}$  with their natural domains. First, find  $(f \circ g)(1)$ , then find  $(f \circ g)(x)$  and give its domain.

## SOLUTION

$$(f \circ g)(12) = f(g(12)) = f(\sqrt{36}) = f(6) = \frac{6 \cdot 6}{6^2 - 9} = \frac{6}{3}$$

$$(f \circ g)(x) = f(g(x)) = \frac{6\sqrt{3x}}{(\sqrt{3x})^2 - 9} = \frac{6\sqrt{3x}}{3x - 9}$$





The expression  $\sqrt{3x}$  appears in both the numerator and denominator. Any negative number for  $x$  will lead to the square root of a negative number. Thus, all negative numbers must be excluded from the domain of  $g \circ f$ . Since we have  $(\sqrt{3x})^2 = 3x$ , allowing us to write

$$(f \circ g)(x) = \frac{x+3}{3x-9} = \frac{x+3}{x-3}$$

We must also exclude  $x = 3$  from the domain of  $f \circ g$  because  $g(3)$  is not in the domain of  $f$ . (It would cause division by 0.) Thus, the domain of  $f \circ g$  is  $[0, 3) \cup (3, \infty)$ .

In calculus, we will often need to take a given function and write it as the composition of two simpler functions. A simple function can be defined in many ways. For example,  $p(x) = \sqrt{x^2 + 4}$  can be written as

$$p(x) = g(f(x)), \quad \text{where } g(x) = \sqrt{x} \text{ and } f(x) = x^2 + 4$$

or as

$$p(x) = g(f(x)), \quad \text{where } g(x) = \sqrt{x+4} \text{ and } f(x) = x^2$$

(You should check to verify that these choices give  $p(x) = \sqrt{x^2 + 4}$  with domain  $(-\infty, \infty)$ .) The decomposition  $p(x) = g(f(x))$  with  $f(x) = x^2 + 4$  and  $g(x) = \sqrt{x}$  is regarded as simpler and is usually preferred. We can then view  $p(x) = \sqrt{x^2 + 4}$  as the square root of a function of  $x$ . This way of looking at functions will be important in Chapter 2.

**EXAMPLE 3** Write the composite function  $p(x) = x^5 + 4x^2$  as a composition of two functions.

**SOLUTION** The most obvious way to decompose  $p(x)$  is to write

$$p(x) = g(f(x)), \quad \text{where } g(x) = x^5 \text{ and } f(x) = x^2 + 2$$

We thus view  $p(x) = x^5 + 4x^2$  as the composition of a function  $g$  and

of  $f(x) = x^2 + 2$ . Observing that  $x^2$  and  $4x^2$  are both simple functions can be helpful in graphing. We may ask the question, How are the graphs of

$$y = f(x) = x^2 + 2, \quad y = g(x) = x^5, \quad y = f(x) = x^2, \quad \text{and } y = g(x) = x^5$$

related to each other? We will see that  $y = x^5$  is an example of a function whose graph is displayed in Figure 4.



Notice that all four graphs have the same shape; they are just translations of the first. Replacing  $x$  by  $x + 2$  in the graph of  $y = x^2$  (the right-handing 2) translates it upward by 2 units.

What happened with  $y = x^5 = x^2 \cdot x^3$  is typical. Figure 5 shows an illustration for the function  $f(x) = x^3 + 1$ .

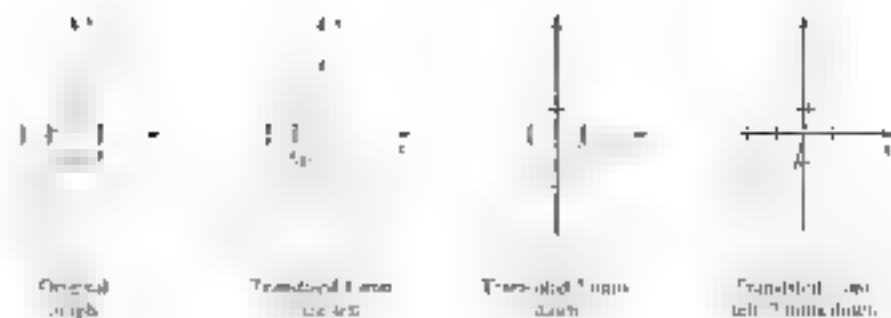


Figure 5

For all the same principles apply to the general situation. They are illustrated in Figure 6 with both  $a$  and  $k$  negative. If  $k = 0$ , the translation is along the  $x$ -axis. If  $k < 0$ , the translation is downward.

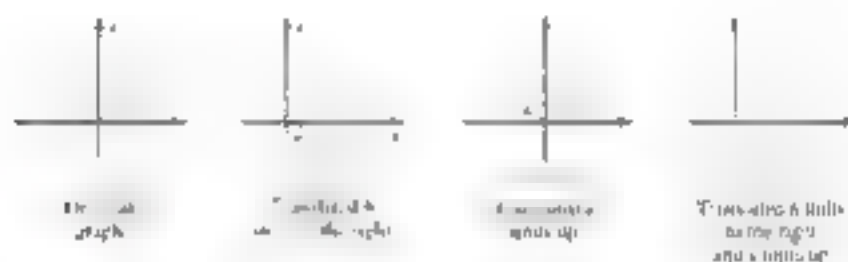


Figure 6

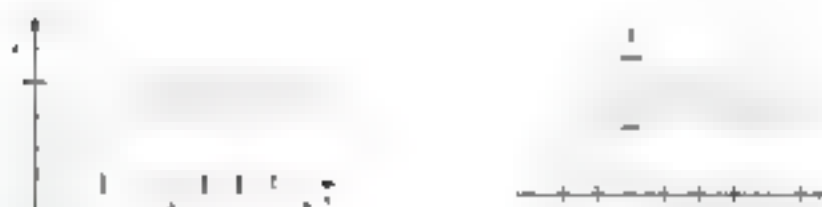


Figure 7

**EXAMPLE 1.4** Sketch the graph of  $g(x) = \sqrt{x+1} + 1$  by first graphing  $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$  and then making appropriate translations.

**SOLUTION** By translating the graph of  $f$  (Figure 7) 1 unit left and 1 unit up, we obtain the graph of  $g$  (Figure 8).

**DEFINITION** A function of the form  $f(x) = k$ , where  $k$  is a constant real number, is called a **constant function**. Its graph is a horizontal line (Figure 9). The function  $f(x) = x$  is called the **identity function**; its graph is a line through the origin having slope 1 (Figure 10). From these simple functions we can build many important functions.

Any function that can be obtained from the constant functions and the identity function by use of the operations of addition, subtraction, multiplication is called a **polynomial function**. This includes, of course, the  $f(x)$  polynomial function if it is of the form

$$f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0$$



Figure 8

where the  $a$ 's are real numbers and  $n$  is a nonnegative integer. If  $a = 1$ ,  $n$  is the **degree** of the polynomial (and can be given by  $\deg p(x) = n$ ),  $p(x)$  is a first-degree polynomial function, or **linear function**, and  $f(x) = ax^2 + bx + c$  is a second-degree polynomial function, or **quadratic function**.

Quotients of polynomial functions are called **rational functions**. Thus  $f$  is a rational function if it is of the form

$$f(x) = \frac{a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0}{b_m x^m + b_{m-1} x^{m-1} + \cdots + b_1 x + b_0}$$

The **domain** of a rational function consists of those real numbers for which the denominator is nonzero.

An **explicit algebraic function** is one that can be obtained from the constants, functions, and the algebraic functions by the operations of addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, and root extraction. Examples are

$$f(x) = 3x^{-2} = 3\sqrt[2]{x^2} \quad g(x) = \frac{x^2 - \sqrt{x}}{x + \sqrt{x} - 1}$$

The **transcendental functions** are those which cannot be obtained by applying algebraic operations to exponential and logarithmic functions (or by introducing them into the basic transcendental functions).

## Concepts Review

1. If  $f(x) = x^2 - 1$ , show  $f^{-1}(x) = \pm\sqrt{x+1}$ .
2. The value of the composite function  $f \circ g$  at  $x$  is given by  $\rule{1.5cm}{0.4pt}$ .
3. Compared to the graph of  $y = f(x)$ , the graph of  $y = f^{-1}(x)$  is  $\rule{1.5cm}{0.4pt}$  and  $\rule{1.5cm}{0.4pt}$ .
4. A  $\rule{1.5cm}{0.4pt}$  set of points is  $\rule{1.5cm}{0.4pt}$ .

## Problem Set 0.6

1. Find  $f \circ g$  and  $g \circ f$  and sketch both, if possible.
  - (a)  $f(x) = 2x + 1$ ,  $g(x) = x^2 + 1$
  - (b)  $f(x) = x^2 + 1$ ,  $g(x) = 2x + 1$
2. Find  $f \circ g$  and  $g \circ f$  and sketch each, if possible.
  - (a)  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$ ,  $g(x) = \frac{1}{x^2}$
  - (b)  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2}$ ,  $g(x) = \frac{1}{x}$
3. Find  $\phi \circ \psi$  and  $\psi \circ \phi$  and sketch each, if possible.
  - (a)  $\phi(x) = x^2$ ,  $\psi(x) = x^3$
  - (b)  $\phi(x) = x^3$ ,  $\psi(x) = x^2$
  - (c)  $\phi(x) = x^2 + 1$ ,  $\psi(x) = x^3 + 1$
  - (d)  $\phi(x) = x^2 + 1$ ,  $\psi(x) = x^3$
  - (e)  $\phi(x) = x^3 + 1$ ,  $\psi(x) = x^2 + 1$
  - (f)  $\phi(x) = x^3$ ,  $\psi(x) = x^2 + 1$
4. If  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$  and  $g(x) = \frac{1}{x^2}$ , find formulas for the following and state the domains.
  - (a)  $f \circ g$
  - (b)  $g \circ f$
  - (c)  $f \circ f$
  - (d)  $g \circ g$
5. If  $f(x) = x^2 + 1$  and  $g(x) = f(x)$ , find formulas for  $g^2(x)$  and  $(g \circ g)(x)$ .
6. Calculate  $g(3.05)$  if  $g(x) = \frac{3x^2 + 2x}{x + 1}$ .
7. Calculate  $g(3.05)$  if  $g(x) = \frac{x^2 - \sqrt{x+1}}{1 - x - x^2}$ .
8. Compared to the graph of  $y = f(x)$ , the graph of  $y = f^{-1}(x)$  is  $\rule{1.5cm}{0.4pt}$  and  $\rule{1.5cm}{0.4pt}$ .
9. Calculate  $\pi \circ \pi$  and  $\pi \circ \pi \circ \pi$ .
10. Calculate  $\pi \circ \pi \circ \pi \circ \pi$ .
11. Find  $f$  and  $g$  so that  $f \circ g = I$ . See Ex. 10b.
12. Find  $f$  and  $g$  so that  $g \circ f = I$ .
13. If  $p(x) = (x^2 + x + 1)^2$  and  $q(x) = x^2 + 3x$ .
14. Write  $p(x) = 1/\sqrt{x^2 - 1}$  as a composition of four functions.
15. Sketch the graph of  $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$  and sketch  $g(x) = \sqrt{x}$  and show  $f \circ g = I$ . See Example 1.
16. Sketch the graph of  $f(x) = x^2 + 1$  and sketch  $g(x) = x^2 + 1$  and show  $f \circ g = I$ .
17. Sketch the graph of  $f(x) = (x - 2)^2 - 4$  using translations.
18. Sketch the graph of  $g(x) = x - 2)^2 - 3$  using translations.
19. Sketch the graph of  $f(x) = x^2 + 1$  and  $g(x) = \sqrt{x}$  using the unit coordinate axes. Show each  $\rule{1.5cm}{0.4pt}$  is adding  $x$ -coordinates.

20. Follow the directions of Problem 19 for  $f(x) = x$  and  $g(x) = x^2$ .

21. Sketch the graph of  $F(x) = |x|$ .

22. Sketch the graph of  $F(x) = x - [x]$ .

23. State whether each of the following is an odd function, an even function, or neither. Prove your statements.

- The sum of two even functions
- The sum of two odd functions
- The product of two even functions
- The product of two odd functions
- The product of an even function and an odd function

24. Let  $F$  be any function whose domain contains  $x$  when ever it contains  $x$ . Prove each of the following.

- $F(x) - F(-x)$  is an odd function
- $F(x) + F(-x)$  is an even function
- $F$  is always (or expressed as the sum of an odd and an even function.

25. Is every polynomial of even degree an even function? Is every polynomial of odd degree an odd function? Explain.

26. Classify each of the following as a PF (polynomial function), RF (rational function) not a polynomial function) or neither.

- $f(x) = 3x^{1/2} - 2$
- $f(x) = 3x^2 + 2x$
- $f(x) = \frac{1}{x+1}$
- $f(x) = \frac{x+1}{x^2+3}$

27. The relationship between the unit price  $P$  (in cents) for certain product and the demand  $D$  (in thousands of units) appears to satisfy

$$P = \sqrt{39 - 10D + D^2}$$

for the first 10 units. The demand has been over the 10 years since 1970 according to  $D = 2 + \sqrt{t}$ .

- Express  $P$  as a function of  $t$ .
- Evaluate  $P$  when  $t = 3$ .

28. After being in business for  $t$  years, a manufacturer of cars is making  $20 - 2t^2$  units per year. The sales price in dollars per unit has been according to the formula  $P(t) = 2000 - 50t$ . Write a formula for the manufacturer's yearly revenue  $R(t)$  after  $t$  years.

29. Starting at noon, airplane A flies due north at 400 miles per hour. Starting 1 hour later, airplane B flies due east at 300 miles per hour. Neglecting the curvature of the Earth and assuming they fly at the same altitude, find a formula for  $D(t)$ , the distance between the two airplanes  $t$  hours after noon. How? There will be two formulas for  $D(t)$ , one if  $0 < t < 1$  and the other if  $t \geq 1$ .

30. Find the distance between the airplanes of Problem 29 at 11:00 a.m.

31. Let  $f(x) = \frac{a+b}{x} - \frac{b}{x}$ . Show that  $f_1 f_2(x) = x$ , provided  $a^2 + bc \neq 0$  and  $a \neq a/c$ .

32. Let  $f(x) = \frac{x-3}{x-1}$ . Show that  $f_1(f(x)) = x$ , provided  $x \neq \pm 1$ .

33. Let  $f(x) = \frac{x}{x^2+1}$ . Find and simplify each value.

- $f(1)$
- $f(f(x))$
- $f(f(x))$

34. Let  $f(x) = \frac{x}{x^2+1}$ . Find and simplify:

- $f\left(\frac{1}{x}\right)$
- $f(f(x))$

35. Prove that the operation of composition of functions is associative; that is,  $f_1 \circ (f_2 \circ f_3) = (f_1 \circ f_2) \circ f_3$ .

36. Let  $f_1(x) = x$ ,  $f_2(x) = 1/x$ ,  $f_3(x) = 1/x$ ,  $f_4(x) = x/(1-x)$ ,  $f_5(x) = (1-x)/(1+x)$ , and  $f_6(x) = x/(1+x)$ . Note that  $f_1 \circ f_2 = f_3$ ,  $f_2 \circ f_3 = f_1$ ,  $f_3 \circ f_4 = f_5$ ,  $f_4 \circ f_5 = f_3$ ,  $f_5 \circ f_6 = f_4$ , and  $f_6 \circ f_4 = f_5$ . In fact, the composition of any two of these functions is another one in the list. (a) Is the composition table in Figure 11.

	$f_1$	$f_2$	$f_3$	$f_4$	$f_5$	$f_6$
$f_1$						
$f_2$						
$f_3$						
$f_4$						
$f_5$						
$f_6$						

Then use the table to find each of the following. From Problem 35, you know that the associative law holds.

- $f_1 \circ f_2 \circ f_3$
- $f_2 \circ f_3 \circ f_4$
- $f_3 \circ f_4 \circ f_5$
- $f_4 \circ f_5 \circ f_6$
- $f_5 \circ f_6 \circ f_1$
- $f_6 \circ f_1 \circ f_2$

37. Use a computer or a graphing calculator to determine  $f_1 \circ f_2$ .

38. Let  $f(x) = x^2 - 3x$ . Using the same axes, draw the graphs of  $y = f(x)$ ,  $y = f_1(x) = f(x) + 1$ , and  $y = f_2(x) = f(x) - 1$  on the domain  $[-2, 4]$ .

39. Let  $f(x) = x^2$ . Using the same axes draw the graphs of  $y = f(x)$ ,  $y = f_1(x) = f(x) + 1$ , and  $y = f_2(x) = f(x) - 1$  on the domain  $[-2, 4]$ .

40. Let  $f(x) = 2\sqrt{x} - 2x + 0.25x^2$ . Using the same axes, draw the graphs of  $y = f(x)$ ,  $y = f_1(x) = f(x) + 1$ , and  $y = f_2(x) = f(x) - 1$  on the domain  $[-4, 4]$ .

41. Let  $f(x) = 1/(x-1)$ . Using the same axes, draw the graphs of  $y = f(x)$ ,  $y = f_1(x) = f(x) + 1$ , and  $y = f_2(x) = f(x) - 1$  on the domain  $[-4, 4]$ .

42. Your computer algebra system (CAS) may allow the use of parameters in defining functions. In each case, draw the graph of  $y = f(x)$  for the specified values of the parameter  $k$ , using the same axes.

- $f(x) = kx^{0.5}$  for  $k = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5$  and  $0.1$
- $f(x) = kx^{1.5}$  for  $k = 0.1, 0.2, 0.3$  and  $3$
- $f(x) = kx^2$  for  $k = 0.4, 0.7$  and  $1$

43. Using the same axes, draw the graph of  $f(x) = k/(1-x)$  for the following choices of parameters.

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} n & & 2 & & 4 & & 6 \\ & & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ k & & 2k & & 4k & & 6k \end{array}$$

Answers to Concepts Review: 1.  $(x^2 + 1)^3$  2.  $f(g(x))$   
3.  $\sqrt{x+1}$  4. a quotient of two polynomial functions

## Trigonometric Functions

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \theta & & \theta \\ \text{arc } \theta = \frac{\text{opp}}{\text{hyp}} & \text{csc } \theta = \frac{\text{hyp}}{\text{opp}} & \text{sec } \theta = \frac{\text{hyp}}{\text{adj}} \end{array}$$

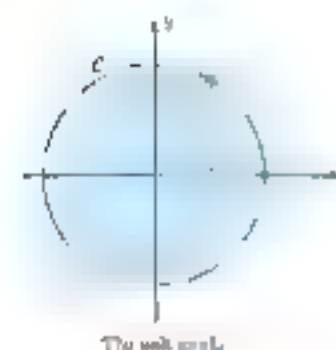
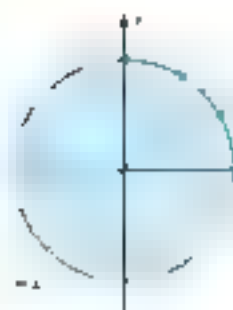


Figure 2



You have probably seen the definitions of the trigonometric functions based on right triangles (Figure 1) summarized in the acronym SOH-CAH-TOA for the trigonometric functions. You should discuss Figure 1 carefully because some concepts will be needed for many applications later in this book.

More generally, we define the trigonometric functions based on the unit circle. The unit circle, which we denote by  $C$ , is the circle with radius 1 and center at the origin that has equation  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ . Let  $A$  be the point  $(1, 0)$  and let  $t$  be a positive number. Move a unit-length point  $P$  on the circle  $C$  in the counterclockwise direction from the point  $A$  such that the arc length  $AP$  equals  $t$ . See Figure 2. Recall that the circumference of a circle with radius  $r$  is  $2\pi r$ , so the circumference of  $C$  is  $2\pi$ . Thus, if  $t = \pi$  then the point  $P$  is exactly halfway around the circle from the point  $A$ ; in this case,  $P$  is the point  $(-1, 0)$ . If  $t = 3\pi/2$ , then  $P$  is the point  $(0, -1)$ , and if  $t = 2\pi$  then  $P$  is the point  $(1, 0)$ . In other words, if  $t$  is large enough, it will take more than one complete circuit of the circle  $C$  to trace the arc  $AP$ .

When  $t < 0$ , we trace the circle in a clockwise direction. There will be a unique point  $P$  on the circle  $C$  such that the arc length from  $A$  to  $P$  in the clockwise direction from  $A$  is  $|t|$ . For a given real number  $t$ , we now have a unique point  $P$  on the unit circle. This allows us to make the key definitions of the sine and cosine functions. The functions sine and cosine are written as  $\sin$  and  $\cos$ , rather than as  $\sin t$  and  $\cos t$ , for such as  $\sin t$  and  $\cos t$  are not independent variables. We usually omit  $t$  unless there is some ambiguity.

### Definition of the Sine and Cosine Functions

Let  $t$  be a real number that determines the point  $P(x, y)$  on the unit circle. Then

$$\sin t = y \quad \text{and} \quad \cos t = x$$

As a consequence of the definitions just given, the sine function  $\sin$  has range the interval  $[-1, 1]$  and the cosine function  $\cos$  has range the interval  $[-1, 1]$ . Thus, the range of both the sine and cosine functions is the interval  $[-1, 1]$ .

Because the unit circle has circumference  $2\pi$ , the values  $\sin t$  and  $\cos t + 2\pi$  determine the same point  $P(x, y)$ . Thus,

$$\sin(t + 2\pi) = \sin t \quad \text{and} \quad \cos(t + 2\pi) = \cos t$$

(Notice that parentheses are needed to make it clear that we mean  $\sin(t + 2\pi)$  rather than  $(\sin t) + 2\pi$ . The expression  $\sin t + 2\pi$  would be ambiguous.)

The points  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  that correspond to  $t$  and  $-t$  respectively are symmetric about the  $x$ -axis (Figure 3). Thus, the  $x$ -coordinates (or  $\cos t$ ) are the same, and the  $y$ -coordinates differ only in sign. Consequently,

$$\sin(-t) = -\sin t \quad \text{and} \quad \cos(-t) = \cos t$$

In other words, sine is an odd function and cosine is an even function.

The points  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  corresponding to  $t$  and  $\pi/2 + t$  respectively are symmetric with respect to the line  $y = x$  and thus they have their coordinates interchanged (Figure 4). This means that

$$\sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2} + t\right) = \cos t \quad \text{and} \quad \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2} + t\right) = \sin t$$

Finally we mention an important identity connecting the sine and cosine functions:

$$\sin^2 t + \cos^2 t = 1$$

for every real number  $t$ . This identity follows from the fact that since the point  $(x, y)$  is on the unit circle,  $x$  and  $y$  satisfy  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ .

For  $t = 0$ ,  $\sin t = 0$ ,  $\cos t = 1$ . To graph  $\sin t$  and  $t = \cos t$  we follow the usual procedure of making a table of values, plotting the corresponding points, and connecting these points with a smooth curve. So far, however, we know the values of  $\sin t$  and  $\cos t$  for only a few values of  $t$ . A number of other values can be determined from geometric arguments. For example if  $t = \pi/4$ , then  $t$  determines the first half of the way around the circle, and the angle  $t$  between the points  $(1, 0)$  and  $(0, 1)$ . By symmetry,  $x$  and  $y$  will be on the line  $y = x$ , so  $y = \sin t$  and  $x = \cos t$  will be equal. Thus the two legs of the right triangle formed are equal and the hypotenuse is 1 (Figure 6-5). The Pythagorean Theorem can be applied to give

$$1 = x^2 + y^2 = \cos^2 \frac{\pi}{4} + \sin^2 \frac{\pi}{4}$$

from this we conclude that  $\sin \pi/4 = \cos \pi/4 = \sqrt{2}/2$ . Similarly  $\sin \pi/6 = \cos \pi/3 = 1/2$ . We can determine  $\sin t$  and  $\cos t$  for a number of other values of  $t$ . Some of these are shown in the table in the margin. Using these results, along with a number of results from a calculation of the radian measure, we obtain the graphs shown in Figure 6-6.



Four things are noticeable from these graphs:

1. Both  $\sin t$  and  $\cos t$  range from  $-1$  to  $1$ .
2. Both graphs repeat themselves on adjacent intervals of length  $2\pi$ .
3. The graph of  $y = \sin t$  is symmetric about the origin, and  $y = \cos t$  is symmetric about the  $y$ -axis. (Thus, the sine function is odd and the cosine function is even.)

The graph of  $y = \sin t$  is the same as that of  $y = \cos t$ , but translated  $\pi/2$  units to the right.

The next example deals with functions of the form  $a \sin t$  or  $a \cos t$ , which occur frequently in applications.

### EXAMPLE 1 Sketch the graphs of

(a)  $y = \sin(2\pi t)$

(b)  $y = \cos 2t$

#### SOLUTION

- (a) As given,  $\sin(2\pi t)$  is the argument  $2\pi$  over  $2\pi$  in  $0 \leq t \leq 1$ . Thus, the graph of the function will repeat itself on adjacent intervals of length 1. From the curves in the following table we can sketch a graph of  $y = \sin(2\pi t)$ .



$t$	$\sin(\frac{1}{2}\pi t)$	$t$	$\sin 2\pi t$
0	$\sin \frac{1}{2}\pi = 0$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\sin \frac{1}{2}\pi = \frac{1}{2}$
$\frac{1}{2}$	$\sin \frac{3}{4}\pi = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\sin \pi = 0$
1	$\sin \pi = 0$	$\frac{3}{4}$	$\sin \frac{3}{2}\pi = -\frac{1}{2}$
$\frac{3}{2}$	$\sin \frac{3}{4}\pi = -\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$	1	$\sin 2\pi = 0$
2	$\sin \pi = 0$	$\frac{5}{4}$	$\sin \frac{5}{2}\pi = \frac{1}{2}$
$\frac{5}{2}$	$\sin \frac{5}{4}\pi = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$	$\frac{3}{2}$	$\sin 3\pi = 0$
3	$\sin \frac{3}{2}\pi = -1$	$\frac{7}{4}$	$\sin \frac{7}{2}\pi = -\frac{1}{2}$

Figure 7 shows a sketch of the graph of  $y = \sin 2\pi t$ .

(b) As  $t$  goes from 0 to 1, the argument  $\pi t$  goes from 0 to  $\pi$ . Thus the graph  $y = \cos(2t)$  will repeat itself on adjacent intervals of length  $\pi$ . Once we construct a table we can sketch a plot of  $y = \cos(2t)$ . Figure 8 shows the graph.

$t$	$\cos(\frac{1}{2}\pi t)$	$t$	$\cos 2\pi t$
0	$\cos \frac{1}{2}\pi = 1$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\cos \pi = -1$
$\frac{1}{2}$	$\cos \frac{3}{4}\pi = -\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\cos 2\pi = 1$
$\frac{3}{4}$	$\cos \pi = -1$	$\frac{3}{4}$	$\cos \frac{3}{2}\pi = 0$
$\frac{5}{4}$	$\cos \frac{5}{4}\pi = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$	1	$\cos 2\pi = 1$
$\frac{3}{2}$	$\cos \frac{3}{2}\pi = 0$	$\frac{5}{4}$	$\cos \frac{5}{2}\pi = 0$
$\frac{7}{4}$	$\cos \frac{7}{4}\pi = -\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$	$\frac{3}{2}$	$\cos 3\pi = -1$
2	$\cos 2\pi = 1$	$\frac{7}{4}$	$\cos \frac{7}{2}\pi = 0$

**Definition** A function  $f$  is periodic if there is a positive number  $p$  such that

$$f(x + p) = f(x)$$

for all real numbers  $x$  in the domain of  $f$ . The smallest such positive number  $p$  is called the **period** of  $f$ . The sine function is periodic because  $\sin(x + 2\pi) = \sin x$  for all  $x$ . It is also true that

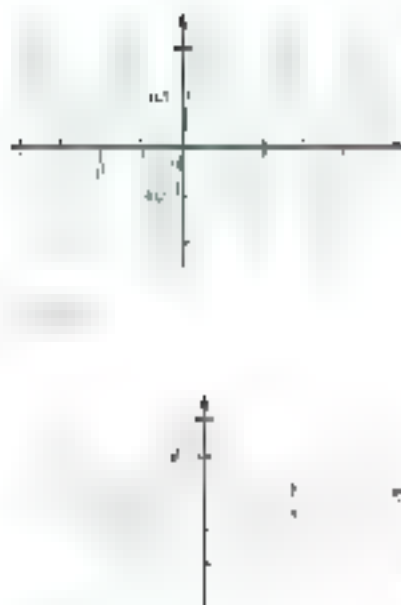
$$\sin(x + 4\pi) = \sin(x + 2\pi) = \sin(x + 12\pi) = \sin x$$

for all  $x$ . Thus  $4\pi$ ,  $2\pi$ , and  $12\pi$  are all numbers  $p$  with the property  $\sin(x + p) = \sin x$ . The period is defined to be the **smallest** such positive number  $p$ . For the sine function, the smallest positive  $p$  with the property  $\sin(x + p) = \sin x$  is  $p = 2\pi$ . We therefore say that the sine function is periodic with period  $2\pi$ . The cosine function is also periodic with period  $2\pi$ .

The function  $\sin(\omega t)$  has period  $2\pi/\omega$  since

$$\sin(\omega t) + \frac{2\pi}{\omega} = \sin(\omega t + 2\pi) = \sin \omega t$$

The period of the function  $\cos(\omega t)$  is also  $2\pi/\omega$ .



**EXAMPLE 1** What are the periods of the following functions?

- (a)
- $\sin(7\pi x)$
- (b)
- $\cos(2t)$
- (c)
- $\sin 2\pi t/12$

**SOLUTION**(a) Because the function  $\sin 7\pi x$  is of the form  $\sin ax$  with  $a = 7\pi$ , its period is  $p = \frac{2\pi}{a} = \frac{2\pi}{7\pi} = \frac{2}{7}$ .(b) The function  $\cos(2t)$  is of the form  $\cos(at)$  with  $a = 2$ . Thus, the period of  $\cos(2t)$  is  $p = \frac{2\pi}{a} = \pi$ .(c) The function  $\sin(2\pi t/12)$  has period  $p = \frac{2\pi}{2\pi/12} = 12$ . ■For a periodic function  $f$  attains a minimum and a maximum. We define the **amplitude**  $A$  as half the vertical distance between the highest point and the lowest point on the graph.**EXAMPLE 2** Find the amplitude of the following periodic functions.

- (a)
- $\sin(2\pi t/12)$
- (b)
- $3 \cos(2t)$

(c)  $50 = 21 \sin(2\pi t/12 + 3)$ **SOLUTION**(a) Since the range of the function  $\sin(2\pi t/12)$  is  $[-1, 1]$ , its amplitude is 1.(b) The function  $3 \cos(2t)$  will take on values from  $-3$  to  $3$ , which occurs when  $t = t_1 = \pi/2$  to  $t_2 = 3\pi/2$  to  $t_3 = 5\pi/2$  to  $t_4 = 7\pi/2$  to  $t_5 = 9\pi/2$  to  $t_6 = 11\pi/2$  to  $t_7 = 13\pi/2$  to  $t_8 = 15\pi/2$  to  $t_9 = 17\pi/2$  to  $t_{10} = 19\pi/2$  to  $t_{11} = 21\pi/2$  to  $t_{12} = 23\pi/2$  to  $t_{13} = 25\pi/2$  to  $t_{14} = 27\pi/2$  to  $t_{15} = 29\pi/2$  to  $t_{16} = 31\pi/2$  to  $t_{17} = 33\pi/2$  to  $t_{18} = 35\pi/2$  to  $t_{19} = 37\pi/2$  to  $t_{20} = 39\pi/2$  to  $t_{21} = 41\pi/2$  to  $t_{22} = 43\pi/2$  to  $t_{23} = 45\pi/2$  to  $t_{24} = 47\pi/2$  to  $t_{25} = 49\pi/2$  to  $t_{26} = 51\pi/2$  to  $t_{27} = 53\pi/2$  to  $t_{28} = 55\pi/2$  to  $t_{29} = 57\pi/2$  to  $t_{30} = 59\pi/2$  to  $t_{31} = 61\pi/2$  to  $t_{32} = 63\pi/2$  to  $t_{33} = 65\pi/2$  to  $t_{34} = 67\pi/2$  to  $t_{35} = 69\pi/2$  to  $t_{36} = 71\pi/2$  to  $t_{37} = 73\pi/2$  to  $t_{38} = 75\pi/2$  to  $t_{39} = 77\pi/2$  to  $t_{40} = 79\pi/2$  to  $t_{41} = 81\pi/2$  to  $t_{42} = 83\pi/2$  to  $t_{43} = 85\pi/2$  to  $t_{44} = 87\pi/2$  to  $t_{45} = 89\pi/2$  to  $t_{46} = 91\pi/2$  to  $t_{47} = 93\pi/2$  to  $t_{48} = 95\pi/2$  to  $t_{49} = 97\pi/2$  to  $t_{50} = 99\pi/2$  to  $t_{51} = 101\pi/2$  to  $t_{52} = 103\pi/2$  to  $t_{53} = 105\pi/2$  to  $t_{54} = 107\pi/2$  to  $t_{55} = 109\pi/2$  to  $t_{56} = 111\pi/2$  to  $t_{57} = 113\pi/2$  to  $t_{58} = 115\pi/2$  to  $t_{59} = 117\pi/2$  to  $t_{60} = 119\pi/2$  to  $t_{61} = 121\pi/2$  to  $t_{62} = 123\pi/2$  to  $t_{63} = 125\pi/2$  to  $t_{64} = 127\pi/2$  to  $t_{65} = 129\pi/2$  to  $t_{66} = 131\pi/2$  to  $t_{67} = 133\pi/2$  to  $t_{68} = 135\pi/2$  to  $t_{69} = 137\pi/2$  to  $t_{70} = 139\pi/2$  to  $t_{71} = 141\pi/2$  to  $t_{72} = 143\pi/2$  to  $t_{73} = 145\pi/2$  to  $t_{74} = 147\pi/2$  to  $t_{75} = 149\pi/2$  to  $t_{76} = 151\pi/2$  to  $t_{77} = 153\pi/2$  to  $t_{78} = 155\pi/2$  to  $t_{79} = 157\pi/2$  to  $t_{80} = 159\pi/2$  to  $t_{81} = 161\pi/2$  to  $t_{82} = 163\pi/2$  to  $t_{83} = 165\pi/2$  to  $t_{84} = 167\pi/2$  to  $t_{85} = 169\pi/2$  to  $t_{86} = 171\pi/2$  to  $t_{87} = 173\pi/2$  to  $t_{88} = 175\pi/2$  to  $t_{89} = 177\pi/2$  to  $t_{90} = 179\pi/2$  to  $t_{91} = 181\pi/2$  to  $t_{92} = 183\pi/2$  to  $t_{93} = 185\pi/2$  to  $t_{94} = 187\pi/2$  to  $t_{95} = 189\pi/2$  to  $t_{96} = 191\pi/2$  to  $t_{97} = 193\pi/2$  to  $t_{98} = 195\pi/2$  to  $t_{99} = 197\pi/2$  to  $t_{100} = 199\pi/2$  to  $t_{101} = 201\pi/2$  to  $t_{102} = 203\pi/2$  to  $t_{103} = 205\pi/2$  to  $t_{104} = 207\pi/2$  to  $t_{105} = 209\pi/2$  to  $t_{106} = 211\pi/2$  to  $t_{107} = 213\pi/2$  to  $t_{108} = 215\pi/2$  to  $t_{109} = 217\pi/2$  to  $t_{110} = 219\pi/2$  to  $t_{111} = 221\pi/2$  to  $t_{112} = 223\pi/2$  to  $t_{113} = 225\pi/2$  to  $t_{114} = 227\pi/2$  to  $t_{115} = 229\pi/2$  to  $t_{116} = 231\pi/2$  to  $t_{117} = 233\pi/2$  to  $t_{118} = 235\pi/2$  to  $t_{119} = 237\pi/2$  to  $t_{120} = 239\pi/2$  to  $t_{121} = 241\pi/2$  to  $t_{122} = 243\pi/2$  to  $t_{123} = 245\pi/2$  to  $t_{124} = 247\pi/2$  to  $t_{125} = 249\pi/2$  to  $t_{126} = 251\pi/2$  to  $t_{127} = 253\pi/2$  to  $t_{128} = 255\pi/2$  to  $t_{129} = 257\pi/2$  to  $t_{130} = 259\pi/2$  to  $t_{131} = 261\pi/2$  to  $t_{132} = 263\pi/2$  to  $t_{133} = 265\pi/2$  to  $t_{134} = 267\pi/2$  to  $t_{135} = 269\pi/2$  to  $t_{136} = 271\pi/2$  to  $t_{137} = 273\pi/2$  to  $t_{138} = 275\pi/2$  to  $t_{139} = 277\pi/2$  to  $t_{140} = 279\pi/2$  to  $t_{141} = 281\pi/2$  to  $t_{142} = 283\pi/2$  to  $t_{143} = 285\pi/2$  to  $t_{144} = 287\pi/2$  to  $t_{145} = 289\pi/2$  to  $t_{146} = 291\pi/2$  to  $t_{147} = 293\pi/2$  to  $t_{148} = 295\pi/2$  to  $t_{149} = 297\pi/2$  to  $t_{150} = 299\pi/2$  to  $t_{151} = 301\pi/2$  to  $t_{152} = 303\pi/2$  to  $t_{153} = 305\pi/2$  to  $t_{154} = 307\pi/2$  to  $t_{155} = 309\pi/2$  to  $t_{156} = 311\pi/2$  to  $t_{157} = 313\pi/2$  to  $t_{158} = 315\pi/2$  to  $t_{159} = 317\pi/2$  to  $t_{160} = 319\pi/2$  to  $t_{161} = 321\pi/2$  to  $t_{162} = 323\pi/2$  to  $t_{163} = 325\pi/2$  to  $t_{164} = 327\pi/2$  to  $t_{165} = 329\pi/2$  to  $t_{166} = 331\pi/2$  to  $t_{167} = 333\pi/2$  to  $t_{168} = 335\pi/2$  to  $t_{169} = 337\pi/2$  to  $t_{170} = 339\pi/2$  to  $t_{171} = 341\pi/2$  to  $t_{172} = 343\pi/2$  to  $t_{173} = 345\pi/2$  to  $t_{174} = 347\pi/2$  to  $t_{175} = 349\pi/2$  to  $t_{176} = 351\pi/2$  to  $t_{177} = 353\pi/2$  to  $t_{178} = 355\pi/2$  to  $t_{179} = 357\pi/2$  to  $t_{180} = 359\pi/2$  to  $t_{181} = 361\pi/2$  to  $t_{182} = 363\pi/2$  to  $t_{183} = 365\pi/2$  to  $t_{184} = 367\pi/2$  to  $t_{185} = 369\pi/2$  to  $t_{186} = 371\pi/2$  to  $t_{187} = 373\pi/2$  to  $t_{188} = 375\pi/2$  to  $t_{189} = 377\pi/2$  to  $t_{190} = 379\pi/2$  to  $t_{191} = 381\pi/2$  to  $t_{192} = 383\pi/2$  to  $t_{193} = 385\pi/2$  to  $t_{194} = 387\pi/2$  to  $t_{195} = 389\pi/2$  to  $t_{196} = 391\pi/2$  to  $t_{197} = 393\pi/2$  to  $t_{198} = 395\pi/2$  to  $t_{199} = 397\pi/2$  to  $t_{200} = 399\pi/2$  to  $t_{201} = 401\pi/2$  to  $t_{202} = 403\pi/2$  to  $t_{203} = 405\pi/2$  to  $t_{204} = 407\pi/2$  to  $t_{205} = 409\pi/2$  to  $t_{206} = 411\pi/2$  to  $t_{207} = 413\pi/2$  to  $t_{208} = 415\pi/2$  to  $t_{209} = 417\pi/2$  to  $t_{210} = 419\pi/2$  to  $t_{211} = 421\pi/2$  to  $t_{212} = 423\pi/2$  to  $t_{213} = 425\pi/2$  to  $t_{214} = 427\pi/2$  to  $t_{215} = 429\pi/2$  to  $t_{216} = 431\pi/2$  to  $t_{217} = 433\pi/2$  to  $t_{218} = 435\pi/2$  to  $t_{219} = 437\pi/2$  to  $t_{220} = 439\pi/2$  to  $t_{221} = 441\pi/2$  to  $t_{222} = 443\pi/2$  to  $t_{223} = 445\pi/2$  to  $t_{224} = 447\pi/2$  to  $t_{225} = 449\pi/2$  to  $t_{226} = 451\pi/2$  to  $t_{227} = 453\pi/2$  to  $t_{228} = 455\pi/2$  to  $t_{229} = 457\pi/2$  to  $t_{230} = 459\pi/2$  to  $t_{231} = 461\pi/2$  to  $t_{232} = 463\pi/2$  to  $t_{233} = 465\pi/2$  to  $t_{234} = 467\pi/2$  to  $t_{235} = 469\pi/2$  to  $t_{236} = 471\pi/2$  to  $t_{237} = 473\pi/2$  to  $t_{238} = 475\pi/2$  to  $t_{239} = 477\pi/2$  to  $t_{240} = 479\pi/2$  to  $t_{241} = 481\pi/2$  to  $t_{242} = 483\pi/2$  to  $t_{243} = 485\pi/2$  to  $t_{244} = 487\pi/2$  to  $t_{245} = 489\pi/2$  to  $t_{246} = 491\pi/2$  to  $t_{247} = 493\pi/2$  to  $t_{248} = 495\pi/2$  to  $t_{249} = 497\pi/2$  to  $t_{250} = 499\pi/2$  to  $t_{251} = 501\pi/2$  to  $t_{252} = 503\pi/2$  to  $t_{253} = 505\pi/2$  to  $t_{254} = 507\pi/2$  to  $t_{255} = 509\pi/2$  to  $t_{256} = 511\pi/2$  to  $t_{257} = 513\pi/2$  to  $t_{258} = 515\pi/2$  to  $t_{259} = 517\pi/2$  to  $t_{260} = 519\pi/2$  to  $t_{261} = 521\pi/2$  to  $t_{262} = 523\pi/2$  to  $t_{263} = 525\pi/2$  to  $t_{264} = 527\pi/2$  to  $t_{265} = 529\pi/2$  to  $t_{266} = 531\pi/2$  to  $t_{267} = 533\pi/2$  to  $t_{268} = 535\pi/2$  to  $t_{269} = 537\pi/2$  to  $t_{270} = 539\pi/2$  to  $t_{271} = 541\pi/2$  to  $t_{272} = 543\pi/2$  to  $t_{273} = 545\pi/2$  to  $t_{274} = 547\pi/2$  to  $t_{275} = 549\pi/2$  to  $t_{276} = 551\pi/2$  to  $t_{277} = 553\pi/2$  to  $t_{278} = 555\pi/2$  to  $t_{279} = 557\pi/2$  to  $t_{280} = 559\pi/2$  to  $t_{281} = 561\pi/2$  to  $t_{282} = 563\pi/2$  to  $t_{283} = 565\pi/2$  to  $t_{284} = 567\pi/2$  to  $t_{285} = 569\pi/2$  to  $t_{286} = 571\pi/2$  to  $t_{287} = 573\pi/2$  to  $t_{288} = 575\pi/2$  to  $t_{289} = 577\pi/2$  to  $t_{290} = 579\pi/2$  to  $t_{291} = 581\pi/2$  to  $t_{292} = 583\pi/2$  to  $t_{293} = 585\pi/2$  to  $t_{294} = 587\pi/2$  to  $t_{295} = 589\pi/2$  to  $t_{296} = 591\pi/2$  to  $t_{297} = 593\pi/2$  to  $t_{298} = 595\pi/2$  to  $t_{299} = 597\pi/2$  to  $t_{300} = 599\pi/2$  to  $t_{301} = 601\pi/2$  to  $t_{302} = 603\pi/2$  to  $t_{303} = 605\pi/2$  to  $t_{304} = 607\pi/2$  to  $t_{305} = 609\pi/2$  to  $t_{306} = 611\pi/2$  to  $t_{307} = 613\pi/2$  to  $t_{308} = 615\pi/2$  to  $t_{309} = 617\pi/2$  to  $t_{310} = 619\pi/2$  to  $t_{311} = 621\pi/2$  to  $t_{312} = 623\pi/2$  to  $t_{313} = 625\pi/2$  to  $t_{314} = 627\pi/2$  to  $t_{315} = 629\pi/2$  to  $t_{316} = 631\pi/2$  to  $t_{317} = 633\pi/2$  to  $t_{318} = 635\pi/2$  to  $t_{319} = 637\pi/2$  to  $t_{320} = 639\pi/2$  to  $t_{321} = 641\pi/2$  to  $t_{322} = 643\pi/2$  to  $t_{323} = 645\pi/2$  to  $t_{324} = 647\pi/2$  to  $t_{325} = 649\pi/2$  to  $t_{326} = 651\pi/2$  to  $t_{327} = 653\pi/2$  to  $t_{328} = 655\pi/2$  to  $t_{329} = 657\pi/2$  to  $t_{330} = 659\pi/2$  to  $t_{331} = 661\pi/2$  to  $t_{332} = 663\pi/2$  to  $t_{333} = 665\pi/2$  to  $t_{334} = 667\pi/2$  to  $t_{335} = 669\pi/2$  to  $t_{336} = 671\pi/2$  to  $t_{337} = 673\pi/2$  to  $t_{338} = 675\pi/2$  to  $t_{339} = 677\pi/2$  to  $t_{340} = 679\pi/2$  to  $t_{341} = 681\pi/2$  to  $t_{342} = 683\pi/2$  to  $t_{343} = 685\pi/2$  to  $t_{344} = 687\pi/2$  to  $t_{345} = 689\pi/2$  to  $t_{346} = 691\pi/2$  to  $t_{347} = 693\pi/2$  to  $t_{348} = 695\pi/2$  to  $t_{349} = 697\pi/2$  to  $t_{350} = 699\pi/2$  to  $t_{351} = 701\pi/2$  to  $t_{352} = 703\pi/2$  to  $t_{353} = 705\pi/2$  to  $t_{354} = 707\pi/2$  to  $t_{355} = 709\pi/2$  to  $t_{356} = 711\pi/2$  to  $t_{357} = 713\pi/2$  to  $t_{358} = 715\pi/2$  to  $t_{359} = 717\pi/2$  to  $t_{360} = 719\pi/2$  to  $t_{361} = 721\pi/2$  to  $t_{362} = 723\pi/2$  to  $t_{363} = 725\pi/2$  to  $t_{364} = 727\pi/2$  to  $t_{365} = 729\pi/2$  to  $t_{366} = 731\pi/2$  to  $t_{367} = 733\pi/2$  to  $t_{368} = 735\pi/2$  to  $t_{369} = 737\pi/2$  to  $t_{370} = 739\pi/2$  to  $t_{371} = 741\pi/2$  to  $t_{372} = 743\pi/2$  to  $t_{373} = 745\pi/2$  to  $t_{374} = 747\pi/2$  to  $t_{375} = 749\pi/2$  to  $t_{376} = 751\pi/2$  to  $t_{377} = 753\pi/2$  to  $t_{378} = 755\pi/2$  to  $t_{379} = 757\pi/2$  to  $t_{380} = 759\pi/2$  to  $t_{381} = 761\pi/2$  to  $t_{382} = 763\pi/2$  to  $t_{383} 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to  $t_{499} = 997\pi/2$  to  $t_{500} = 999\pi/2$  to  $t_{501} = 1001\pi/2$  to  $t_{502} = 1003\pi/2$  to  $t_{503} = 1005\pi/2$  to  $t_{504} = 1007\pi/2$  to  $t_{505} = 1009\pi/2$  to  $t_{506} = 1011\pi/2$  to  $t_{507} = 1013\pi/2$  to  $t_{508} = 1015\pi/2$  to  $t_{509} = 1017\pi/2$  to  $t_{510} = 1019\pi/2$  to  $t_{511} = 1021\pi/2$  to  $t_{512} = 1023\pi/2$  to  $t_{513} = 1025\pi/2$  to  $t_{514} = 1027\pi/2$  to  $t_{515} = 1029\pi/2$  to  $t_{516} = 1031\pi/2$  to  $t_{517} = 1033\pi/2$  to  $t_{518} = 1035\pi/2$  to  $t_{519} = 1037\pi/2$  to  $t_{520} = 1039\pi/2$  to  $t_{521} = 1041\pi/2$  to  $t_{522} = 1043\pi/2$  to  $t_{523} = 1045\pi/2$  to  $t_{524} = 1047\pi/2$  to  $t_{525} = 1049\pi/2$  to  $t_{526} = 1051\pi/2$  to  $t_{527} = 1053\pi/2$  to  $t_{528} = 1055\pi/2$  to  $t_{529} = 1057\pi/2$  to  $t_{530} = 1059\pi/2$  to  $t_{531} = 1061\pi/2$  to  $t_{532} = 1063\pi/2$  to  $t_{533} = 1065\pi/2$  to  $t_{534} = 1067\pi/2$  to  $t_{535} = 1069\pi/2$  to  $t_{536} = 1071\pi/2$  to  $t_{537} = 1073\pi/2$  to  $t_{538} = 1075\pi/2$  to  $t_{539} = 1077\pi/2$  to  $t_{540} = 1079\pi/2$  to  $t_{541} = 1081\pi/2$  to  $t_{542} = 1083\pi/2$  to  $t_{543} = 1085\pi/2$  to  $t_{544} = 1087\pi/2$  to  $t_{545} = 1089\pi/2$  to  $t_{546} = 1091\pi/2$  to  $t_{547} = 1093\pi/2$  to  $t_{548} = 1095\pi/2$  to  $t_{549} = 1097\pi/2$  to  $t_{550} = 1099\pi/2$  to  $t_{551} = 1101\pi/2$  to  $t_{552} = 1103\pi/2$  to  $t_{553} = 1105\pi/2</$

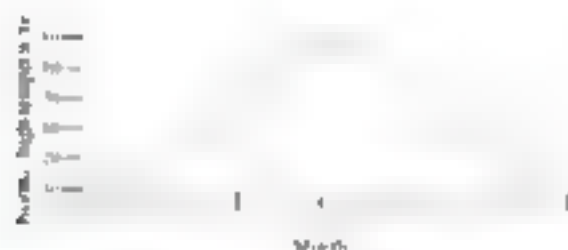
$A = \frac{1}{2}(59 - 37) = 26$ . The value of  $C$  is equal to the midpoint of the low and high temperatures, so  $C = \frac{1}{2}(59 + 37) = 63$ . The units in  $T$  must therefore be of the form

$$T(t) = 63 - 26 \sin(\omega t + \phi)$$

The only constant left to find is  $\phi$ . The low so far (low high temperature is 37 which occurs on January 15, exactly in the middle of January) in our function must satisfy  $T(1/2) = 37$  and the sine term must reach a minimum of 1 when  $t = 1/2$ . Figure 4 summarizes the information that we have so far. The function  $63 - 26 \sin(2\pi t/12)$  reaches its minimum when  $2\pi t/12 = -\pi/2$ , that is, when  $t = -3$ . We must therefore translate the curve defined by  $y = 63 - 26 \sin(2\pi t/12)$  to the right by the amount  $1/2 - (-3) = 7/2$ . In Section 0.6, we showed that replacing  $x$  with  $x - c$  causes the graph of  $y = f(x)$  to the right by  $c$  units. Thus, in order to translate the graph of  $y = 63 - 26 \sin(2\pi t/12)$  to the right by  $7/2$  units, we must replace  $t$  with  $t - 7/2$ . Thus

$$T(t) = 63 - 26 \sin\left(\frac{2\pi}{12}\left(t - \frac{7}{2}\right)\right)$$

Figure 5 shows a plot of the spring high temperature  $T$  as a function of time  $t$ , where  $t$  is given in months.



It is important to keep in mind that all models such as this are simplifications of reality. That is why they are called *models*. Although such models are inherently simplifications of reality, many of them are still useful in a scientific sense.

Let's find the high temperature for May 15 by substituting  $t = 4.5$  (because the middle of May is four and one-half months into the year) into (4.3).

$$T(4.5) = 63 - 26 \sin\left(2\pi\left(4.5 - \frac{7}{2}\right)\right) = 63 - 26 \sin(\pi) = 63$$

The spring high temperature for May 15 (middle of May) is actually 59°F. Thus, our model overpredicts by 1°F, which is remarkably accurate considering how little information was given.

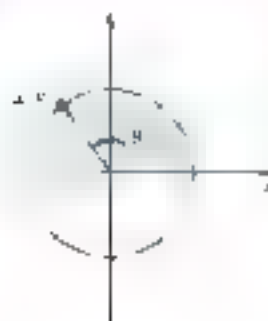
Now let's find the spring low temperature for May 15. We could get by with (4.3) alone, but it is convenient to introduce our trigonometric identities for sine and cosine functions, tangent, cotangent, secant, and cosecant:

$$\begin{aligned} \sin(-\theta) &= -\sin \theta & \cos(-\theta) &= \cos \theta \\ \tan(-\theta) &= -\tan \theta & \sec(-\theta) &= \sec \theta \\ \cot(-\theta) &= -\cot \theta & \csc(-\theta) &= -\csc \theta \end{aligned}$$



## Another view

We have based our discussion of trigonometry on the unit circle. We could as well have used a circle of radius



then

$$\sin \theta = \frac{y}{r}$$

$$\cos \theta = \frac{x}{r}$$

**SOLUTION** We use the fact that  $1 = \pi$ , recognizing that 100 revolutions correspond to  $100(2\pi)$  radians:

$$s = 100(10)(\pi) = 6000\pi \approx 18,849.6 \text{ centimeters} \approx 188.5 \text{ meters} \quad \blacksquare$$

Now we can make the connection between angle trigonometry and unit circle trigonometry. If  $\theta$  is an angle measuring radians, that is, if  $\theta$  is an angle that cuts off an arc of length  $s$  from the unit circle, then

$$\sin \theta = \sin t \quad \cos \theta = \cos t$$

For angles when we're talking in radians, it is always a good idea to always change  $\theta$  to radians before doing any calculations. For example

$$\sin 31.6^\circ = \sin\left(31.6 \cdot \frac{\pi}{180} \text{ radians}\right) \approx \sin 0.552$$

We will not take space to verify all the following trig identities. We simply assert their truth and suggest you make it firm when needed somewhere in this book.

**Identities** The following are true for all  $x$  and  $y$ , provided that both angles are defined at the chosen  $x$  and  $y$ .

#### Complementary angles

$$\sin \theta = \cos(90^\circ - \theta) \quad \cos \theta = \sin(90^\circ - \theta)$$

$$\csc \theta = \sec(90^\circ - \theta) \quad \sec \theta = \csc(90^\circ - \theta)$$

$$\tan(\theta - 90^\circ) = -\cot \theta$$

#### Pythagorean identities

$$\sin^2 x + \cos^2 x = 1$$

$$1 + \tan^2 x = \sec^2 x$$

$$1 + \cot^2 x = \csc^2 x$$

#### Double-angle identities

$$\sin 2x = 2 \sin x \cos x$$

$$\cos 2x = \cos^2 x - \sin^2 x$$

$$\tan 2x = \frac{2 \tan x}{1 - \tan^2 x}$$

$$1 - \cos 2x = 2 \sin^2 x$$

#### Sum and difference

$$\sin(x \pm y) = \sin x \cos y \pm \cos x \sin y$$

$$\cos(x \pm y) = \cos x \cos y \mp \sin x \sin y$$

#### Half-angle identities

$$\sin \frac{\theta}{2} = \pm \sqrt{\frac{1 - \cos \theta}{2}}$$

$$\cos \frac{\theta}{2} = \pm \sqrt{\frac{1 + \cos \theta}{2}}$$

$$\tan \left( \frac{\theta}{2} \pm \frac{\pi}{4} \right) = \frac{1 \pm \cos \theta}{\sin \theta}$$

#### Addition identities

$$\sin(x \pm y) = \sin x \cos y \pm \cos x \sin y$$

$$\cos(x \pm y) = \cos x \cos y \mp \sin x \sin y$$

$$\tan(x \pm y) = \frac{\tan x \pm \tan y}{1 \mp \tan x \tan y}$$

#### Product identities

$$\sin \left( \frac{\theta}{2} \right) = \pm \sqrt{\frac{1 - \cos \theta}{2}}$$

$$\cos \left( \frac{\theta}{2} \right) = \pm \sqrt{\frac{1 + \cos \theta}{2}}$$

## Product Identities

$$\sin x \sin y = -\frac{1}{2}[\cos(x + y) + \cos(x - y)]$$

$$\cos x \cos y = \frac{1}{2}[\cos(x + y) + \cos(x - y)]$$

$$\sin x \cos y = \frac{1}{2}[\sin(x + y) + \sin(x - y)]$$

## Concepts Review

1. The natural domain of the sine function is  $[-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}]$ , its range is  $[-1, 1]$ .

2. The period of the cosine function is  $2\pi$ , the period of the sine function is  $2\pi$ , the period of the tangent function is  $\pi$ .

## Problem Set 9.7

1. Convert the following degree measures to radians. Leave  $\pi$  in your answer.

- (a)  $10^\circ$  (b)  $45^\circ$  (c)  $-60^\circ$   
 (d)  $300^\circ$  (e)  $-170^\circ$  (f)  $10^\circ$

2. Convert the following radian measures to degrees.

- (a)  $\frac{1}{2}\pi$  (b)  $\frac{1}{3}\pi$  (c)  $-\frac{1}{4}\pi$   
 (d)  $\frac{1}{5}\pi$  (e)  $-\frac{11}{12}\pi$  (f)  $\frac{3}{2}\pi$

3. Convert the following degree measures to radians.  $1^\circ = \pi/180$ ,  $30^\circ = \pi/6$ ,  $45^\circ = \pi/4$ ,  $60^\circ = \pi/3$ ,  $90^\circ = \pi/2$ .

- (a)  $20.5^\circ$  (b)  $10^\circ$  (c)  $-10.5^\circ$   
 (d)  $340^\circ$  (e)  $180^\circ$  (f)  $1^\circ$

4. Convert the following radian measures to degrees.  $\pi \text{ rad} = 180^\circ$ ,  $\pi/2 = 90^\circ$ ,  $2\pi = 360^\circ$ .

- (a)  $\frac{1}{2}\pi$  (b)  $0.2\pi$  (c)  $4\pi$   
 (d)  $0.001$  (e)  $0.2$  (f)  $50\pi$

5. Calculate (be sure that your calculator is in radian or degree mode as required).

- (a)  $\frac{\sin 4^\circ + \sin 14^\circ}{\sin 34^\circ}$  (b)  $\frac{14\pi \cos^2}{\sin 4.1 + \cos 2.5}$   
 (c)  $\tan 0.492$  (d)  $\sin(-0.301)$

6. Calculate.

- (a)  $\frac{1}{2}\pi + \frac{1}{3}\pi + \frac{1}{4}\pi$  (b)  $10^\circ + 5^\circ + 20^\circ + 5^\circ$   
 (c)  $\frac{1}{2}\pi + \frac{1}{3}\pi + \frac{1}{4}\pi$

7. Calculate.

- (a)  $\frac{3\pi}{4} + \frac{1}{2}\pi + \frac{1}{3}\pi$  (b)  $\frac{1}{2}\pi + \frac{1}{3}\pi + \frac{1}{4}\pi$   
 (c)  $\frac{1}{2}\pi + \frac{1}{3}\pi + \frac{1}{4}\pi$

8. Verify the values  $\sin$  and  $\cos$  in the right-angled triangle in the figure.

9. Evaluate without using a calculator.

- (a)  $\tan \frac{\pi}{6}$  (b)  $\tan \frac{\pi}{4}$  (c)  $\tan \frac{\pi}{3}$   
 (d)  $\sec \frac{\pi}{2}$  (e)  $\cot \frac{\pi}{4}$  (f)  $\tan \left( \frac{\pi}{6} \right)$

10. Sketch the graph of  $y = \sin x$  for  $0 \leq x \leq 2\pi$  and  $y = \cos x$  for  $0 \leq x \leq 2\pi$ .

11. If  $(-4, 3)$  lies on the terminal side of an angle  $\theta$  whose vertex is at the origin and initial side is along the positive x-axis, then  $\cos \theta =$   $\frac{-4}{5}$ .

12. Evaluate without using a calculator.

- (a)  $\tan \frac{\pi}{3}$  (b)  $\sec \frac{\pi}{3}$  (c)  $\cot \frac{\pi}{3}$   
 (d)  $\tan \frac{\pi}{4}$  (e)  $\sec \frac{\pi}{4}$  (f)  $\cot \frac{\pi}{4}$

13. Verify that the following are identities (see Example 6).

- (a)  $(1 + \sin^2 x) - \sin^2 x = 1$   
 (b)  $(\sec x + \tan x)(\sec x - \tan x) = 1$   
 (c)  $\sec^2 x = \tan^2 x + 1$   
 (d)  $\frac{\sin^2 x}{\cos^2 x} = \tan^2 x$

14. Verify that the following are identities (see Example 6).

- (a)  $\sin^2 x + \cos^2 x = 1$   
 (b)  $\cos 2x = 4\cos^2 x - 3$  (Use a double-angle identity.)  
 (c)  $\sin 4x = 4\sin x \cos^3 x - 4\sin^3 x \cos x$  (Use a double-angle identity twice.)  
 (d)  $(1 + \cos \theta)(1 - \cos \theta) = \sin^2 \theta$

15. Verify the following are identities.

- (a)  $\frac{\sin^2 x}{\cos^2 x} + \frac{\cos^2 x}{\sin^2 x} = 1$   
 (b)  $\frac{1}{\sin^2 x} + \frac{1}{\cos^2 x} = \frac{1}{\sin^2 x \cos^2 x}$   
 (c)  $\sin x(\sec x + \tan x) = \sec^2 x$   
 (d)  $\frac{\sin^2 x}{\cos^2 x} + \frac{1}{\cos^2 x} = \frac{1}{\cos^2 x}$

16. Sketch the graphs of the following on  $[-\pi, \pi]$ .

- (a)  $y = \sin x$  (b)  $y = \cos x$   
 (c)  $y = \tan x$  (d)  $y = \sec x$

17. Sketch the graphs of the following on  $[-\pi, \pi]$ .

- (a)  $y = \csc x$  (b)  $y = \cot x$



(c)  $y = \cos x$  (d)  $y = \sin x$

Determine the period, amplitude, and shift of the function and sketch one full cycle of the graph. The curve is  $2\pi$  units long. See the function lists in Problems 16–23.

16.  $y = 7 \cos \frac{\pi}{4}x$

17.  $y = 7 \sin \frac{\pi}{4}x$

18.  $y = \sin x$

19.  $y = \pi + \frac{1}{2} \cos x$

20.  $y = -\cos \pi x$

21.  $y = \sin^2 x - \pi$

22.  $y = \cos \frac{\pi}{2}x$

23.  $y = \sin x + \pi$

24. Which of the following represent the same graph? Check and explain any non-equating combinations. Assume  $x$

(a)  $y = \sin \frac{\pi}{4}x$

(b)  $y = \cos \frac{\pi}{4}x$

(c)  $y = \sin \frac{\pi}{2}x$

(d)  $y = \cos \frac{\pi}{2}x$

(e)  $y = \sin \pi x$

(f)  $y = \cos \left( \frac{\pi}{2}x \right)$

(g)  $y = \sin \pi x + \pi$

(h)  $y = \sin x + \pi$

25. Which of the following are odd functions? Even functions? Neither.

(a)  $\sin x$

(b)  $\sin^2 x$

(c)  $\cos x$

(d)  $\sin x$

(e)  $\sin(\cos x)$

(f)  $x + \sin x$

26. Which of the following are odd functions? Even functions? Neither.

(a)  $\cos x + \sin x$

(b)  $\sin x$

(c)  $\sin x$

(d)  $x + \sin^2 x$

(e)  $\cos(\sin x)$

(f)  $x + \sin x$

Find the exact values in Problems 27–31. Hint: Half-angle identities may be helpful.

27.  $\cos^2 \frac{\pi}{8}$

28.  $\sin^2 \frac{\pi}{8}$

29.  $\sin \frac{\pi}{8}$

30.  $\cos \frac{\pi}{8}$

31.  $\sin \frac{\pi}{8}$

32. Find identities analogous to the addition identities for each expression.

(a)  $\sin(x + y)$

(b)  $\cos(x + y)$

(c)  $\tan(x + y)$

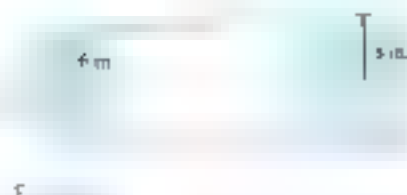
33. Use the addition identity for the tangent to show that  $\tan(x + \pi) = \tan x$  for all  $x$  in the domain of  $\tan x$ .

34. Show that  $\cos(x + \pi) = -\cos x$  for all  $x$ .

35. Suppose that a tire on a truck has an outer radius of 2.5 feet. How many revolutions per minute does the tire make when the truck is traveling 60 miles per hour?

36. How far does a wheel of radius 2 feet roll along level ground in making 50 revolutions?

37. A belt passes around two wheels as shown in Figure 15. How many revolutions per second does the small wheel make when the large wheel makes 20 revolutions per second?



38. The angle of inclination  $\alpha$  of a line is the smallest positive angle from the positive  $x$ -axis to the line ( $\alpha = 0$  for a horizontal line). Show that the slope  $m$  of the line is equal to  $\tan \alpha$ .

39. Find the angle of inclination of the following lines (see Problem 38).

(a)  $y = x + 1$  (b)  $y = -x + 2$

40. Let  $\ell_1$  and  $\ell_2$  be two nonvertical intersecting lines with slopes  $m_1$  and  $m_2$ , respectively. If the angle from  $\ell_1$  to  $\ell_2$  is not a right angle, then

$$\tan \theta = \frac{m_2 - m_1}{1 + m_1 m_2}$$

Show this using the fact that  $\theta_2 - \theta_1 = \theta$  in Figure 16.



41. Find the angle (in radians) from the first line to the second (see Problem 40).

(a)  $y = x + 1$  (b)  $y = x + 2$

(c)  $y = x + 1$  (d)  $y = x + 2$

42. Derive the formula  $A = \frac{1}{2}r^2\theta$  for the area of a sector of a circle. Here  $r$  is the radius and  $\theta$  is the radian measure of the central angle ( $0 < \theta \leq 2\pi$ ).



Figure 17

Figure 18

43. Find the area of the sector of a circle of radius 5 centimeters and central angle 2 radians (see Problem 42).

44. A regular polygon of  $n$  sides is inscribed in a circle of radius  $r$ . Find formulas for the perimeter,  $P_n$ , and area,  $A_n$ , of the polygon in terms of  $n$  and  $r$ .

45. An isosceles triangle is topped by a semicircle, as shown in Figure 48. Find a formula for the area  $A$  of the whole figure in terms of the side length  $s$  and angle  $\theta$  (radians). (We see that  $A$  is a function of the two independent variables  $s$  and  $\theta$ .)

46. From a product identity, we obtain

$$\cos(\alpha + \beta) = \cos \alpha \cos \beta - \sin \alpha \sin \beta$$

Find the four expanding sum of cosine, the

$$\cos(\alpha + \beta) = \cos \alpha \cos \beta - \sin \alpha \sin \beta$$

Do you see a generalization?

47. The normal high temperature for Las Vegas, Nevada, is  $55^\circ\text{F}$  for January 4 and  $115^\circ\text{F}$  for July 15. Assuming that these are the extreme high and low temperatures for the year, let the minimum and maximum temperatures be  $A \sin \omega t + B$  for  $t$  in days, starting on November 5.

48. Tides are often measured by arbitrary height markings at some local low. Suppose that a high tide occurs at noon when the water level is at 2 feet 6 inches higher, a low tide with a water level of 9 feet occurs late by midnight another high tide with a water level of 2 feet occurs. Assuming that the water level is periodic, use the information to find a formula that gives the water level as a function of time. Then use this function to approximate the water level at 4:30 pm.

49. Circular motion can be modeled by using the parametric representations of the form  $x(t) = \cos t$  and  $y(t) = \sin t$ .

A parametric representation means that a variable  $x$  in this case depends both on  $t$  and  $y(t)$ . This will give the full circle for  $t \in [0, 2\pi]$ . If we consider a 4-foot-diameter wheel making one complete rotation clockwise every 10 seconds, show that the motion of a point on the rim of the wheel can be represented by  $x(t) = 2 \sin \pi t/5$  and  $y(t) = 2 \cos \pi t/5$ .

- Find the position of the point on the rim of the wheel when  $t = 2$  seconds, 6 seconds, and 9 seconds. Where was the point when the wheel started to rotate at  $t = 0$ ?
- How will the formulas give the motion of the point change if the wheel is rotating counterclockwise?
- At what value of  $t$  is the point at  $(2, 0)$  for the first time?

50. The angular frequency  $\omega$  of oscillation of a point is given by  $\omega = \frac{2\pi}{\text{period}}$ . What happens when you add two motions

that have the same frequency (or period)? To investigate we can graph the functions  $y(t) = 2 \sin \pi t/5$  and  $x(t) = \sin \pi t/5 + \cos \pi t/5$  and look for similarities. Armed with this information we can investigate by graphing the following functions over the interval  $[0, 5]$ :

- $y(t) = 3 \sin \pi t/5 + 5 \cos \pi t/5 + 2 \sin(\pi t/5)$
- $y(t) = 3 \cos \pi t/5 + 2 + \cos \pi t/5 + \cos(\pi t/5) + 5$

51. We now explore the relationship between  $A \sin(\omega t + \phi) + B \cos(\omega t + \phi)$  and  $C \sin \omega t + D \cos \omega t$ .

- By expanding  $\sin(\omega t + \phi)$  using the sum of the angles formula, show that the two expressions are equivalent if  $A = C \cos \phi$  and  $B = C \sin \phi$ .

(b) Consequently, show that  $A^2 + B^2 = C^2$  and that  $\phi$  then satisfies the equation  $\tan \phi = \frac{B}{A}$ .

(c) Generalize your result to state a proportionality between  $A_1 \sin \omega t + \phi_1 + A_2 \sin \omega t + \phi_2$  and  $A_2 \sin \omega t + \phi_2$ .

(d) Write an essay in your own words that explains the meaning of the identity between  $A \sin \omega t + B \cos \omega t$  and  $C \sin(\omega t + \phi)$ . Be sure to note that  $|C| \leq \max |A|, |B|$  and that the identity holds only when you are forming a linear combination (adding and/or subtracting multiples of single powers of sine and cosine of the same frequency).

**Try-Now!** Graphs that have high frequencies pose special problems for graphing. We now explore how to plot such functions.

52. Graph the function  $f(x) = \sin 5x$  using the window given by a  $x$  range of  $[-1.5, 1.5]$  and the  $y$  range given by  $[-1, 1]$ .

(d)  $[-1, 1]$  (e)  $[0.25, 0.25]$

Indicate briefly which window shows the true behavior of the function, and discuss reasons why the other  $x$  windows give results that look odd, odd.

53. Graph the function  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2}$  on  $[-1, 1]$  using the window  $x$  given by the following ranges. How

(a)  $[-1, 1]$  (b)  $[-1, 1]$  (c)  $[-1, 1]$

(d)  $[-1, 1]$  (e)  $[-1, 1]$

(f)  $[-1, 1]$  (g)  $[-1, 1]$

Indicate briefly which window shows the true behavior of the function, and discuss reasons why the other  $x$  windows give results that look odd. In the case of the window  $[-1, 1]$ , discuss how the graphing calculator handles the window  $[-1, 1]$  and how it affects the graph.

54. Let  $f(x) = \frac{3x + 2}{x}$  and  $g(x) = \frac{1}{x}$ . Graph

- Use functional composition to form  $h(x) = f \circ g(x)$ , as well as  $h(x) = (f \circ g)(x)$ .
- Find the appropriate window or windows that give a clear picture of  $h(x)$ .
- Find the appropriate window or windows that give a clear picture of  $h(x)$ .

55. Suppose that a continuous function is periodic with period 1 and is linear between 0 and 0.25 and linear between 0.75 and 1. In addition, it has the value 0 at 0 and 2 at 0.25. Sketch the function over the domain  $[-2, 2]$  and give a piecewise definition of the function.

56. Suppose that a continuous function is periodic with period 1 and is quadratic between 0.25 and 0.75 and linear between 0.75 and 1. In addition, it has the value 0 at 0.25 and 1 at 0.75. Sketch the function over the domain  $[-2, 2]$  and give a piecewise definition of the function.

**Answers to Concept Review** 1. (a)  $\sin \theta$ ,  $\cos \theta$  (b)  $\sin \theta$

2. (a)  $\sin \theta$  (b)  $\cos \theta$  (c)  $\sin \theta$



54. If the range of a function consists of just one number, then its domain also consists of just one number.

55. If the domain of a function contains at least two numbers, then its range also contains at least two numbers.

56. If  $g(x) = [x + 2]$ , then  $g(-1.5) = -1$ .

57. If  $f(x) = x$  and  $g(x) = x^2$  then  $f \circ g \neq g \circ f$ .

58. If  $f(x) = x^2$  and  $g(x) = x^3$  then  $(f \circ g)(x) = x$ .

59. If  $f$  and  $g$  have the same domain, then  $f \circ g$  also has that domain.

60. If the graph of  $y = f(x)$  has an  $x$ -intercept at  $x = a$ , then the graph of  $y = f(x) + b$  has an  $x$ -intercept at  $x = a$ .

61. The cotangent is an odd function.

62. The natural domain of the tangent function is the set of all real numbers.

63. If  $\cos \theta = \cos \phi$  then

### Multiple-Choice Problems

1. Calculate each value for  $n = 1$ ,  $x = 1$ , and  $y = 1$ .

$$a. \begin{cases} x = 1 \\ y = 1 \end{cases} \quad b. \begin{cases} x = 1 \\ y = 1 \end{cases} \quad c. \begin{cases} x = 1 \\ y = 1 \end{cases}$$

2. Simplify

$$a. \begin{cases} x = 1 \\ y = 1 \end{cases} \quad b. \begin{cases} x = 1 \\ y = 1 \end{cases} \quad c. \begin{cases} x = 1 \\ y = 1 \end{cases}$$

3. Show that the average of two rational numbers is a rational number.

4. Write the repeating decimal  $4.12\overline{628}$  as a ratio of two integers.

5. Find an irrational number between  $\frac{1}{2}$  and  $\frac{3}{4}$ .

6. Calculate  $(\sqrt{8.15} \times 10^3)(1.32)^2(3.2)$ .

7. Calculate  $(\pi - \sqrt{2.0})^2 - \sqrt{2.0}$ .

8. Calculate  $\sin^2(2.4) - \cos(2.4) = 1.0$ .

In Problems 9–16, find the unknown set, graph this set on the real line, and express this set in interval notation.

9.  $3x > 0$

10.  $6x - 3 > 2x - 5$

11.  $x^2 - 4 \leq 1$  or  $1 \leq x^2 - 4$

12.  $2x - 5 < 3 < 0$

13.  $21x - 44 < 17 \leq 3$

14.  $\frac{2x}{x-2} > 0$

15.  $x^2 - 4 \leq 1$  or  $1 \leq x^2 - 4$

16.  $2x - 4 < 0$

17.  $\frac{1}{x} = x$

18.  $|12 - 3x| \geq 1x$

19. Find a value of  $x$  for which  $x^2 \neq x$ .

20. For what values of  $x$  does the equation  $-x_1 = x$  hold?

21. For what values of  $x$  does the equation  $|x - 5| = 5 - x$  hold?

22. For what values of  $a$  and  $b$  does the equation  $y = ax + b$  hold?

23. Suppose  $|x| = 2$ . Use properties of absolute values to show that

$$\frac{2x^2 + 3x + 2}{x^2 + 2} \leq 4$$

24. Write a sentence involving the word *distance* to explain the following identity in words:

$|a - b| = |b - a|$

(c)  $|a - b| \geq 0$

25. Sketch the triangle with vertices  $A(-2, 0)$ ,  $B(2, 0)$ , and  $C(0, 3)$ , and show that it is a right triangle.

26. Find the distance from  $(1, -4)$  to the midpoint of the line segment with endpoints  $(-2, 4)$  and  $(5, -5)$ .

27. Find the equation of the circle with diameter  $AB$  if  $A(-2, 0)$  and  $B(1, 4)$ .

28. Find the center and radius of the circle with equation  $x^2 + 6x + y^2 = 0$ .

29. Find the distance between the centers of the circles with equations

$$x^2 + y^2 + 2y - 3 = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad x^2 + 6x + y^2 + 4y = 0$$

30. Find the equation of the line through the indicated point that is parallel to the indicated line and perpendicular to the indicated line.

(a)  $(3, 2)$ ;  $3x + 2y = 0$  (b)  $(1, -4)$ ;  $y = \frac{1}{2}x + 1$

(c)  $(5, 0)$ ;  $y = 10$  (d)  $(-3, 4)$ ;  $x = 2$

31. Write the equation of the line through  $(-2, 3)$  that

(a) goes through  $(7, 1)$

(b) is parallel to  $3x - 2y = 2$

(c) is perpendicular to  $3x + 4y = 9$

(d) is perpendicular to  $x = 4$

(e) has  $x$ -intercept  $4$

32. Show that  $\frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}$ ,  $\frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}$ , and  $\frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}$  are all the same.

33. Figure 1 can be represented by which equation?

(a)  $y = x^2$  (b)  $y = x^2 + 1$

(c)  $y = x^2$  (d)  $y = x^2 + 1$

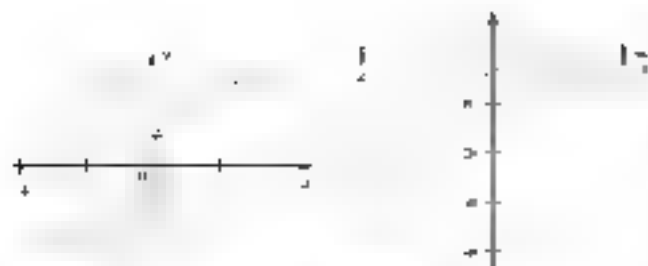
34. Figure 2 can be represented by which equation?

(a)  $y = ax + bx + c$ , with  $a > 0$ ,  $b > 0$ , and  $c > 0$

(b)  $y = ax + bx + c$ , with  $a < 0$ ,  $b > 0$ , and  $c > 0$

(c)  $y = ax + bx + c$ , with  $a < 0$ ,  $b > 0$ , and  $c < 0$

(d)  $y = ax + bx + c$ , with  $a > 0$ ,  $b > 0$ , and  $c < 0$



49. Find the  $x$ - and  $y$ -intercepts of the graph of each function.

35.  $y = 4 - x$

36.  $x = y$

37.  $y = \frac{2x}{x+2}$

38.  $y = x^2 - 3$

50. Find the points of intersection of the graphs of  $y = x^2$  and  $y = x$ .

41. A line is drawn perpendicular to  $4x + y = 2$ . Find the equation of the line that together with the positive  $x$ - and  $y$ -axes, encloses a triangle of area 4.

42. For  $f(x) = 1/(x-1) - 1$ , find each value, if possible.

(a)  $f(1)$

(b)  $f(-1)$

(c)  $f(-1)$

(d)  $f(1)$

43. Find the domain of each function.

(a)  $g(x)$

(b)  $g(1)$

(c)  $\frac{g(2) - h(2)}{h(2)}$

44. Express the function in terms of  $x$  and  $y$ .

(a)  $f(x) = \frac{y}{x^2 + 1}$

(b)  $g(x) = \sqrt{4 - y^2}$

45. Which of the following functions are odd? Even? Neither even nor odd?

(a)  $f(x) = \frac{3x}{x}$

(b)  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x} \sin x$

(c)  $h(x) = x^2 + \sin x$

(d)  $h(x) = \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 + x^4}$

46. Sketch the graph of each function.

(a)  $f(x) = x$

(b)  $f(x) = \sqrt{x^2 + 4}$

(c)  $h(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x \leq 0 \\ x^2 & \text{if } x > 0 \end{cases}$

47. Suppose that  $f$  is an even function satisfying  $f(x) = 1 + \sqrt{x}$  for  $x \geq 0$ . Sketch the graph of  $f$  for  $-4 \leq x \leq 4$ .

48. An open box is made by cutting squares of side  $x$  inches from the four corners of a sheet of cardboard 20 inches by 30 inches and then turning up the sides. Express the volume  $V(x)$  as a function of  $x$ . What is the domain of this function?

49. Find  $f(g(x))$  and  $g(f(x))$  from each pair.

(a)  $f(x) = x^2 + 2$

(b)  $f(x) = x^2$

(c)  $f(x) = x^2 + 2$

(d)  $g(x) = f(x^2)$

(e)  $f(x^2)$

(f)  $f^2(x) = (f(x))^2$

50. Sketch each graph, and describe the transformations.

(a)  $y = x^2$

(b)  $y = -1 + \frac{1}{2}(x - 2)^2$

51. Let  $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$  for  $x \geq 0$  and  $g(x) = x^2$ . What is the domain of each of the following?

(a)  $f \circ g$

52. Write  $f$  as the composition of two functions  $h$  and  $g$ .

53. Calculate  $\cos^{-1}(\cos \theta)$  without using a calculator.

(a)  $\cos^{-1}(\cos \frac{\pi}{2})$

(b)  $\cos^{-1}(\cos \frac{\pi}{4})$

54. Use the unit circle to find each value.

(a)  $\sin \frac{\pi}{4}$

(b)  $\cos \frac{\pi}{4}$

(c)  $\tan \frac{\pi}{4}$

(d)  $\csc \frac{\pi}{4}$

(e)  $\sec \left( \frac{\pi}{4} - t \right)$

(f)  $\sin(t + \frac{\pi}{4})$

55. Write  $\sin 3t$  in terms of  $\sin t$ . Show  $\sin 3t = 3\sin t - 4\sin^3 t$ .

56. A fly is on the rim of a wheel spinning at the rate of 4 revolutions per minute. If the radius of the wheel is 9 inches, how far does the fly travel in 1 second?

## REVIEW & PREVIEW PROBLEMS

- Solve the following inequalities:
  - $1 < 2x - 1 < 5$
  - $1 < 2x + 5 < 15$
- Solve the following inequalities:
  - $|x - 7| < 3$
  - $|x - 7| < 3$
- The distance along the number line between  $x$  and  $7$  is equal to  $3$ . What are the possible values for  $x$ ?
- The distance along the number line between  $x$  and  $7$  is equal to  $d$ . What are the possible values for  $x$ ?
- Solve the following inequalities:
  - $|x - 7| < 3$
  - $|x - 7| < 3$
- Solve the following inequalities:
  - $|x - 2| < 0.1$
  - $|x - 2| < 0.1$
- What are the natural domains of the following functions?
  - $f(x) = \frac{x^3 + 1}{x}$
  - $g(x) = \frac{x^3 + 2x + 1}{2x^2 + x + 1}$
- What are the natural domains of the following functions?
  - $f(x) = \frac{x^3 + 1}{x}$
  - $g(x) = \frac{x^3 + 2x + 1}{2x^2 + x + 1}$
- Evaluate the functions  $f(x)$  and  $g(x)$  from Problem 9 at the following values of  $x$ :  $0.001, 0.01, 0.0001, 1.001, 1.01, 1.0001$ .
- Evaluate the functions  $f(x)$  and  $g(x)$  from Problem 10 at the following values of  $x$ :  $1, -0.1, -0.01, -0.001, 0.001, 0.01, 0.1, 1$ .
- The distance between  $x$  and  $5$  is less than  $0.1$ . What are the possible values for  $x$ ?
- The distance between  $x$  and  $5$  is less than  $c$ , where  $c$  is a positive number. What are the possible values for  $x$ ?
- True or false? Assume that  $x, y$ , and  $z$  are real numbers and  $n$  is a natural number.
  - For every  $a > 0$ , there exists a  $y$  such that  $y > x$ .
  - For every  $a > 0$ , there exists an  $n$  such that  $\frac{1}{n} < a$ .
  - For every  $a > 0$ , there exists an  $n$  such that  $\frac{1}{n} < a$ .
  - For every circle  $C$  in the plane, there exists an  $n$  such that the circle  $C$  and its interior are all within  $n$  units of the origin.
- Use the Addition Identity for the sine function to find  $\sin(\pi + \theta)$  in terms of  $\sin \theta$  or  $\cos \theta$ .

- 1.1 Introduction to Limits
- 1.2 Rigorous Study of Limits
- 1.3 Limit Theorems
- 1.4 Limits Involving Trigonometric Functions
- 1.5 Limits at Infinity; Infinite Limits
- 1.6 Continuity of Functions

## 1.1

## Introduction to Limits

The topics discussed in the previous chapters are part of what is called *precalculus*. They provide the foundation for calculus, but they are not calculus. Now we are ready for an important new idea, the notion of *limit*. It is this idea that distinguishes calculus from other branches of mathematics. In fact, we define calculus in this way:

Calculus is the study of limits.

The subject of **limit** is central to many problems in the physical, engineering, and social sciences. Consider the question: how fast is a car moving? The function  $y = \text{position}$  is well defined.

There are various ways to do this, but the basic idea is the same in many circumstances.

Suppose that an object is moving forward and we know its position at any given time. We denote the position at time  $t$  by  $s(t)$ . How fast is the object moving at time  $t = 1$ ? We can use the formula “distance equals rate times time” to find the speed (rate of change of position) over any interval of time, in other words,

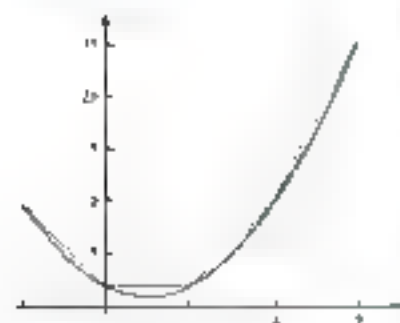
$$\text{speed} = \frac{\text{distance}}{\text{time}}$$

We will find the “average” speed over the interval  $0 \leq t \leq 1$ . How fast? The interval is so short we never know whether the speed is  $\frac{1}{2}$  m/s or  $\frac{1}{4}$  m/s. For example, over the interval  $0 \leq t \leq \frac{1}{2}$ , the average speed is  $\frac{s(\frac{1}{2}) - s(0)}{\frac{1}{2} - 0} = \frac{s(\frac{1}{2}) - s(0)}{\frac{1}{2}}$ . If  $s(t) = t^2$ , the average speed is  $\frac{(\frac{1}{2})^2 - 0}{\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{1}{4}$  over the interval  $0 \leq t \leq \frac{1}{2}$ . The average speed is  $\frac{(\frac{1}{4})^2 - 0}{\frac{1}{4}} = \frac{1}{16}$  etc. If we find the object’s average speed over smaller and smaller intervals,

We can find areas of rectangles and polygons using formulas from geometry, but what about irregular shapes? Euclid gave us such as  $\pi$  for circles. Archimedes had the idea of approximating areas by inscribing polygons and polygons circumscribed as shown in Figure 1.1.1. A method was also found for the area of a circle by using the regular polygons with more and more sides. As the number of sides increases, the area of the polygon approaches the area of the circle. The limit of the areas of the inscribed polygons as  $n$  (the number of sides) increases without bound

Consider the graph of the function  $y = x^2$ ,  $0 \leq x \leq 1$ . The graph is a straight line, the length of the curve is easy to find using the distance formula. But when the graph is curved, we can find approximate lengths by using the curve in segments with line segments as shown in Figure 1.1.2. If we add up the lengths of these line segments, we should get a sum that is approximately the length of the curve. In fact, the length of the curve is the limit of the sum of the lengths of these line segments as the number of line segments increases without bound.

The next three paragraphs describe situations that lead to the concept of *limit*. There are many others and we will study them throughout this book. We begin with an intuitive explanation of limits. The precise definition is given in the next section.



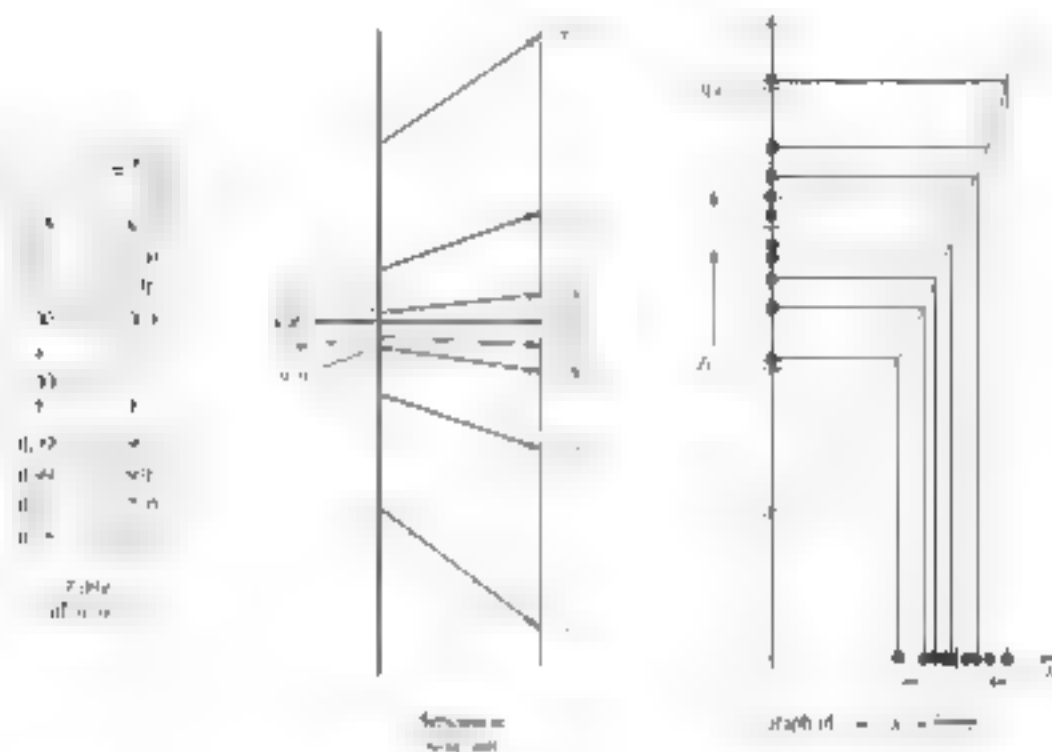


**An Intuitive Understanding** Consider the function defined by

$$f(x) = \frac{x^3 - 1}{x - 1}$$

Note that it is not defined at  $x = 1$  since a division by 0 has the form, which is meaningless. We can, however, still ask a valid question: *What happens to  $f(x)$  as  $x$  approaches 1?*

More precisely,  $x \rightarrow 1$  approaches the same specific number as a specific value. To get a true answer we can do three things. We can calculate some values of  $f(x)$  for  $x$  near 1, we can show these values in a schematic diagram, and we can sketch the graph of  $f(x) = f(x)$ . All this has been done, and the results are shown in Figure 3.5.



All the information we have assembled seems to point to the same conclusion: *As  $x$  approaches 1,  $f(x)$  approaches 3.* In mathematical symbols, we write

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^3 - 1}{x - 1} = 3$$

This reads: *As  $x$  approaches 1 of  $f(x) = \frac{x^3 - 1}{x - 1}$  is 3.*

Being good algebraists (thus knowing how to factor the difference of cubes), we can provide more and better evidence:

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^3 - 1}{x - 1} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{(x - 1)(x^2 + x + 1)}{x - 1} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (x^2 + x + 1) = 1 + 1 + 1 = 3 \end{aligned}$$

Note that  $x - 1 \neq 0$  as long as  $x \neq 1$ . This justifies the second step. The third step should seem reasonable, a right intuition that we can prove.

To be sure that we are on the right track, we need to have a clear, understood meaning for the word *limit*. Here is our first attempt at a definition.

**Definition** Intuitive Meaning of Limit

To say that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = L$  means that when  $x$  is near but different from  $c$  then  $f(x)$  is near  $L$ .

Notice that we do not require anything as  $c$ . The function  $f$  need not even be defined at  $c$ ; it was not in the example  $f(x) = x^2 + 1$  just considered. The notion of limit is associated with the behavior of a function near  $c$ , not at  $c$ .

A cautious reader is sure to object to our use of the word *near*. What does *near* mean? How near is near? For precise answers, we will have to wait, but the next section, however, some further examples will help to clarify the idea.

**EXAMPLE 1** Our first example is trivial, even if somewhat less important.

**EXAMPLE 1** Find  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 4} (4x - 5)$ .

**SOLUTION** When  $x$  is near 4,  $4x - 5$  is near  $4 \cdot 4 - 5 = 7$ . We write

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 4} (4x - 5) = 7$$

**EXAMPLE 2** Find  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 3} \frac{x^2 - 9}{x - 3}$ .

**SOLUTION** Note that  $f(x) = \frac{x^2 - 9}{x - 3}$  is not defined at  $x = 3$ , but this is not right. In general, an expression that is happening is approaching a value and we can use it when this is to evaluate the expression. In this case,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 3} \frac{x^2 - 9}{x - 3} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 3} (x + 3) = 6$ . But it is much better to use a little algebra to simplify the problem.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 3} \frac{x^2 - 9}{x - 3} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 3} \frac{(x - 3)(x + 3)}{x - 3} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 3} (x + 3) = 3 + 3 = 6$$

The cancellation of  $x - 3$  in the second step is legitimate because the definition of limit ignores the behavior at  $x = 3$ . Remember,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 3} \frac{x^2 - 9}{x - 3} = 6$  as long as  $x$  is not equal to 3.

**EXAMPLE 3** Find  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x}$ .

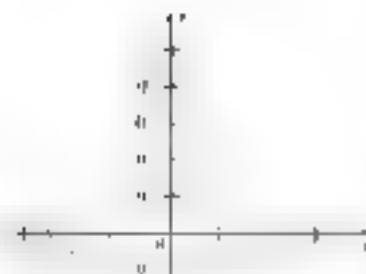
**SOLUTION** We begin our studies with simple, not hard problems. We approach the  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x}$  calculation with the guess we are due to the limit. We calculate  $f(x) = \sin x$  and  $g(x) = x$  to check the value of the ratio at the axis of  $T$ -curve. Figure 5 shows a plot of  $f(x) = (\sin x)/x$ . Our conclusion, though we admit it is a bit shaky at first,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} = 1$$

We will give a rigorous demonstration in Section 1.4.

**CAUTION** Limits are not quite as simple as they may appear. Caution may indeed be a word for our own reaction. The examples that follow suggest some possible pitfalls.

1.1.1	1.1.1
1.1.2	1.1.2
1.1.3	1.1.3
1.1.4	1.1.4
1.1.5	1.1.5
1.1.6	1.1.6
1.1.7	1.1.7
1.1.8	1.1.8
1.1.9	1.1.9
1.1.10	1.1.10
1.1.11	1.1.11
1.1.12	1.1.12
1.1.13	1.1.13
1.1.14	1.1.14
1.1.15	1.1.15
1.1.16	1.1.16
1.1.17	1.1.17
1.1.18	1.1.18
1.1.19	1.1.19
1.1.20	1.1.20
1.1.21	1.1.21
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1.1.24	1.1.24
1.1.25	1.1.25
1.1.26	1.1.26
1.1.27	1.1.27
1.1.28	1.1.28
1.1.29	1.1.29
1.1.30	1.1.30
1.1.31	1.1.31
1.1.32	1.1.32
1.1.33	1.1.33
1.1.34	1.1.34
1.1.35	1.1.35
1.1.36	1.1.36
1.1.37	1.1.37
1.1.38	1.1.38
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1.1.41	1.1.41
1.1.42	1.1.42
1.1.43	1.1.43
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1.1.47	1.1.47
1.1.48	1.1.48
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1.1.62	1.1.62
1.1.63	1.1.63
1.1.64	1.1.64
1.1.65	1.1.65
1.1.66	1.1.66
1.1.67	1.1.67
1.1.68	1.1.68
1.1.69	1.1.69
1.1.70	1.1.70
1.1.71	1.1.71
1.1.72	1.1.72
1.1.73	1.1.73
1.1.74	1.1.74
1.1.75	1.1.75
1.1.76	1.1.76
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1.1.80	1.1.80
1.1.81	1.1.81
1.1.82	1.1.82
1.1.83	1.1.83
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1.1.89	1.1.89
1.1.90	1.1.90
1.1.91	1.1.91
1.1.92	1.1.92
1.1.93	1.1.93
1.1.94	1.1.94
1.1.95	1.1.95
1.1.96	1.1.96
1.1.97	1.1.97
1.1.98	1.1.98
1.1.99	1.1.99
1.1.100	1.1.100



$x$	$y = \frac{\sin x}{10,000}$
0.000000	0.000000
0.000001	0.000000
0.000002	0.000000
0.000003	0.000000
0.000004	0.000000
0.000005	0.000000
0.000006	0.000000
0.000007	0.000000
0.000008	0.000000
0.000009	0.000000
0.000010	0.000000

Figure 8

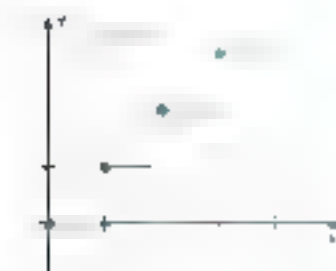


Figure 9

$x$	$y = \sin(1/x)$
0.000000	0.000000
0.000001	0.000000
0.000002	0.000000
0.000003	0.000000
0.000004	0.000000
0.000005	0.000000
0.000006	0.000000
0.000007	0.000000
0.000008	0.000000
0.000009	0.000000
0.000010	0.000000
0.000011	0.000000
0.000012	0.000000
0.000013	0.000000
0.000014	0.000000
0.000015	0.000000
0.000016	0.000000
0.000017	0.000000
0.000018	0.000000
0.000019	0.000000
0.000020	0.000000
0.000021	0.000000
0.000022	0.000000
0.000023	0.000000
0.000024	0.000000
0.000025	0.000000
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0.000030	0.000000
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0.000042	0.000000
0.000043	0.000000
0.000044	0.000000
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0.000070	0.000000
0.000071	0.000000
0.000072	0.000000
0.000073	0.000000
0.000074	0.000000
0.000075	0.000000
0.000076	0.000000
0.000077	0.000000
0.000078	0.000000
0.000079	0.000000
0.000080	0.000000
0.000081	0.000000
0.000082	0.000000
0.000083	0.000000
0.000084	0.000000
0.000085	0.000000
0.000086	0.000000
0.000087	0.000000
0.000088	0.000000
0.000089	0.000000
0.000090	0.000000
0.000091	0.000000
0.000092	0.000000
0.000093	0.000000
0.000094	0.000000
0.000095	0.000000
0.000096	0.000000
0.000097	0.000000
0.000098	0.000000
0.000099	0.000000
0.000100	0.000000

Figure 10

**EXAMPLE 3** (Your calculator may fool you.) Find  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{10,000}$ .ANSWER  
0.0000

**SOLUTION** Following the procedure used in Example 2, we construct the table of values shown in Figure 8. The conclusion it suggests is that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{10,000} = 0$ . But this is wrong. If we recall the graph of  $y = \sin x$ , we realize that  $\sin x$  approaches 1 as  $x$  approaches 0. Thus

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \left[ \frac{\sin x}{10,000} \right] = \frac{\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \sin x}{10,000} = \frac{1}{10,000} = \frac{1}{10,000}.$$

**EXAMPLE 4** (No limit at a jump.) Find  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \lfloor x \rfloor$ .

**ANSWER** Recall that  $\lfloor x \rfloor$  denotes the greatest integer less than or equal to  $x$  (see Section 1.1). The graph of  $y = \lfloor x \rfloor$  is shown in Figure 9. For all numbers less than 2 but near 2,  $\lfloor x \rfloor = 1$ , but for all numbers  $x$  greater than 2 but near 2,  $\lfloor x \rfloor = 2$ . Is  $\lfloor x \rfloor$  near a single number  $L$  when  $x$  is near 2? No matter what number we propose for  $L$ , there will be  $x$  so close to 2 that  $\lfloor x \rfloor$  is not close to  $L$ , where  $x$  is either from  $L$  by at least 1. Our conclusion is that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \lfloor x \rfloor$  does not exist. If you check back, you will see that we have not claimed that every time we use  $\lim$  we are wrong.

**EXAMPLE 5** (Too many wiggles.) Find  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \sin(1/x)$ .

**ANSWER** This example poses the question asked yet before we were first warned to make. So far, so good. We ask you to watch Figure 10, a picture of a sequence of values of  $\sin(1/x)$  for  $x$  near 0. For the sequence  $x = 1/n$ , we see that there is a link every 0.00001, in some sense. In other words, your values will oscillate wildly.

Second, consider trying to graph  $y = \sin(1/x)$ . No one will ever do this very well, but in a table of values as Figure 10 gives a general idea, you will see that, in a neighborhood of the origin, the graph wiggles up and down so often that it models many times (Figure 9). Clearly  $\sin(1/x)$  is not near a single number  $L$  when  $x$  is near 0. We conclude that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \sin(1/x)$  does not exist.



Figure 11

**DEFINITION** When a function does not approach a single number, as in Example 3, then a limit does not exist. The jump discontinuity in the graph justifies the introduction of one-sided limits. The symbol  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c^+} f(x)$  means that  $x$  approaches  $c$  from the right and  $f(x)$  approaches  $L$  from the right.

**Definition** Right- and Left-Hand Limits

To say that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c^+} f(x) = L$  means that when  $x$  is near but to the right of  $c$ ,  $f(x)$  is near  $L$ . Similarly, to say that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c^-} f(x) = L$  means that when  $x$  is near but to the left of  $c$ ,  $f(x)$  is near  $L$ .

Then write into a domain  $\delta$  such that  $x$  will make  $f(x)$  work in the graph in Figure 7).

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} [x] = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x = 0$$

We believe that you will find the following theorem quite reasonable.

### Theorem 1

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L \quad \text{if and only if} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = L \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = L$$

Figure 8 should give additional insight. Two of the limits do not exist although all but one of the one-sided limits exist.



Figure 8

## Concepts Review

1.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$  means that  $f(x)$  gets close to \_\_\_\_\_ when  $x$  gets sufficiently close to (but is different from) \_\_\_\_\_.
2. Let  $f(x) = (x^2 - 9)/(x - 3)$  and note that  $f(3)$  is undefined. Nevertheless,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 3} f(x) =$  \_\_\_\_\_.
3.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$  means that  $f(x)$  gets close to \_\_\_\_\_ when  $x$  approaches \_\_\_\_\_ from the \_\_\_\_\_.
4. If both  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = M$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = N$  then \_\_\_\_\_.

## Problem Set 1.1

In Problems 1–6, find the indicated limit.

1.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} (x - 5)$
2.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (1 - 3x)$
3.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} (x^2 - 2x - 1)$
4.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (x^2 + 2x - 1)$
5.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^2$
6.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (x + 1)$

In Problems 7–18, find the indicated limit. In most cases, it will be wise to do some algebra first (see Example 7).

7.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{x^2 - 4}{x - 2}$
8.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^2 + 4x - 21}{x - 1}$
9.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x}$
10.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 - 1}{x}$
11.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2}$
12.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 - 1}{x^2}$
13.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 + 1}$
14.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 - 1}{x^2 + 1}$

15.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 - 4}{x}$
16.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 - 1}{x}$
17.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 - 1}{x^2}$
18.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 - 1}{x^2 + 1}$

In Problems 19–38, use a calculator to find the indicated limit. Use a graphing calculator to plot the function near the limit point.

19.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2}$
20.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 - 1}{x^2}$
21.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 - 1}{x^2 + 1}$
22.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 + 1}$
23.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 - 1}{x^2 + 1}$
24.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 + 1}$
25.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 - 1}{x^2 + 1}$
26.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 + 1}$
27.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 - 1}{x^2 + 1}$
28.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 + 1}$

29. For the function  $f$  graphed in Figure 1, find the indicated limit or function value, or state that it does not exist.

- (a)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x)$  (b)  $f(1)$  (c)  $f(1)$   
 (d)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x)$  (e)  $f(1)$  (f)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x)$   
 (g)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x)$  (h)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x)$  (i)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x)$



Figure 1

30. Follow the directions of Problem 29 for the function  $f$  graphed in Figure 2.

31. For the function  $f$  graphed in Figure 3, find the indicated limit or function value, or state that it does not exist.

- (a)  $f(1)$  (b)  $f(3)$  (c)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x)$   
 (d)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x)$  (e)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x)$  (f)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x)$

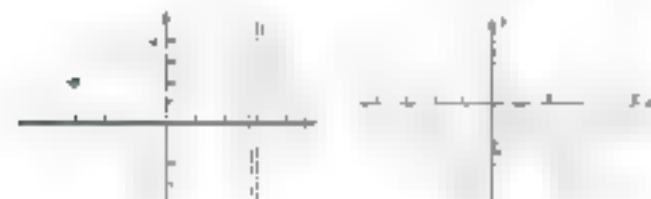


Figure 2

32. For the function  $f$  graphed in Figure 4, find the indicated limit or function value, or state that it does not exist.

- (a)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x)$  (b)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x)$  (c)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x)$   
 (d)  $f(1)$  (e)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x)$  (f)  $f(1)$

33. Sketch the graph of

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x < 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0 \\ x & \text{if } x > 0 \end{cases}$$

Then find each of the following or state that it does not exist.

- (a)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x)$  (b)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x)$   
 (c)  $f(1)$  (d)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x)$

34. Sketch the graph of

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} x + 1 & \text{if } x < 1 \\ x - 1 & \text{if } 1 < x < 2 \\ 1 & \text{if } x = 2 \end{cases}$$

Then find each of the following or state that it does not exist.

- (a)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} g(x)$  (b)  $g(1)$   
 (c)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} g(x)$  (d)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} g(x)$

35. Sketch the graph of  $f(x) = x - [x]$ ; then find each of the following or state that it does not exist.

- (a)  $f(0)$  (b)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x)$

- (c)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x)$  (d)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x)$

36. Follow the directions of Problem 35 for  $f(x) = x - [x]$ .

37. Find  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (x^2 - 1)/[x - 1]$  or state that it does not exist.

38. If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x) = 2$ , find  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (f(x) + 1)$ .  
 If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x) = 2$ , find  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (f(x) - 1)$ .  
 If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x) = 2$ , find  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (f(x) + 1)$ .

39. Let

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x \text{ is rational} \\ 0 & \text{if } x \text{ is irrational} \end{cases}$$

Find each value if possible.

- (a)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x)$  (b)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x)$

40. Sketch, as best you can, the graph of a function  $f$  that satisfies all the following conditions:

- (a)  $f(1) = 2$  and  $f(2) = 1$   
 (b)  $f(0) = f(1) = f(2) = f(3) = f(4) = 1$   
 (c)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x) = 2$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} f(x) = 1$

41. Let

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x \text{ is rational} \\ 0 & \text{if } x \text{ is irrational} \end{cases}$$

For what values of  $x$  does  $\lim_{t \rightarrow x} f(t)$  exist?

42. The function  $f(t) = t$  had been constantly in equilibrium during the night a mysterious visitor changed the values of  $f$  at  $n$  random different places. Once she left the values of  $\lim_{t \rightarrow a} f(t)$  at  $a = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10$  were

43. Find each of the following limits or state that it does not exist.

- (a)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^2 - 1}{x - 1}$  (b)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^2 - 1}{x - 1}$   
 (c)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^2 - 1}{x - 1}$  (d)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^2 - 1}{x - 1}$

44. Find each of the following limits or state that it does not exist.

- (a)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^2 - 1}{x - 1}$  (b)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^2 - 1}{x - 1}$   
 (c)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^2 - 1}{x - 1}$  (d)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^2 - 1}{x - 1}$

45. Find each of the following limits or state that it does not exist.

- (a)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^2 - 1}{x - 1}$  (b)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^2 - 1}{x - 1}$   
 (c)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^2 - 1}{x - 1}$  (d)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^2 - 1}{x - 1}$

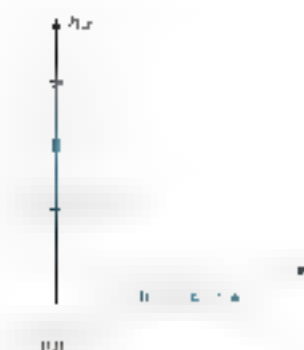
46. Find each of the following limits or state that it does not exist.

- (a)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^2 - 1}{x - 1}$  (b)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^2 - 1}{x - 1}$   
 (c)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^2 - 1}{x - 1}$  (d)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^2 - 1}{x - 1}$

47. Many software packages have programs for approximating limits, although you should be warned that they are not infallible. To develop confidence in your programs, use it to recalculate some of the limits in Problems 1–16. Then for each of the following, find the limit or state that it does not exist.

48.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \sqrt{x}$  49.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \sqrt{x}$   
 50.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \sqrt{x}$  51.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \sqrt{x}$





Р. И. М. 3

Next to say that  $x$  is sufficiently close to  $\text{bad}$  differs from  $x$  is  $\text{close}$  but in some  $\delta$  way in the open interval  $(c - \delta, c + \delta)$  with  $\delta$  depending. Perhaps the best way to say this is to write

43 4 4 4

Note that  $|x - c| < \delta$  would describe the interval  $c - \delta < x < c + \delta$ , while  $0 < |x - c|$  requires that  $x = c$  be excluded. The interval that we are describing is shown in Figure 3.

We are now ready for what some have called the most important section on

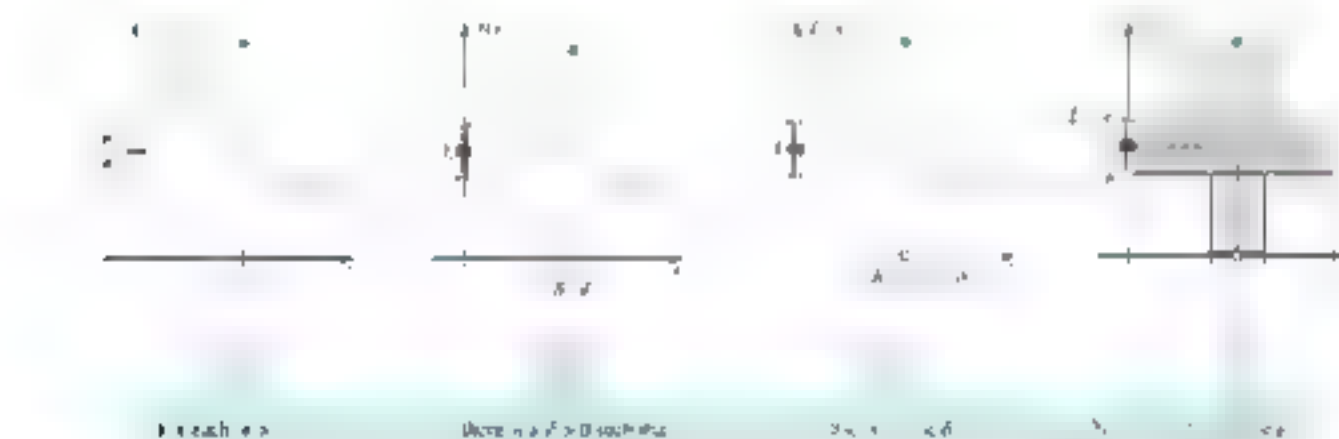
**Definition** *Proper Meaning of | and*

To say that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = L$  means that for each given  $\epsilon > 0$  (no matter how small) there is a corresponding  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $|x_n - L| < \epsilon$  for all  $n$  with  $n \geq N$ ; that is,

b)  $\delta \Rightarrow \delta$

The pictures in Figure 4 may help you absorb this definition.

My most emphatic had he a moral obligation to get himself examined by a physician who to be permitted to do so would enable him to in a surprise to his associates, prove to himself that he was fit to carry on his work. I really was shocked, I said with my pen in my hand.



1111

what does  $x \wedge y$  mean?  $x = 10$  and  $y = 10$  are elements in  $\mathbb{N}$  and  $\mathbb{N}$  is a poset.  $x \wedge y$  is the greatest lower bound of  $x$  and  $y$ . David's reasoning is that since  $0 \leq x$  and  $0 \leq y$ ,  $0$  is a special case. David would conjecture that the limit is 7. How can David find a  $\delta$  such that  $(2x + 1) - 7 < 0.01$  whenever  $0 < |x - 3| < \delta$ ? A little algebra shows that,

$$|2x + 1 - 7| < 0.01 \iff |2(x - 3)| < 0.01$$

Thus, he arrived at the quantum value. Datta can choose  $\delta = 10^{-1}$  as any suitable value and the WP guarantees that  $|\hat{\tau}_1 - \tau| \leq \tau \cdot 0.1$  whenever  $0 \leq \tau \leq 1$ . In other words, Datta can make  $\hat{\tau} \pm 10\%$  within O.L. of  $\tau$  provided that  $\tau$  is within O.H. of 1.



Now suppose that Emily challenges David again, but this time she wants  $\epsilon = 0.000002$ . Can David find a  $\delta$  for his challenge? Following, he reasoning used above,

$$\begin{aligned} |(2x + 1) - 7| < 0.000002 &\Leftrightarrow 2|x - 3| < 0.000002 \\ &\Leftrightarrow |x - 3| < \frac{0.000002}{2} \end{aligned}$$

Thus,  $|(2x + 1) - 7| < 0.000002$  whenever  $|x - 3| < 0.000002/2$ .

This line of reasoning might *convince* Emily, but it is not a proof that the limit is 7. The definition says that we must be able to find a  $\delta$  for every  $\epsilon > 0$  (not for some  $\epsilon$ ). Emily could challenge David a millionth of a day we did here, *if we* do that the limit is 7. David must be able to pick a  $\delta$  for *any* positive  $\epsilon$ , no matter how small.

David gets to take things into his own hands and re-spin the limit by any positive real number. He follows the same reasoning as above, but this time he uses  $\epsilon$  instead of 0.000002:

$$\begin{aligned} |(2x + 1) - 7| < \epsilon &\Leftrightarrow |2x - 6| < \epsilon \\ &\Leftrightarrow 2|x - 3| < \epsilon \\ &\Leftrightarrow |x - 3| < \frac{\epsilon}{2} \end{aligned}$$

David can choose  $\delta = \epsilon/2$  and it follows that  $|2x - 6| < \epsilon$  whenever  $|x - 3| < \epsilon/2$ . In other words, he can make  $|f(x) - 7|$  within  $\epsilon$  of 7 provided  $x$  is within  $\epsilon/2$  of 3. Now David has met the requirement of the definition for the limit and has therefore verified that the limit is 7 as suspected.

**STUDY TIP** In each of the following examples, we begin with what we call a *preliminary analysis*. We include it so that the choice of  $\delta$  is quite straightforward in some cases, and to make things a bit clearer in others. Work your way through each example, and try to come up with your own  $\delta$  for a given  $\epsilon$ . You will grasp an example faster another way, but going up the preliminary analysis and note how elegant (but mysterious) the proof seems to be.

**EXAMPLE 2** Prove that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 4} (3x - 7) = 5$ .

**SOLUTION** Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be an arbitrary positive number. We must find a  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$|f(x) - 5| < \epsilon \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad |3x - 7| < \epsilon$$

Consider the inequality on the right:

$$\begin{aligned} |3x - 7| < \epsilon &\Leftrightarrow |x - 4| < \frac{\epsilon}{3} \\ &\Leftrightarrow |3(x - 4)| < \epsilon \\ &\Leftrightarrow |3||x - 4| < \epsilon \\ &\Leftrightarrow |x - 4| < \frac{\epsilon}{3} \end{aligned}$$

Now we see how to choose  $\delta$  that is  $\delta = \epsilon/3$ . Of course, any smaller  $\delta$  would work.

**PROVER'S PROOF** Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given. Choose  $\delta = \epsilon/3$ . Then  $|x - 4| < \delta = \epsilon/3$  implies that

$$|3(x - 4)| < 3| |x - 4| < 3\left(\frac{\epsilon}{3}\right) = \epsilon$$

If you read this chain of equations and an inequality from left to right and use the transitive properties of  $=$  and  $<$ , you see that

$$|f(x) - 5| < \epsilon$$

Now David knows a rule for choosing the value of  $\delta$  given a small  $\epsilon$  challenge. If Emily were to challenge David with  $\epsilon = 0.000002$ , then David would respond with  $\delta = 0.000002/3$ . If Emily said  $\epsilon = 0.000001$ , then David would say  $\delta = 0.000001/3$ . If he gave a smaller value for  $\delta$ , that would be fine, too.

### Two Different Limits?

A natural question to ask is “Can a limit have two different values?” The obvious intuitive answer is no. If a function is getting closer and closer to  $L$  as  $x \rightarrow c$ , it cannot also be getting closer and closer to  $M$  without being the same. If you are asked to show this rigorously in Problem 34.

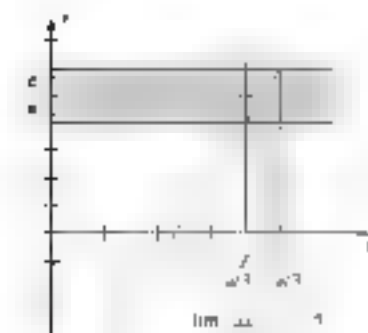


Figure 6

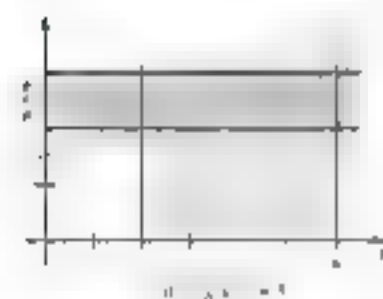


Figure 7

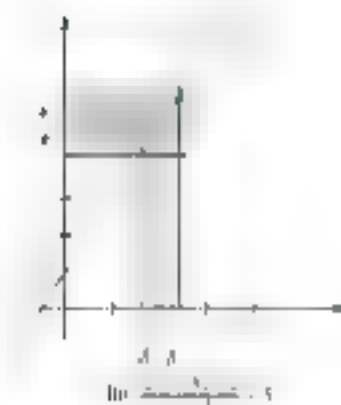


Figure 8

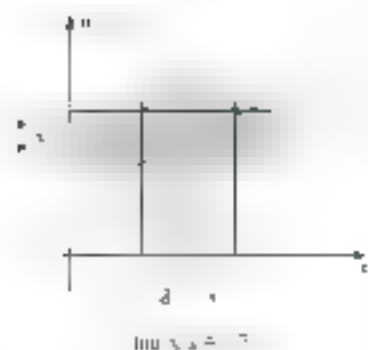


Figure 9

Of course if you think about the graph of  $y = 3x - 7$  as a line with slope 3 as in Figure 5), you know that to force  $3x - 7$  to be close to 5 you had better make  $x$  close (closer by a factor of one-third) to 4.

Now look at Figure 6 and convince yourself that  $\epsilon/3$  would be an appropriate choice for  $\delta$  in showing that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 4} (3x - 7) = 5$ .

**EXAMPLE 3** Prove that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{2x^2 - 3x - 2}{x - 2} = 5$ .

**PRELIMINARY ANALYSIS** We are looking for a  $\delta$  such that

$$0 < x - 2 < \delta \Rightarrow \left| \frac{2x^2 - 3x - 2}{x - 2} - 5 \right| < \epsilon$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Now, for } x \neq 2, \quad \left| \frac{2x^2 - 3x - 2}{x - 2} - 5 \right| < \epsilon &\Leftrightarrow \left| \frac{(2x - 1)(x - 2)}{x - 2} - 5 \right| < \epsilon \\ &\Leftrightarrow |2x - 1 - 5| < \epsilon \\ &\Leftrightarrow |2x - 6| < \epsilon \\ &\Leftrightarrow 2|x - 3| < \epsilon \\ &\Leftrightarrow |x - 3| < \epsilon/2 \end{aligned}$$

This indicates that  $\delta = \epsilon/2$  will work (see Figure 7).

**PROOF** *PROOF* Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given. Choose  $\delta = \epsilon/2$ . Then  $0 < x - 2 < \delta$  implies that

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \frac{2x^2 - 3x - 2}{x - 2} - 5 \right| &= \left| \frac{(2x - 1)(x - 2)}{x - 2} - 5 \right| = |2x - 1 - 5| \\ &= |2x - 6| = 2|x - 3| < 2\delta = \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

The cancellation of a factor of  $x - 2$  is legitimate because  $x \neq 2$  implies that  $x \neq 2$  and  $\frac{1}{x - 2} \neq 0$  as long as  $x \neq 2$ .

**EXAMPLE 4** Prove that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} (mx + b) = ma + b$ .

**PRELIMINARY ANALYSIS** We want to find  $\delta$  such that

$$0 < |x - a| < \delta \Rightarrow |(mx + b) - (ma + b)| < \epsilon$$

Now

$$|(mx + b) - (ma + b)| = |mx - ma| = m|x - a| = m|x - a|$$

It appears that  $\delta = \epsilon/m$  should do as long as  $m \neq 0$ . (The limit could be positive or negative, as we need.) Keep the absolute value bars! Herd them! (Chapter 4 that  $|ab| = |a||b|$ .)

**PROOF** *PROOF* Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given. Choose  $\delta = \epsilon/|m|$ . Then  $0 < |x - a| < \delta$  implies that

$$|(mx + b) - (ma + b)| = |mx - ma| = |m||x - a| < |m|\delta = \epsilon$$

And in case  $m = 0$ , any  $\delta$  will do just fine since

$$|(0x + b) - (0a + b)| = |0| = 0$$

The latter is less than  $\epsilon$  for all  $x$ .

**EXAMPLE 5** Prove that if  $c > 0$  then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \sqrt{x} = \sqrt{c}$ .

**PRELIMINARY ANALYSIS** Refer to Figure 8. We must find  $\delta$  such that

$$0 < x - c < \delta \Rightarrow \sqrt{x} - \sqrt{c} < \epsilon$$

Now

$$\begin{aligned} |x| &= |x - c + c| \\ &\leq |x - c| + |c| \\ &\leq \frac{\epsilon}{\sqrt{2}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ &= \frac{\epsilon + 1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{aligned}$$

To make the latter less than  $\epsilon$  requires that we have  $|x - c| < \epsilon\sqrt{2}$ .

**PROOF** Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given. Choose  $\delta = \epsilon\sqrt{2}$ . Then  $0 < |x - c| < \delta$  implies that

$$\begin{aligned} |x| &= |x - c + c| \\ &\leq |x - c| + |c| \\ &\leq \frac{\epsilon}{\sqrt{2}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ &= \frac{\epsilon + 1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{aligned}$$

There are technical points here. We began with  $|x - c| < \delta$  but  $\delta$  is not chosen to be very close to 0 on the number line. We should insist that  $\delta \leq 1$ . For then  $|x - c| < \delta$  also means that  $|x - c| < 1$  so that  $|x + c|$  is bounded. Thus for arbitrary  $\epsilon$  we choose  $\delta = \min\{\epsilon\sqrt{2}, 1\}$ , the smaller of  $\epsilon\sqrt{2}$  and  $\epsilon\sqrt{2}$ . ■

Our definition of  $\lim$  in Example 5 depended on *comparing the numerator to the denominator*, a trick frequently useful in calculus.

### EXAMPLE 6 Prove that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 3} (x^2 - x - 5) = 7$ .

**PROOF** Our task is to find  $\delta$  such that

$$|x^2 - x - 5 - 7| < \epsilon \quad \text{whenever} \quad |x - 3| < \delta.$$

Now

$$|x^2 - x - 5 - 7| = |x^2 - x - 12| = |(x + 4)(x - 3)|.$$

The factor  $|x - 3|$  can be made as small as we wish and we know that  $|x + 4|$  will be close to 7. We therefore seek an upper bound for  $|x + 4|$  so that we can agree to make  $\delta \leq 1$ . Then  $|x - 3| < \delta$  implies that

$$\begin{aligned} |x + 4| &= |(x - 3) + 7| \\ &\leq |x - 3| + 7 && \text{(Triangle Inequality)} \\ &\leq 1 + 7 = 8. \end{aligned}$$

If our  $\delta$  differs in alternative denominators of this form, we also require that  $\delta \leq \epsilon/8$ . Then the product  $|x + 4||x - 3|$  will be less than  $\epsilon$ .

**PROOF** Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given. Choose  $\delta = \min\{\epsilon/8, 1\}$ . Then  $0 < |x - 3| < \delta$  implies that

$$|(x^2 - x - 5) - 7| = |x^2 - x - 12| = |(x + 4)(x - 3)| < 8 \cdot \frac{\epsilon}{8} = \epsilon. \quad \blacksquare$$

### EXAMPLE 7 Prove that $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} x^2 = c^2$ .

**PROOF** We mimic the proof in Example 6. Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given. Choose  $\delta = \min\{1, \epsilon/(1 + 2|c|)\}$ . Then  $0 < |x - c| < \delta$  implies that

$$\begin{aligned} |x^2 - c^2| &= |(x - c)(x + c)| = |x - c||x + c| \\ &\leq (|x - c| + 2|c|)|x - c| && \text{(Triangle Inequality)} \\ &\leq (1 + 2|c|)|x - c| < \frac{1 + 2|c|}{1 + 2|c|} \epsilon = \epsilon. \end{aligned}$$

Although appearing incredibly insightful, we did not pull  $\delta$  out of the air in Example 7. We simply did not show you the preliminary analysis this time.

$$\begin{aligned} |x - c| &< \delta < \frac{\epsilon}{1 + 2|c|} \\ &\Rightarrow 0 < |x - c| < \frac{\epsilon}{1 + 2|c|} \\ &\Rightarrow |x - c| < \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

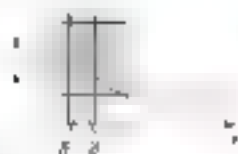
1)  $f(x)$ lim  $x \rightarrow c$ 

Figure 10

**PROBLEM 1.8** Prove that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{1}{x} = 1$ .

**PROBLEM-SOLVING** Study Figure 10. We must find  $\delta$  such that

$$|x - c| < \delta \Rightarrow \left| \frac{1}{x} - 1 \right| < \epsilon.$$

Now

$$\left| \frac{1}{x} - 1 \right| = \left| \frac{c - x}{xc} \right| = \frac{1}{x} |c - x|.$$

The factor  $\frac{1}{x}$  is troublesome, especially if  $x$  is near 0. We can bound this factor if we can keep  $x$  away from 0. To that end, note that

$$|c| = |c - x + x| \leq |c - x| + |x|.$$

So

$$x \geq |c| - |x - c|.$$

Thus, if we choose  $\delta = |c|$ , we succeed in making  $x \geq \frac{1}{2}|c|$ . In fact, we also require  $\delta = |x - c| < |c|$ , then

$$\frac{1}{|x|} \leq \frac{1}{|c|} \cdot |c - c| \leq \frac{1}{|c|} \cdot \frac{1}{2}|c| = \frac{1}{2}.$$

**PROBLEM-SOLVING** Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given. Choose  $\delta = \min\{\frac{1}{2}|c|, \epsilon\}$ . Then if  $|x - c| < \delta$ , implies

$$\left| \frac{1}{x} - 1 \right| = \left| \frac{c - x}{xc} \right| = \frac{1}{|x|} \cdot \frac{1}{|c|} \leq \frac{1}{\frac{1}{2}|c|} \cdot \frac{1}{2}|c| = \epsilon. \quad \blacksquare$$

**PROBLEM 1.9**  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x}$  does not take much thought to give the  $\epsilon$ - $\delta$  limits of right- and left-hand limits.

### Definition 1.10 (Limit)

Let  $f$  be a function.  $f$  means that on each  $\delta$ -neighborhood  $N_\delta$  extending  $\delta$  units to the right of  $c$ , there is an  $\epsilon$ -neighborhood  $N_\epsilon$  such that

$$f(x) \in N_\epsilon \quad \text{whenever} \quad x \in N_\delta.$$

We leave the  $\epsilon$ - $\delta$  definition for the left-hand limit as an exercise. See Problem 5.

The  $\epsilon$ - $\delta$  concept presented in this section is probably the most intricate and elusive topic in a calculus course. It may seem so to me, a professional mathematician, but it is worth the effort. Calculus is the study of limits with a clear understanding of the concept of limit is a worthy goal.

The necessity of calculus is usually attributed to Isaac Newton (1642–1727) and Gottfried Wilhelm von Leibniz (1646–1716), who worked independently on the calculus. Although Newton and Leibniz along with their successors discovered a number of properties of calculus and calculus was found to have many applications in the physical sciences, it was not until the nineteenth century that a precise definition of a limit was proposed. Augustin Louis Cauchy (1798–1857), a French engineer and mathematician, gave his definition. “If the successive values attributed to the same variable approach a fixed value such that the final difference from it is as little as one wishes, this difference is called the limit of the others.” Even Cauchy’s masterful insight was somewhat vague in his definition of limit. What are “the successive values,” and what does “as little as one wishes” mean? “As little as one wishes” means “as small as one wishes.” The  $\epsilon$ - $\delta$

definition because for the first time it addresses that the difference between  $f(x)$  and its limit  $L$  can be made smaller than any  $\epsilon$ , no matter how small the number we picked  $\epsilon$ . The German mathematician Karl Weierstrass (1815–1897) first put together all the definition that is equivalent to our  $\epsilon$ - $\delta$  definition of a limit.

## Concepts Review

- The inequality  $|f(x) - L| < \epsilon$  is equivalent to  $\underline{\hspace{1cm}} < f(x) < \underline{\hspace{1cm}}$ .
- The precise meaning of  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$  is this: Given any positive number  $\epsilon$ , there is a  $\delta > 0$  depending on the number  $\epsilon$  such that  $\underline{\hspace{1cm}} < x < \underline{\hspace{1cm}}$  implies  $\underline{\hspace{1cm}} < f(x) < \underline{\hspace{1cm}}$ .
- To be sure that  $|x - 3| < \epsilon$ , we would require that  $\underline{\hspace{1cm}} < x < \underline{\hspace{1cm}}$ .
- For  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^2 = 0$

## Problem Set 1.2

In Problems 1–4, give the appropriate  $\epsilon$ - $\delta$  definition of each statement.

- $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} f(x) = M$
- $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} g(n) = L$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} h(x) = P$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} m(x) = R$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = L$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} g(x) = D$

In Problems 5–10, find the largest  $\delta$  such that  $|f(x) - L| < \epsilon$  for  $|x - a| < \delta$ . Do not use the geometric interpretation of the definition. Instead, try to find  $\delta$  in order that  $f(x)$  is within  $(L - \epsilon, L + \epsilon)$  of  $L$ . Your answer should be of the form “If  $x$  is within  $\delta$  of  $a$  then  $f(x)$  is within  $(L - \epsilon, L + \epsilon)$ .”

- $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$
- $f(x) = \frac{3}{x}$
- $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$
- $f(x) = \frac{3}{x}$

In Problems 11–21, give an  $\epsilon$ - $\delta$  proof of each limit law.

- $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^2 = 0$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^3 = 0$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^4 = 0$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^5 = 0$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^6 = 0$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^7 = 0$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^8 = 0$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^9 = 0$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^{10} = 0$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^{11} = 0$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^{12} = 0$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^{13} = 0$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^{14} = 0$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^{15} = 0$
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- $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^{92} = 0$
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- $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^{96} = 0$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^{97} = 0$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^{98} = 0$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^{99} = 0$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^{100} = 0$

13. Prove that if  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = M$ , then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x) + g(x)) = L + M$ .

14. Let  $f$  and  $g$  be functions such that  $0 < f(x) < g(x)$  for all  $x$  near  $a$ , except possibly at  $a$ . Prove that if  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = 0$ , then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = 0$ .

15. Prove that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^2 \sin(1/x) = 0$ . [Hint: Use Problems 22 and 4.]

16. Prove that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \sqrt{x} = 0$ .

17. By considering left- and right-hand limits, prove that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} |x| = 0$ .

18. Prove that if  $f(x) < M$  for  $|x - a| < \delta$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = 0$ , then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)g(x) = 0$ .

19. Suppose that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$  and that  $f(x)$  exists (though it may be different from  $L$ ). Prove that  $f$  is bounded on some interval containing  $a$ . That is, show that there is an interval  $(a - \delta, a + \delta)$  with  $\epsilon < \delta < \delta$  and a constant  $M$  such that  $|f(x)| \leq M$  for all  $x$  in  $(a - \delta, a + \delta)$ .

20. Prove that if  $f(x) \geq g(x)$  for all  $x$  in some deleted interval about  $a$  and if  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = M$ , then  $L \geq M$ .

21. Which of the following are equivalent to the definition of limit?

- For some  $\epsilon > 0$  and every  $\delta > 0$ , if  $|x - a| < \delta$ , then  $|f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ .
- For every  $\delta > 0$ , there is a corresponding  $\epsilon > 0$  such that  $0 < |x - a| < \delta$  implies  $|f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ .
- For every positive integer  $N$ , there is a corresponding positive integer  $M$  such that  $0 < |x - a| < 1/M$  implies  $|f(x) - L| < 1/N$ .
- For every  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is a corresponding  $\delta > 0$  such that  $0 < |x - a| < \delta$  and  $|f(x) - L| < \epsilon$  imply  $|x - a| < \delta$ .

22. State in  $\epsilon$ - $\delta$  language what is meant to say that  $f(x) \neq L$ .

23. Suppose we wish to give an  $\epsilon$ - $\delta$  proof that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (x^2 + 4x^3 + x^4) = 0$$

We begin by writing  $x^2 + 4x^3 + x^4 = x^2(1 + 4x + x^2) = x^2(1 + 5x)$  in the form  $\epsilon = \delta(1 + 5x)$ .

- Determine  $g(x)$ .
- Could we choose  $\delta = \min\{1, \epsilon/10\}$  for some  $\epsilon$ ? Explain.
- If we choose  $\delta = \min\{1, \epsilon/10\}$ , what is the smallest integer  $N$  that we could use?

Answers to 1.  $L = 0$ , 2.  $\delta < \epsilon$ , 3.  $\delta < \epsilon$ , 4.  $\epsilon/5$ , 5.  $\epsilon/10$

# 1.3

## Limit Theorems

Most students will agree that proving the existence and value of limits using the  $\epsilon$ - $\delta$  definition of the preceding section is both time consuming and difficult. That is why the theorems of this section are so welcome. Our first theorem is the big one. With it, we can handle most limit problems and we won't fall a "quintillion" time.

Although stated in terms of two-sided limits, Theorem 4 applies also for both left- and right-hand limits.

### Theorem 4 Main Limit Theorem

Let  $n$  be a positive integer,  $k$  be a constant, and  $f$  and  $g$  be functions that have limits at  $c$ . Then

- $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} k = k$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} x = c$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} kf(x) = k \lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x)$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} [f(x) + g(x)] = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) + \lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x)$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} [f(x) - g(x)] = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) - \lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x)$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} [f(x) \cdot g(x)] = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) \cdot \lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x)$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x)}{\lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x)}$  provided  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x) \neq 0$

$$8. \lim_{x \rightarrow c} [f(x)]^n = \left[ \lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) \right]^n$$

$$9. \lim_{x \rightarrow c} \sqrt[n]{f(x)} = \sqrt[n]{\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x)} \quad \text{provided } \lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) \geq 0 \text{ if } n \text{ is even}$$

These important results are remembered best if learned in word form. For example, Statement 4 translates as *The limit of a sum is the sum of the limits*.

Of course, Theorem 4 needs to be proved. We postpone this job till the end of the section, showing first to show how this multipurpose theorem is used.

**EXAMPLE 1** Find  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} (3x^2 - 5x + 7)$ .  
 SOLUTION We use Theorem 4. To be safe, we use it three times. In the first example, the limit  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x$  is a constant, the number 2. In the second example, the limit  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x^2$  is justified by the indicated statement.

### EXAMPLE 1 Find $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} (3x^2 - 5x + 7)$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} (3x^2 - 5x + 7) = 3 \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x^2 - 5 \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x + 7 = 3 \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x^2 - 5(2) + 7 = 3(4) - 10 + 7 = 5$$

### EXAMPLE 2 Find $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (3x^2 - 2x)$ .

**SOLUTION**

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (3x^2 - 2x) &= 3 \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} x^2 - 2 \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} x = 3 \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} x^2 - 2(1) = 3(1) - 2 = 1 \\ &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 3** Find  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \sqrt{x^2 + 9}$ .**SOLUTION**

$$\begin{aligned}
 \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \sqrt{x^2 + 9} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \sqrt{1^2 + 9} && \text{Theorem 8} \\
 &= \sqrt{1^2 + 9} && \text{Theorem 1} \\
 &= \sqrt{10} && \text{Theorem 2}
 \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 4** If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = L$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x) = M$ , find

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f^2(x) + \sqrt[3]{g(x)}$$

**SOLUTION**

$$\begin{aligned}
 \lim_{x \rightarrow c} [f^2(x) + \sqrt[3]{g(x)}] &= \lim_{x \rightarrow c} f^2(x) + \lim_{x \rightarrow c} \sqrt[3]{g(x)} && \text{Theorem 1} \\
 &= \left[ \lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) \right]^2 + \sqrt[3]{\lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x)} && \text{Theorem 2} \\
 &= L^2 + \sqrt[3]{M} && \text{Theorem 2}
 \end{aligned}$$

Recall that a polynomial function  $f$  has the form

$$f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0$$

whereas a rational function  $f$  is the quotient of two polynomial functions, that is,

$$f(x) = \frac{a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0}{b_m x^m + b_{m-1} x^{m-1} + \cdots + b_1 x + b_0}$$

**Theorem 8** Substitution TheoremIf  $f$  is a polynomial function or a rational function, then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = f(c)$$

provided  $f(c)$  is defined. In the case of a rational function, this means that the value of the denominator at  $c$  is not zero.

The proof of Theorem 8 follows from repeated applications of Theorem A. Note that Theorem B allows us to find limits for polynomials and rational functions by simply substituting  $c$  for  $x$  in the definition, provided the denominator of the rational function is not zero at  $c$ .

**EXAMPLE 5** Find  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{x^2 + 2x^3 - 43x + 6}{6x - 8}$ .

When we apply Theorem 8, the Substitution Theorem, we say we evaluate the limit by substitution. Now if  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x)$  can be evaluated by substitution, we say  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x)$  is **substitutionally evaluable**.

The Substitution Theorem does not depend on  $c$  because the denominator is always nonzero; the denominator does exist.



## SOLUTION

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{7x^2 - 10x + 6}{x^2 - 8x + 6} = \frac{7(2)^2 - 10(2) + 6}{(2)^2 - 8(2) + 6} = \frac{6}{-6} = -1$$

EXAMPLE Find  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^2 - 3x + 2}{x^2 - 1} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^2 - 2x + x - 2}{x^2 - 1}$ 

**SOLUTION** Neither Theorem A nor Statement 3 of Theorem A applies since the limit of the denominator is 0. However, since the limit of the numerator is 0, we see that as  $x$  nears 1 we are dividing a number near 0 by a positive number near 1. The result is a very positive number. In fact, the resulting number can be made as close as we like to 0 by taking  $x$  as close as we want to 1. We say that the limit does not exist. Later in this chapter (see Section 3.5), we will know a way to say that the limit is 0. ■

In many cases, Theorem B cannot be applied because substitution of  $a$  causes both the numerator and the denominator to be 0. Sometimes the fraction can be simplified, for example by factoring. For example, we can write

$$\frac{x^2 - 4}{x^2 - 9} = \frac{(x - 2)(x + 2)}{(x - 3)(x + 3)}$$

We have to be careful with the last step. The two polynomials are equal in equalities, but not in the left side of the equality if  $x = 3$  or  $x = -3$ . If  $x$  is not equal to  $\pm 3$ , we can cancel, because the denominator is 0 whenever the left side is equal to 0:  $(2 - 3)(2 + 3) = 7/5$ . This brings up the question about whether the limits

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 3} \frac{x^2 - 4}{x^2 - 9} = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 3} \frac{x + 2}{x + 3}$$

are equal. The answer is contained in the following theorem.

## Theorem C

If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = 0$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = L$ , where  $L \neq 0$ , then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = 0$ . If  $L = 0$ , then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$  may or may not exist.

EXAMPLE Find  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{1}{x^2 - 1}$ 

## SOLUTION

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{1}{x^2 - 1} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{1}{(x - 1)(x + 1)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{1}{x + 1} = \frac{1}{2}$$

EXAMPLE 8 Find  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{x^2 - 3x + 6}{x^2 - 6}$ 

**SOLUTION** Theorem B does not apply because the denominator is 0 when  $x = 2$ . When we substitute  $x = 2$  in the numerator we also get 0, so the quotient does not have the form  $\frac{0}{0}$ . When this happens we sometimes look for some sort of simplification such as factoring.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{x^2 - 3x + 6}{x^2 - 6} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{(x - 2)(x - 3) + 6}{(x - 2)(x + 3)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{6}{(x + 3)} = \frac{6}{5}$$

## Optional?

How much theorem proving should be done in a first calculus course? Mathematicians disagree long and hard about this, but always the right balance between

- logic and intuition
- proof and explanation
- theory and application

A great scientist of long ago had little better advice:

He who loses practice without theory is like the sailor who hops about without a rudder and compass; he never knows where he may end.

*Expositione de Vita*

The second to last equality is justified by Theorem C since

$$\begin{aligned} x &= 2 + (x - 2) & x &< 5 \\ \Leftrightarrow x &= 2 + (x - 2) & x &< 2 + 3 \end{aligned}$$

for all  $x$  except  $x = 2$ . Once we apply Theorem C, we can evaluate the limit by substitution (i.e., by applying Theorem B).

**Proof of Theorem 1.3.1**  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} (x - c) = 0$ . You should not be too surprised when we say that the proofs of some parts of Theorem A are quite sophisticated. Because of this, we prove only the first five parts here, deferring the others to the Appendix (Section A.1, Theorem A.1). To get your bearings, see, for example, Problems 45 and 46.

**Proofs of Statements 1 and 2** These statements establish  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} (x + h) = c + h$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} (cx + h) = c^2 + h$  (Example 4 of Section 1.2) using first  $m = 0$  and then  $m = 1$ ,  $h = 0$ .

**Proof of Statement 3** If  $k \neq 0$ , the equality  $kx = c$  is equivalent to  $x = c/k$ . Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  be given. By hypothesis, for  $\varepsilon/k > 0$ , there exists a value  $\delta$ . By definition of limit, there is a number  $\delta$  such that

$$0 < |x - c/k| < \delta \Rightarrow |kx - c| < \frac{\varepsilon}{|k|}.$$

Substituting  $x = c/k$  to establish this we prove  $kx = c$  to be true. The other, if it happens to have  $k = 0$ , is a given condition. Now, given the information that require that for any positive number there be a corresponding  $\delta$  for  $\forall \varepsilon$ .

Now, for  $\delta$  we determine again by a  $\varepsilon$  number analysis that we have to show here, we assert that  $0 < |x - c| < \delta$  implies that

$$|kf(x) - kL| = |k| |f(x) - L| < |k| \frac{\varepsilon}{|k|} = \varepsilon.$$

This shows that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} kf(x) = kL = k \lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x).$$

**Proof of Statement 4** Refer to Figure 1. Let  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = L$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x) = M$ . For any given positive number there is a positive  $\delta_1$  such that  $0 < |x - c| < \delta_1$  implies that

$$0 < |f(x) - L| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}.$$

Since  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x) = M$ , there is a positive number  $\delta_2$  such that

$$0 < |x - c| < \delta_2 \Rightarrow |g(x) - M| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}.$$

Choose  $\delta = \min\{\delta_1, \delta_2\}$ ; that is, choose  $\delta$  to be the smaller of  $\delta_1$  and  $\delta_2$ . Then  $0 < |x - c| < \delta$  implies that

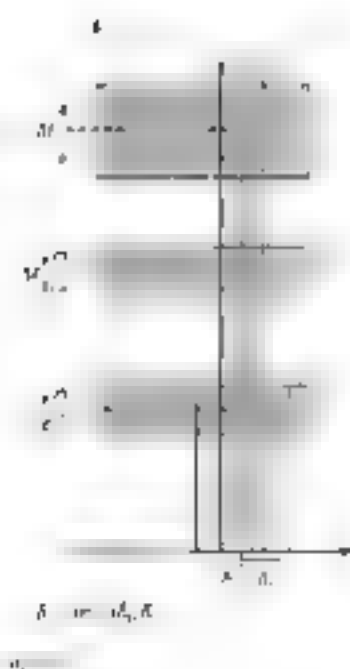
$$\begin{aligned} |f(x) + g(x) - (L + M)| &= |(f(x) - L) + (g(x) - M)| \\ &\leq |f(x) - L| + |g(x) - M| \\ &< \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon. \end{aligned}$$

Let the chain of first inequality is the Triangle Inequality. Section 1.2, the second results from the choice of  $\delta$ . We have just shown that

$$0 < |x - c| < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x) + g(x) - (L + M)| < \varepsilon.$$

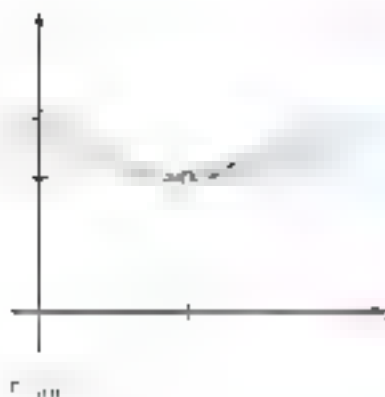
Thus,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} [f(x) + g(x)] = L + M = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) + \lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x).$$



**Proof of Statement 5**

$$\begin{aligned}
 \lim_{x \rightarrow c} [f(x) + g(x)] &= \lim_{x \rightarrow c} [f(x) + (-1)g(x)] \\
 &= \lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) + \lim_{x \rightarrow c} (-1)g(x) \\
 &= \lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) + (-1) \lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x) \\
 &= \lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) - \lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x)
 \end{aligned}$$



**Sequence of Events** You have likely heard someone say, “I was caught between a rock and a hard place.” This is what happens in the following theorem (see Figure 1).

**Theorem D Squeeze Theorem**

Let  $f$ ,  $g$ , and  $h$  be functions satisfying  $f(x) \leq g(x) \leq h(x)$  if  $c < x < c + \delta$ , except possibly at  $c$ . If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} h(x) = L$ , then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x) = L$ .

**Proof (Optional)** Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  be given. Choose  $\delta_1$  such that

$$0 < |x - c| < \delta_1 \Rightarrow f(x) \in (L - \varepsilon, L + \varepsilon)$$

and  $\delta_2$  such that

$$0 < |x - c| < \delta_2 \Rightarrow h(x) \in (L - \varepsilon, L + \varepsilon)$$

Choose  $\delta$  so that

$$0 < |x - c| < \delta \Rightarrow f(x) \leq g(x) \leq h(x)$$

( $\delta = \min\{\delta_1, \delta_2\}$ ). Then

$$0 < |x - c| < \delta \Rightarrow L - \varepsilon < f(x) \leq g(x) \leq h(x) < L + \varepsilon$$

We conclude that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x) = L$ .

**EXAMPLE 1** A simple limit we have just seen is  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} = 1$ .

Although  $\sin x$  is not differentiable at 0, when  $x$  is near 0 we can find points  $y$  and  $z$  such that  $y < x < z$  and  $y \neq 0 \neq z$ , and we can write  $\frac{\sin x}{x}$  as  $\frac{\sin y}{y} \cdot \frac{y}{x}$ .

**SOLUTION** Let  $f(x) = 1 - x^2/6$ ,  $g(x) = (\sin x)/x$ , and  $h(x) = 1$ . It follows that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = 1 = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} h(x)$  and so, by Theorem D,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} = 1$$

**Concepts Review**

- If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = 4$ , then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} (x^2 + 3)f(x) = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$ .
- If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x) = -2$ , then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \sqrt{g(x) + 12} = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$ .
- If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = 5$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x) = 3$ , then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x) \cdot f(x) = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$ .
- If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = L$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x) = L$ , then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} [f(x) + Lg(x)] = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$ .

**Problem Set 1.4**

In Problems 1–12, use Theorem A to find each of the limits. Justify each step by appealing to a numerical statement as in Examples 1–4.

1.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (2x + 1)$

2.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (3x^2 - 1)$

3.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (12x + \underline{\hspace{2cm}})$

4.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \frac{1}{2}} \{(2x^2 + 1)(2x + 13)\}$

5.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 4} \frac{2x + 1}{3x}$

6.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 3} \frac{4x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 9}$

7.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \sqrt{x} = 0$

8.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x} = \infty$

9.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x^2} = \infty$

10.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x^3} = \infty$

11.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x^4} = \infty$

12.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x^5} = \infty$

In Problems 13–24 find the limit, and show or state that it does not exist. In many cases, you will want to do some algebra before trying to evaluate the limit.

13.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x^2}$

14.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x^3}$

15.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x^4}$

16.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x^5}$

17.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x^6}$

18.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x^7}$

19.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x^8}$

20.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x^9}$

21.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x^{10}}$

22.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x^{11}}$

23.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x^{12}}$

24.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x^{13}}$

25.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x^{14}}$

26.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x^{15}}$

27.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x^{16}}$

28.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x^{17}}$

29.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x^{18}}$

30.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x^{19}}$

In Problems 31–34 find the limit if  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = 3$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = -1$ . If it is impossible, say so.

31.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \sqrt{f(x) + g(x)}$

32.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x) - g(x)}{f(x) + g(x)}$

33.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \sqrt{f(x) - g(x)}$

34.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x) + g(x)}{f(x) - g(x)}$

In Problems 35–38 find  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} [f(x) + 2]g(x - 2)$  for each  $g$  in Problem 1.

35.  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$

36.  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2}$

37.  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^3}$

38.  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^4}$

39.  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^5}$

40.  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^6}$

41.  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^7}$

42.  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^8}$

43.  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^9}$

44.  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^{10}}$

45.  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^{11}}$

46.  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^{12}}$

47.  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^{13}}$

48.  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^{14}}$

49.  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^{15}}$

50.  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^{16}}$

Now show that if  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = M$  then there is a number  $\delta_1$  such that

$$0 < |x - a| < \delta_1 \Rightarrow |g(x) - M| < 1$$

35. Prove Statement 1 of Theorem A by first giving an  $\epsilon < 1$  and then applying Statement 1.

36. Prove that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L \Leftrightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow a} [f(x) - L] = 0$ .

37. Prove that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = 0 \Leftrightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow a} |f(x)| = 0$ .

38. Prove that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} x = |a|$ .

39. Find each limit, or show that it does not exist.

(a)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} [f(x) + g(x)]$  exists, this does not imply that either  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x)$  or  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} g(x)$  exists.

(b)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} [f(x) + g(x)]$  exists, this does not imply that either  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x)$  or  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} g(x)$  exists.

In Problems 41–48 find each of the right-hand and left-hand limits or state that they do not exist.

41.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{1}{x}$

42.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} \frac{1}{x}$

43.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{1}{x^2}$

44.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} \frac{1}{x^2}$

45.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{1}{x^3}$

46.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} \frac{1}{x^3}$

47.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{1}{x^4}$

48.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} \frac{1}{x^4}$

49. Suppose that  $f(x, y, z) = \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$  for all  $x, y, z$  and  $\lim_{(x,y,z) \rightarrow (0,0,0)} f(x, y, z) = 0$ . Prove that  $\lim_{(x,y,z) \rightarrow (0,0,0)} f(x, y, z)$  does not exist.

50. Let  $R$  be the rectangle joining the midpoints of the sides of the quadrilateral  $Q$  having vertices  $(\pm a, 0)$  and  $(0, \pm b)$ .  $a > 0, b > 0$ .

$$\text{perimeter of } R = 4\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$$

51. Let  $y = \sqrt{x}$  and consider the points  $M$ ,  $N$ ,  $P$  with coordinates  $(0, 0)$ ,  $(1, 1)$ ,  $(2, \sqrt{2})$  and  $(x, y)$  on the graph of  $y = \sqrt{x}$  respectively.  $x > 0$ .

$$(a) \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\text{perimeter of } \triangle MNP}{\text{perimeter of } \triangle MOP} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{0 + 0 + \sqrt{x} + y}{0 + 0 + 1 + \sqrt{2}}$$

$$1. \quad 2. \quad 3. \quad 4. \quad 5. \quad 6. \quad 7. \quad 8. \quad 9. \quad 10. \quad 11. \quad 12. \quad 13. \quad 14. \quad 15. \quad 16. \quad 17. \quad 18. \quad 19. \quad 20. \quad 21. \quad 22. \quad 23. \quad 24. \quad 25. \quad 26. \quad 27. \quad 28. \quad 29. \quad 30. \quad 31. \quad 32. \quad 33. \quad 34. \quad 35. \quad 36. \quad 37. \quad 38. \quad 39. \quad 40. \quad 41. \quad 42. \quad 43. \quad 44. \quad 45. \quad 46. \quad 47. \quad 48. \quad 49. \quad 50. \quad 51. \quad 52. \quad 53. \quad 54. \quad 55. \quad 56. \quad 57. \quad 58. \quad 59. \quad 60. \quad 61. \quad 62. \quad 63. \quad 64. \quad 65. \quad 66. \quad 67. \quad 68. \quad 69. \quad 70. \quad 71. \quad 72. \quad 73. \quad 74. \quad 75. \quad 76. \quad 77. \quad 78. \quad 79. \quad 80. \quad 81. \quad 82. \quad 83. \quad 84. \quad 85. \quad 86. \quad 87. \quad 88. \quad 89. \quad 90. \quad 91. \quad 92. \quad 93. \quad 94. \quad 95. \quad 96. \quad 97. \quad 98. \quad 99. \quad 100.$$

## 1.4 Limits Involving Trigonometric Functions

Theorem B of the previous section says that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)$  is a number, and this can always be found by substitution, and limits of a given function can be found by substitution as long as the denominator is not zero at the limit point. This substitution rule applies to the trigonometric functions as well. This result is stated next.

**THEOREM 3.1** Limits of Trigonometric FunctionsFor every real number  $c$  in the function's domain,

- |   |   |
|---|---|
| 1. $\lim_{t \rightarrow c} \sin t = \sin c$ | 2. $\lim_{t \rightarrow c} \cos t = \cos c$ |
| 3. $\lim_{t \rightarrow c} \tan t = \tan c$ | 4. $\lim_{t \rightarrow c} \cot t = \cot c$ |
| 5. $\lim_{t \rightarrow c} \sec t = \sec c$ | 6. $\lim_{t \rightarrow c} \csc t = \csc c$ |

**Proof of Statement 1** We first establish the special case in which  $c = 0$ . Suppose that  $t > 0$  and let points  $A$ ,  $B$ , and  $P$  be defined as in Figure 3.1. Then

$$0 < |BP| < |AP| < \text{arc}(AP),$$

But  $|BP| = \sin t$  and  $\text{arc}(AP) = t$ , so

$$0 < \sin t < t.$$

If  $t < 0$ , then  $t < \sin t < 0$ . We can thus apply the Squeeze Theorem. Therefore, we can conclude that  $\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \sin t = 0$ . In the next proof, we will also need to establish that  $\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \cos t = 1$ . This follows by applying the argument to  $\sin(t + \pi/2)$  and Theorem 3.1A.

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \cos t = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \sqrt{1 - \sin^2 t} = \sqrt{1 - (\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \sin t)^2} = \sqrt{1 - 0^2} = 1.$$

Now to show that  $\lim_{t \rightarrow c} \sin t = \sin c$ , we first let  $h = c - t$ , so that  $t = c - h$ ,  $t \rightarrow c$  if and only if  $h \rightarrow 0$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{t \rightarrow c} \sin t &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \sin(c - h) \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} (\sin c \cos h + \cos c \sin h) \quad (\text{Addition Identity}) \\ &= (\sin c + \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \cos h) + (\cos c)(\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \sin h) \\ &= (\sin c)(1) + (\cos c)(0) = \sin c. \end{aligned}$$

**Proof of Statement 2** We use the same argument with Theorem 3.1A. If  $\cos c > 0$ , then for  $t$  near  $c$  we have  $\cos t = \sqrt{1 - \sin^2 t}$ . Thus,

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow c} \cos t = \lim_{t \rightarrow c} \sqrt{1 - \sin^2 t} = \sqrt{1 - \lim_{t \rightarrow c} \sin^2 t} = \sqrt{1 - 0} = 1.$$

On the other hand, if  $\cos c < 0$ , then for  $t$  near  $c$  we have  $\cos t = -\sqrt{1 - \sin^2 t}$ . If  $\lim_{t \rightarrow c} \cos t$ 

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow c} \cos t = \lim_{t \rightarrow c} -\sqrt{1 - \sin^2 t} = -\sqrt{1 - \lim_{t \rightarrow c} \sin^2 t} = -\sqrt{1 - 0} = -1.$$

$$\sqrt{\cos^2 c} = -|\cos c| = \cos c.$$

The case  $\cos c = 0$  was handled in the proof of Statement 1. ■

The proofs for the other statements are left as an exercise. (See Problems 2 and 32.) Theorem 3.1 can be used along with Theorem 3.1A to evaluate other limits.

$$\text{EXAMPLE 3.1} \quad \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 - \cos t}{t^2} \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{t^2 \cos t}{1 - \cos t}$$

**SOLUTION**

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 - \cos t}{t^2} = \frac{1}{t^2} \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} (1 - \cos t) = \frac{1}{0^2} \cdot 0 = \frac{0}{0}.$$

Two important limits that we cannot evaluate by substitution are

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin t}{t} \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 - \cos t}{t}.$$

We met the first of these limits in Section 1.1, where we conjectured that the limit was 1. Now we prove that 1 is indeed the limit.

### THEOREM 3 Special Trigonometric Limits

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin t}{t} = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos t - 1}{t} = 0$$

**Proof of Statement 1** In the proof of Theorem A of this section we showed that

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \cos t = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \sin t = 0$$

For  $-\pi/2 \leq t \leq \pi/2$ ,  $t \neq 0$  (remember, it does not matter what happens at  $t = 0$ ), draw the vertical line segment  $RP$  and the circular arc  $RP$  as shown in Figure 1. Let  $r$  then denote the shaded region as being the region within the  $x$ -axis. It is evident from Figure 2 that

$$\text{area (sector } OBP) \leq \text{area } (\triangle OBP) \leq \text{area (sector } OAP)$$

The area of a triangle is one-half its base times the height and the area of a circular sector with central angle  $t$  and radius  $r$  is  $\frac{1}{2}r^2t$  (see Problem 42 of Section 1.2). Applying these results to the three regions gives

$$\frac{1}{2}(\cos t) \cdot |t| \leq \frac{1}{2} \cos t |\sin t| \leq \frac{1}{2}|t|^2$$

which, after multiplying by 2 and dividing by the positive number  $|\cos t|$ , yields

$$|\sin t| \leq \frac{|\sin t|}{|\cos t|} \leq \frac{1}{|\cos t|}|t|$$

Since the expression  $\sin t/t$  is positive for  $0 < t < \pi/2$  and  $-\pi/2 < t < 0$ , we have  $|\sin t/t| = \sin t/t$  for all  $t$ . Therefore

$$\cos t \leq \frac{\sin t}{t} \leq \frac{1}{\cos t}$$

Since we are after the limit of the middle function and we know the limits of each on the left and right, it is thus double inequality setup for the Squeeze Theorem. When we apply it, we get

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin t}{t} = 1$$

**Proof of Statement 2** The second limit follows easily from the first, by multiplying the numerator and denominator by  $\sin t$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos t - 1}{t} &= \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{(\cos t - 1)\sin t}{t \sin t} = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos t \sin t - \sin t}{t \sin t} \\ &= \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin t}{t} \cdot \frac{\cos t - 1}{\sin t} \\ &= \left( \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin t}{t} \right) \left( \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos t - 1}{\sin t} \right) = 1 \cdot 0 = 0 \end{aligned}$$

We will make explicit use of these two limit statements in Chapter 2. Right now, we can use them to evaluate other limits.

**EXAMPLE 1** Find each limit.

(a)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin 3x}{x}$

(b)  $\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 - \cos t}{\sin t}$

(c)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin 4x}{\sin x}$

## SOLUTION

$$(a) \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin 3x}{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} 3 \frac{\sin 3x}{3x} = 3 \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin u}{u}$$

Here the argument to the sine function is  $3x$ , not simply  $x$  as required by the limit Rule 1. Let  $u = 3x$ . Then  $x \rightarrow 0$  if and only if  $u \rightarrow 0$ , so

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin 3x}{x} = \lim_{u \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin u}{u/3}$$

Thus,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin 3x}{x} = \lim_{u \rightarrow 0} 3 \frac{\sin u}{u} = 3$$

$$(b) \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos x}{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos x}{1} = \frac{\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \cos x}{\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} 1} = \frac{1}{1} = 1$$

$$(c) \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x + 4}{x \tan x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x + 4}{x \frac{\sin x}{\cos x}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{(x + 4) \cos x}{x \sin x} = \frac{4 \cos 0}{\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x}} = \frac{4(1)}{1} = 4$$

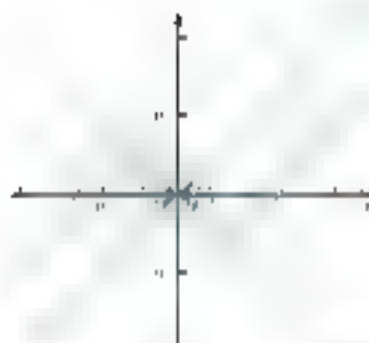


Figure 1.3

**EXAMPLE 1** Sketch the graphs of  $y = \cos(1/x)$  and  $y = \sin(1/x)$  for  $x > 0$ , so these graphs along with the Squeeze Theorem's theorem (of Section 1.3) to determine  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x)$ .

**ADDITION** Note that  $\cos(1/x)$  is always between  $-1$  and  $1$  and  $f(x) = \cos(1/x)$ . Thus,  $\cos(1/x)$  will always be between  $-x$  and  $x$  as  $x$  approaches  $0$  from between  $1$  and  $-1$  and  $x$  is negative, so that works to graph of  $y = \cos(1/x)$  is between the graphs of  $y = -1/x$  and  $y = 1/x$  as shown in Figure 1.3. We know that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} 1/x = \infty$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} -1/x = -\infty$  (see Problem 27 of Section 1.2) so since the graph of  $y = f(x) = \cos(1/x)$  is “squeezed” between the graphs of  $u(x) = x$  and  $v(x) = -x$  both of which go to  $0$  as  $x \rightarrow 0$ , we can apply the Squeeze Theorem to conclude that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = 0$ .

## Concepts Review

- $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \sin x =$  \_\_\_\_\_
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \tan x =$  \_\_\_\_\_

3. The limit  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x}$  cannot be evaluated by substitution.

$$4. \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} =$$



## Problem Set 1.4

In Problems 1–14, evaluate each limit.

1.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x}$

2.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos x}{x}$

3.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\tan x}{x}$

4.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sec x}{x}$

5.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cot x}{x}$

6.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\csc x}{x}$

7.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin 5x}{\sin 4x}$

8.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos 5x}{\cos 4x}$

9.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin \pi x}{\sin 2\pi x}$

10.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin \pi x}{\sin \pi x}$

11.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x^2}$

12.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x^3}$

13.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x^4}$

14.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x^5}$

In Problems 15–24 plot the functions  $u(x)$ ,  $f(x)$ , and  $l(x)$ . Then use three quarters along with the Squeeze Theorem to determine  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} u(x)$ .

15.  $u(x) = 4 - 2|x|$ ,  $f(x) = 4 \sin x$ ,  $l(x) = 4 - 2|x|$

16.  $u(x) = 4 - 2|x|$ ,  $f(x) = 4 \cos x$ ,  $l(x) = 4 - 2|x|$

17.  $u(x) = |x|$ ,  $f(x) = -|x|$ ,  $l(x) = (3 - \cos^2 x)/x$

18.  $u(x) = |x|$ ,  $f(x) = x$ ,  $l(x) = x$

19.  $u(x) = |x|$ ,  $f(x) = x$ ,  $l(x) = x$

20. Prove that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \cos x = 1$  by using an argument identical to the one used in the proof that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \sin x = 0$ .21. Prove that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \tan x = 0$  using Theorem 4.4 and the result of Problem 20.

22. Prove statements 5 and 6 in Theorem 4.4 using Theorem 4.3A.

23. Prove that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} = 1$  by showing that  $\sin x < x < \tan x$  for  $0 < x < \pi/2$  in Figure 4.4 where  $\sin x$  is the vertical side of  $\triangle ABC$  and  $\tan x$  is the length of  $BD$ .

$$\sin x < x < \tan x$$

and thus obtain another proof that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} = 1$ .24. Figure 4.4 is used to prove that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} = 1$ . Use the area of the shaded region,

(a) to establish a limit for  $\frac{1}{x} - \frac{\sin x}{x}$  by using the figure.

(b) Find a formula for  $\frac{1}{x} - \frac{\sin x}{x}$  in terms of  $x$ .

25. Use a calculator to give an upper and lower bound for  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x} - \frac{\sin x}{x}$ .

26. Use a calculator to give an upper and lower bound for  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x} - \frac{\sin x}{x}$ .

Limits at Infinity;  
Infinite Limits

The deepest problem and most profound sandwiches in mathematics is not an interview with the owner of the subject but the one we face in the limit process. Limits can in part be measured in terms of our understanding of concepts in math. We have also to use the symbols  $\infty$  and  $-\infty$  in the limit process in mathematics. Thus  $x \rightarrow \infty$  is not a way of doing in the set of real numbers, so  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x)$  is not a limit that we have never referred to  $x$  as a number. For example we have never used  $\infty$  as a number, nor  $-\infty$  as a number. We will use the symbols  $\infty$  and  $-\infty$  in a new way in this section, but they will still not represent numbers.

**Limits at Infinity** Consider the function  $g(x) = x/(1+x^2)$  whose graph is shown in Figure 1. We ask the question: What happens to  $g(x)$  as  $x$  gets larger and larger? In symbols, we ask for the value of  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} g(x)$ .

When we write  $x \rightarrow \infty$  we are not implying that somewhere far off to the right of the  $x$ -axis there is a number which has no other numbers—that  $x$  is approaching. Rather we use  $x \rightarrow \infty$  as a shorthand way of saying that  $x$  gets larger and larger without bound.

In the table in Figure 2 we have listed values of  $g(x) = x/(1+x^2)$  for several values of  $x$ . It appears that  $g(x)$  gets smaller and smaller as  $x$  gets larger and larger. We write

$x$	$f(x)$
0	0.000
10	0.000
100	0.000
1000	0.000
$\vdots$	$\vdots$

Figure 1

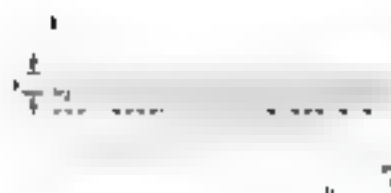


Figure 1

Experimenting with the above numbers (or with the list of values in the next number line) would lead us to write

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x^2} = 0$$

**Rigorous Definitions of Limits as  $x \rightarrow \infty$**  In analogy with the  $\epsilon$ - $\delta$  definition for ordinary limits, we make the following definition.

**Definition**

Let  $f$  be a function on  $[c, \infty)$  for some number  $c$ . We say that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = L$  if for each  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a corresponding number  $M$  such that

$$x > M \Rightarrow |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$$

You will note that  $M$  can and usually does depend on  $\epsilon$ . In particular, the smaller  $\epsilon$  is, the larger  $M$  will have to be. The graph in Figure 3 makes this more understandable.

**Definition**

Let  $f$  be defined on  $(-\infty, c]$  for some number  $c$ . We say that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} f(x) = L$  if for each  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a corresponding number  $M$  such that

$$x < -M \Rightarrow |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$$

**EXAMPLE 1** Show that  $f(x) = 1/x^2$  is a positive decreasing

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x^2} = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} \frac{1}{x^2} = 0$$

**SOLUTION** Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given. After a preliminary analysis (as in Section 2) we choose  $M = 1/\sqrt{\epsilon}$ . Then  $x > M$  implies that

$$\left| \frac{1}{x^2} - 0 \right| = \frac{1}{x^2} < \frac{1}{M^2} = \epsilon$$

The proof of the second statement is similar. ■

Having given the definitions of these new kinds of limits, we must now ask the question of whether the Mean Value Theorem, Theorem 3.1, holds for them. The answer is yes, and the proof is similar to the appropriate proof for the usual  $\epsilon$ - $\delta$  Theorem in the following example.

**EXAMPLE 2** Prove that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x}{1+x^2} = 0$ .

**SOLUTION** Here we use a standard trick: divide the numerator and denominator by the highest power of  $x$  that appears in the denominator. In this

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x}{1+x^2} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{x}{x}}{\frac{1}{x} + \frac{x^2}{x}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{\frac{1}{x} + x} \\ &= \frac{\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} 1}{\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{1}{x} + x \right)} = \frac{1}{0 + \infty} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 3** Find  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2x}{x^3}$ .

**SOLUTION** The graph of  $y = \frac{2x}{x^3} = \frac{2}{x^2}$  is shown in Figure 4. To find the limit, divide both the numerator and denominator by  $x^3$ :

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2x}{x^3} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{2x}{x^3}}{\frac{x^3}{x^3}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2}{x^2} = 0$$

The domain for some functions is the set of natural numbers  $\{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ . In this situation, we usually write  $a_n$  rather than  $a(x)$  to indicate the  $n$ th term of the sequence  $\{a_n\}$  associated with the sequence. For example, we might define the sequence by  $a_n = \frac{1}{n}$ . Let's consider what happens as  $n$  gets large. A little calculation shows that

$$a_1 = \frac{1}{1} = 1, \quad a_2 = \frac{1}{2}, \quad a_3 = \frac{1}{3}, \quad a_4 = \frac{1}{4}, \quad a_5 = \frac{1}{5}, \quad \dots, \quad a_{100} = \frac{1}{100}, \quad \dots$$

It is as if these values are approaching 0, so it seems reasonable to say that for this sequence,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$ . The next definition gives meaning to this idea—the limit of a sequence.

**Definition** *Limit of a Sequence*

Let  $a_n$  be defined for all natural numbers greater than or equal to some number  $N$ . We say that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$  if for each  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is a corresponding natural number  $M$  such that

$$n > M \Rightarrow |a_n - L| < \epsilon$$

Notice that this definition is not a definition of the limit of  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$ . The only difference is that now we are equating this limit sequence to the limit, which is a natural number. As we might expect, the Major and Minor Theorems 1A and 1B hold for sequences.

**EXAMPLE 4** Find  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt{\frac{n+1}{n+2}}$ .

**SOLUTION** Figure 5 shows a graph of  $a_n = \sqrt{\frac{n+1}{n+2}}$ . Applying Theorem 1A gives

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt{\frac{n+1}{n+2}} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt{\frac{n+1}{n+2}} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt{\frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{n+2}}} = \sqrt{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{n+2}}} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{1+0}} = 1$$

We will need the concept of the limit of a sequence in Section 1.7 and in Chapter 4. Sequences are covered more thoroughly in Chapter 9.

**EXAMPLE 5** Consider the function  $y = \frac{1}{x-2}$ , which is graphed in Figure 6. As  $x$  gets close to 2 from the left, the function values decrease without bound. Similarly, as  $x$  approaches 2 from the right, the function values increase without bound. It therefore makes no sense to talk about  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{1}{x-2}$ , but we think it is reasonable to write

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2^-} \frac{1}{x-2} = -\infty \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 2^+} \frac{1}{x-2} = \infty$$

Here is the precise definition.

**Definition** *Infinite Limit*

We say that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = \infty$  for every positive number  $M$  there exists a corresponding  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$0 < x - c < \delta \Rightarrow f(x) > M$$

In other words,  $f(x)$  can be made as large as we wish, greater than any  $M$  that we choose, by taking  $x$  to be sufficiently close to  $b$  (or by the right of  $b$ ). There are three special cases of this:

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{x \rightarrow b^-} f(x) = +\infty, \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow b^+} f(x) = +\infty, \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow b} f(x) = +\infty \\ \lim_{x \rightarrow b^-} f(x) = -\infty, \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow b^+} f(x) = -\infty, \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow b} f(x) = -\infty\end{aligned}$$

(See Problems 51 and 52.)

**EXAMPLE 5** Find  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x-1}$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{1}{x-1}$ .

**SOLUTION** The graph of  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x-1}$  is shown in Figure 7. As  $x \rightarrow 0$ , the denominator of  $f(x)$  approaches zero, while the numerator approaches 1. Thus, the value  $1/(x-1)$  can be made arbitrarily large by restricting  $x$  to be near, but to the right of, 1. Similarly, as  $x \rightarrow 1$ , the denominator is near zero, and the value can be made arbitrarily close to  $-\infty$  by restricting  $x$  to be near, but to the left of, 1. We therefore conclude that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{1}{x-1} = +\infty \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} \frac{1}{x-1} = -\infty$$

Since both limits are  $-\infty$ , we could also write

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} \frac{1}{x-1} = -\infty$$

**EXAMPLE 6** Find  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{x-1}{x^2-4}$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{1}{x^2-4}$ .

**SOLUTION**

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{x-1}{x^2-4} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{x-1}{(x-2)(x+2)}$$

As  $x \rightarrow 2$ , we see that  $x-1 \rightarrow x-2+1 \rightarrow 0+1=1$  and  $x+2 \rightarrow 4$ ; thus, the numerator approaches a nonzero value, the denominator approaches zero, and we have an undefined form. We conclude that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{x-1}{x^2-4} = \infty$$

As we saw in Section 2.5, an asymptote was discussed briefly. Section 2.5 began with the concept of a vertical asymptote. The line  $x = a$  is a **vertical asymptote** if the graph of  $y = f(x)$  and any of the following four statements is true:

1.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = \infty$       2.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = \infty$
3.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = -\infty$       4.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = -\infty$

Thus, if  $f$  has a vertical asymptote at  $x = a$ , then the function  $f$  becomes arbitrarily large (or small) as  $x$  approaches  $a$  from either side. In a similar vein, the line  $y = b$  is a **horizontal asymptote** of the graph of  $f$  if either

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = b \quad \text{or} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} f(x) = b$$

The line  $y = 0$  is a horizontal asymptote in both Figures 6 and 7.

**EXAMPLE 7** Find the vertical and horizontal asymptotes of the graph of  $f(x)$  if

$$f(x) = \frac{x^2}{x^2-1}$$



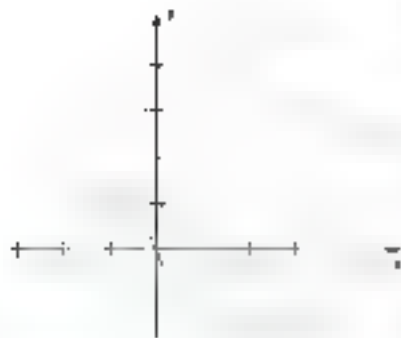
FIGURE 7

Does this mean any sequence of real numbers  $x$  approaching  $a$  from the right must make  $f(x)$  arbitrarily large?

**ANSWER** No. It only means that if  $x$  is sufficiently close to  $a$  from the right, then  $f(x)$  is arbitrarily large.

Does it follow that if  $x$  is sufficiently close to  $a$  from the left, then  $f(x)$  is arbitrarily small? No. It only means that if  $x$  is sufficiently close to  $a$  from the left, then  $f(x)$  is arbitrarily close to  $-\infty$ .

Does it follow that if  $x$  is sufficiently close to  $a$  from the left, then  $f(x)$  is arbitrarily close to  $-\infty$ ? No. It only means that if  $x$  is sufficiently close to  $a$  from the left, then  $f(x)$  is arbitrarily close to  $-\infty$ .



**SOME EXAMPLES** We often have a vertical asymptote at a point where the denominator is zero, and in this case we do because

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} \frac{1}{x-1} = -\infty \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} \frac{1}{x-1} = \infty.$$

On the other hand

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} \frac{1}{x-1} = \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} \frac{1}{x} = 0 \quad \text{if } x = 2 \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x-1} = 0$$

and so  $y = 7$  is a horizontal asymptote. The graph of  $f(x) = 7 + \frac{1}{x-1}$  is shown in Figure 18.

## Concepts and Vocabulary

1. To say that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = L$  means that  $f(x)$  is close to  $L$  if  $x$  is large. Give your answer in informal language.

2. To say that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} f(x) = L$  means that  $f(x)$  is close to  $L$  if  $x$  is large. Give your answer in informal language.

3. To say that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = \infty$  means that  $f(x)$  is large if  $x$  is large.

4. To say that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} f(x) = \infty$  means that  $f(x)$  is large if  $x$  is large.

## Problem Set 1.5

In Problems 1–46, find the limits.

1.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x}$

2.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} \frac{1}{x}$

3.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x^2}$

4.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} \frac{1}{x^2}$

5.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x^3}$

6.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} \frac{1}{x^3}$

7.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x^4}$

8.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} \frac{1}{x^4}$

9.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x^5}$

10.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} \frac{1}{x^5}$

11.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x^6}$

12.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} \frac{1}{x^6}$

13.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x^7}$

14.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} \frac{1}{x^7}$

15.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x^8}$

16.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} \frac{1}{x^8}$

17.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x^9}$

18.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} \frac{1}{x^9}$

19.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x^{10}}$  *Hint: Use the power rule for derivatives.*

20.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x^{11}}$

21.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x^{12}}$

22.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} (\sqrt{1x^2 + 3} - \sqrt{1x^2 - 5})$ . *Hint: Multiply and divide by  $\sqrt{1x^2 + 3} + \sqrt{1x^2 - 5}$ .*

23.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} (\sqrt{x^2 + 2x} - x)$

24.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^2 - 1}{2x + 2}$ . *Hint: Divide numerator and denominator by  $x$ .*

25.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_1 x^2 + a_2 x + a_3}{b_1 x^2 + b_2 x + b_3}$  where  $a_1 \neq 0$ ,  $b_1 \neq 0$ , and  $a, b$  are real numbers.

26.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x}$

27.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x^2}$

28.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x^3}$

29.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x^4}$

30.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x^5}$

31.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x^6}$

32.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x^7}$

33.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x^8}$

34.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x^9}$

35.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x^{10}}$

36.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x^{11}}$

37.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x^{12}}$

38.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x^{13}}$

39.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x^{14}}$

39.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x}$

40.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x^2}$

41.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos x}{\sin x}$

42.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x}$

**Now Work** Problems 43–48. Find the horizontal and vertical asymptotes for the graphs of the functions. Then sketch these graphs.

43.  $y = \frac{1}{x-2}$

44.  $y = \frac{1}{x+1}$

45.  $y = \frac{1}{x^2+1}$

46.  $y = \frac{1}{x^2-1}$

47.  $y = \frac{1}{x^2+4}$

48.  $y = \frac{1}{x^2-4}$

**49.** The line  $y = mx + b$  is called an **oblique asymptote** to the graph of  $y = f(x)$  if either  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} [f(x) - (mx + b)] = 0$  or  $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} [f(x) - (mx + b)] = 0$ . Find the oblique asymptote for

$$f(x) = \frac{2x^2 - 3x - 2}{x - 1}$$

**Hint:** Begin by dividing the denominator into the numerator.

**50.** Find the oblique asymptote of

$$f(x) = \frac{3x^2 - x - 2}{x^2 - 1}$$

**51.** Using the symbols  $\infty$  and  $\infty$ , give precise definitions of each expression.

(a)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = -\infty$  (b)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f'(x) = \infty$

**52.** Using the symbols  $\infty$  and  $\infty$ , give precise definitions of each expression.

(a)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = \infty$  (b)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f'(x) = \infty$

**53.** Give a rigorous proof that if  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = A$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = B$ , then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} [f(x) + g(x)] = A + B$$

**54.** We have given meaning to  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$  for  $A = \infty$  or  $A = -\infty$ . Moreover, in each case, this limit may be  $\infty$ ,  $-\infty$ , or may fail to exist in any sense. Make a table illustrating each of the 21 possible cases.

**55.** Plot each of the following limits or indicate that it does not exist even in the infinite sense.

(a)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \sin x$  (b)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \sin \frac{1}{x}$

49.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x}$

50.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x^2}$

51.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos x}{\sin x}$

52.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x}$

53.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \sin \left( \frac{1}{x} \right)$

54.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \sin \left( \frac{1}{x^2} \right)$

**56.** Einstein's Special Theory of Relativity says that the mass  $m(v)$  of an object is related to its velocity  $v$  by

$$m(v) = \frac{m_0}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}}$$

Here  $m_0$  is the rest mass and  $c$  is the velocity of light. What is  $\lim_{v \rightarrow c} m(v)$ ?

**Now Work** Problems 57–64. Use a computer or a graphing calculator to find the limits in Problems 57–64. Begin by plotting the function in an appropriate window.

57.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x}$

58.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x^2}$

59.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos x}{\sin x}$

60.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x}$

61.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \sin \left( \frac{1}{x} \right)$

62.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \sin \left( \frac{1}{x^2} \right)$

63.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \sin \left( \frac{1}{x^3} \right)$

64.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \sin \left( \frac{1}{x^4} \right)$

**Now Work** Problems 65–71. Find the one-sided limits in Problems 65–71. Begin by plotting the function in an appropriate window. Your calculator may indicate that some of these limits do not exist. In such cases, be able to interpret the answer as either  $\infty$  or  $-\infty$ .

65.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x}$

66.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x^2}$

67.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos x}{\sin x}$

68.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x}$

69.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \sin \left( \frac{1}{x} \right)$

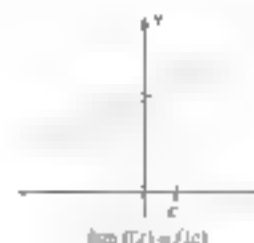
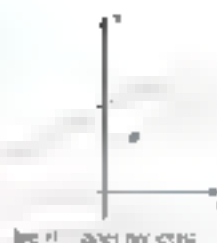
70.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \sin \left( \frac{1}{x^2} \right)$

71.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \sin \left( \frac{1}{x^3} \right)$

## Continuity of Functions

In mathematics and science we use the word **continuous** to describe a process that goes on without abrupt changes. In our experience leads us to assume that, by and large, the feature of many natural processes is a continuous evolution. The functions that we now want to make precise in the third graphs shown in Figure 1, only the first graph exhibits continuity at  $a$ . In the other two graphs either the limit does not exist or it exists but does not equal  $f(a)$ . Only in the third graph does  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)$ .

A good example of a discontinuous function is the postage function, which is 0.05 when the postage is less than \$1.00 and 0.06 when it is \$1.00 or more.



Here is the formal definition.

### Definition

Let  $f$  be defined on an open interval around  $c$ . We say that  $f$  is **continuous** at  $c$  if

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = f(c)$$

We mean by this definition to require three things:

1.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x)$  exists.
2.  $f(c)$  exists (i.e.,  $c$  is in the domain of  $f$ ) and
3.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = f(c)$ .

If any one of these does not hold, then  $f$  is **discontinuous** at  $c$ . Since the function is continuous at  $c$ , the first and second graphs of Figure 1 are discontinuous at  $c$ . They do appear, however, to be continuous at other points of their domain.

**EXAMPLE 1** Let  $f(x) = \frac{x^2 - 4}{x - 2}$ . How should  $f$  be defined at  $x = 2$  in order to make it continuous there?

### SOLUTION

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{x^2 - 4}{x - 2} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{(x - 2)(x + 2)}{x - 2} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} (x + 2) = 4$$

Therefore we define  $f(2) = 4$ . The graph of the resulting function is shown in Figure 2. In fact, we see that  $f(x) = x + 2$  for all  $x$ .

A point of discontinuity is **good** **removable** if the function can be defined or redefined so as to make the function continuous. Otherwise, the point of discontinuity is called **nonremovable**. The function  $f$  in Example 1 has a removable discontinuity at 2 because we could define  $f(2) = 4$  and the function would be continuous there.

**THEOREM 1** Let  $f(x) = \frac{p(x)}{q(x)}$ , where  $p$  and  $q$  are polynomials. Most functions that we will meet in this book are either continuous everywhere or continuous everywhere except at a few points, in particular Theorem 1B implies the following:

### Theorem 1B Continuity of Polynomial and Rational Functions

A polynomial function is continuous at every real number  $c$ . A rational function is continuous at every real number  $c$  in its domain (that is, everywhere except where its denominator is zero).





Recall the absolute value function  $y = |x|$ . Its graph is shown in Figure 3.4. For  $x < 0$ ,  $f(x) = -x$ , a polynomial; for  $x \geq 0$ ,  $f(x)$  is the polynomial. Thus,  $f$  is continuous at all numbers different from 0 by Theorem 1.4.4.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} |x| = 0 = |0|$$

(see Problem 27 of Section 1.2). Therefore,  $f(x)$  is also continuous at 0;  $f$  is continuous everywhere.

By the Max Limit Theorem (Theorem 1.3A),

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \sqrt[n]{f(x)} = \sqrt[n]{\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x)} = \sqrt[n]{f(c)}$$

provided  $n > 0$  when  $n$  is even. This means that  $f(x) = \sqrt[n]{x}$  is continuous at each point where it makes sense. (A talk about continuity is not meant to say  $f$  is continuous at each real number  $c > 0$  (Figure 4). We summarize.

### Theorem 1.4.5 Continuity of Absolute Value and $n$ th Root Functions

The absolute value function is continuous at every real number  $c$ . If  $n$  is odd, the  $n$ th root function is continuous at every real number; if  $n$  is even, the  $n$ th root function is continuous at every positive real number  $c$ .

For example,  $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$  is continuous at every positive real number  $c$ . The function  $f(x) = \sqrt[n]{x}$  is continuous at every positive real number  $c$ . Yes,  $f$  is continuous at the origin  $(0, 0)$ . In addition, if  $f$  and  $g$  are functions,  $k$  is a constant, and  $n$  is a positive integer,

### Theorem 1.4.6 Continuity under Function Operations

If  $f$  and  $g$  are continuous at  $c$ , then so are  $k(f + g)$ ,  $f + g$ ,  $f - g$ ,  $f \cdot g$  (provided that  $g(c) \neq 0$ ),  $f^n$  and  $\sqrt[n]{f}$  (provided that  $f(c) > 0$  if  $n$  is even).

**Proof** All these results are easy consequences of the  $\epsilon$ - $\delta$  definition, which we sketch in the next section. As an example, let us verify that if  $f$  and  $g$  are continuous at  $c$ , gives

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} [f(x) + g(x)] = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) + \lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x) = f(c) + g(c).$$

This is precisely what it means to say that  $f + g$  is continuous at  $c$ . ■

**EXAMPLE 1** At what numbers is  $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$  continuous?

**SOLUTION** We need not even consider nonpositive  $x$  to be a value  $f$  is not defined at any number. For any positive number  $c$ , and only  $x = c$  and  $x = c$  are all continuous (Theorems 1.4 and 1.4.6). It follows from Theorem 1.4.4 that  $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$  is continuous at  $c$  and  $f$  is continuous at every positive number.

$$\begin{matrix} f(x) & = & \sqrt{x} \\ \lim_{x \rightarrow c} & = & \sqrt{c} \end{matrix}$$

are continuous at each positive number. ■

The continuity of the trigonometric functions follows from Theorem 1.4.4.

### Theorem 1.4.7 Continuity of Trigonometric Functions

The sine and cosine functions are continuous at every real number. The functions  $\tan x$ ,  $\cot x$ ,  $\sec x$ , and  $\csc x$  are continuous at every real number  $c$  in their domain.

**Proof** Theorem 1.4A says that for every real number  $c$  in the function's domain,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \sin x = \sin c$ ,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \cos x = \cos c$ , and so forth, for all six of the trigonometric functions. These are exactly the conditions required for these functions to be continuous at every real number in their respective domains. ■

**EXAMPLE 3** Determine all points of discontinuity of  $f(x) = \frac{\sin x}{x - 1}$ ,  $x \neq 0, 1$ . Classify each point of discontinuity as removable or nonremovable.

**SOLUTION** By Theorem 1, the numerator is continuous at every real number. The denominator is also continuous at every real number, but when  $x = 0$  or  $x = 1$  the denominator is 0. Thus, by Theorem C,  $f$  is continuous at every real number except  $x = 0$  and  $x = 1$ . Since

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x - 1} = \frac{\sin 0}{0 - 1} = \frac{0}{-1} = 0, \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{\sin x}{x - 1} = \frac{\sin 1}{1 - 1} = \frac{\sin 1}{0} = \infty,$$

we could define  $f(0) = 0$  and the function would continue at  $x = 0$ . Thus,  $x = 0$  is a removable discontinuity. Also, since

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} \frac{\sin x}{x - 1} = -\infty \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} \frac{\sin x}{x - 1} = \infty,$$

there is no way to define  $f(1)$  to make  $f$  continuous at  $x = 1$ . Thus,  $x = 1$  is a nonremovable discontinuity. A graph of  $f$  is shown in Figure 5. ■

Thus, we have a tool, a limit and continuity composition rule that will be very important in later work. It, too, preserves continuity.

### Theorem E Composite Limit Theorem

If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x) = L$  and if  $f$  is continuous at  $L$ , then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(g(x)) = f\left(\lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x)\right) = f(L).$$

In particular, if  $g$  is continuous at  $c$  and  $f$  is continuous at  $g(c)$ , then the composite  $f \circ g$  is continuous at  $c$ .

### Proof of Theorem E (Optional)

**Proof** Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given. Since  $f$  is continuous at  $L$ , there is a corresponding  $\delta_1 > 0$  such that

$$|f(u) - f(L)| < \epsilon \quad \text{whenever} \quad |u - L| < \delta_1$$

and so (see Figure 6)

$$|g(x) - L| < \delta_1 \Rightarrow |f(g(x)) - f(L)| < \epsilon.$$

But because  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x) = L$ , for a given  $\delta_1 > 0$  there is a corresponding  $\delta_2 > 0$  such that

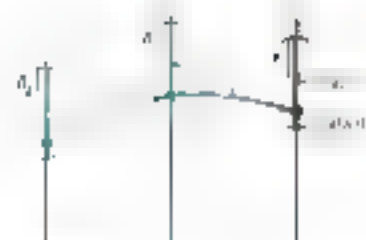
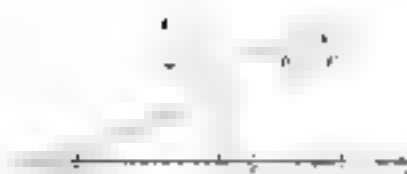
$$|x - c| < \delta_2 \Rightarrow |g(x) - L| < \delta_1.$$

When we put these two facts together, we have

$$0 < |x - c| < \delta_2 \Rightarrow |f(g(x)) - f(L)| < \epsilon.$$

This shows that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(g(x)) = f(L).$$



The second statement in Theorem E follows from the observation that if  $g$  is continuous at  $c$ , then  $f \circ g$  is.

**EXAMPLE 4** Show that  $h(x) = \sqrt{x^3 - 3x + 6}$  is continuous at each real number.

**SOLUTION** Let  $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$  and  $g(x) = x^3 - 3x + 6$ . Both are continuous at each real number, and so their composite

$$h(x) = f(g(x)) = \sqrt{x^3 - 3x + 6}$$

is also.

**EXAMPLE 5** Show that

$$h(x) = \sin \frac{x^3 - 3}{x^2 + 2}$$

is continuous except at  $3$  and  $-2$ .

**SOLUTION**  $x^3 - 3 = (x - 3)(x^2 + 3x + 6)$ . Thus, the rational function

$$g(x) = \frac{x^3 - 3}{x^2 + 2} = \frac{(x - 3)(x^2 + 3x + 6)}{x^2 + 2}$$

is continuous except at  $3$  and  $-2$  (see Fig. 3). We know from Theorem 3 that the sine function is continuous at every  $c$ . A function which is the composition of two continuous functions is continuous. Hence  $h(x) = \sin g(x)$  is continuous except at  $3$  and  $-2$ .

**Definition 1** *Continuity on an interval* So far we have been discussing continuity at a point. We now wish to discuss continuity on an interval. The word “interval” is not sufficient to mean “continuous at each point in that interval,” as we saw in Example 5, which does mean “for an open interval.”

We begin by considering closed intervals  $[a, b]$ . We have a function  $f$  defined on  $[a, b]$  if  $f$  is not only defined to the left of  $a$  (e.g., the segment  $(c - \epsilon, a]$  for  $\epsilon > 0$  and  $c > a$ ), strictly speaking,  $f(a)$  does not exist. We choose  $f$  to be continuous at  $a$  by requiring  $f$  to be continuous on  $(a, b]$  if it is continuous at each point in  $(a, b]$  and if  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = f(a)$ , with  $a < x < b$ . We summarize this in the definition.

### Definition 1 continuity on an interval

The function  $f$  is **right continuous** at  $a$  if  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = f(a)$  and **left continuous** at  $b$  if  $\lim_{x \rightarrow b^-} f(x) = f(b)$ .

We say  $f$  is **continuous on an open interval** if it is continuous at each point of the interval.  $f$  is **continuous on the closed interval**  $[a, b]$  if  $f$  is continuous on  $(a, b)$ , right continuous at  $a$ , and left continuous at  $b$ .

For example, it is correct to say that  $f(x) = 1/x$  is continuous on  $(0, \infty)$  and that  $g(x) = \sqrt{x}$  is continuous on  $[0, \infty)$ .

**EXAMPLE 6** Use the definition above to describe the continuity properties of the function whose graph is sketched in Figure 7.

**SOLUTION** The function appears to be continuous on the open intervals  $(-\infty, 0)$ ,  $(0, 3)$ , and  $(5, \infty)$ , and also on the closed interval  $[3, 5]$ .

**EXAMPLE 7** What is the largest interval over which the function defined by  $g(x) = \sqrt{x + 1} - x$  is continuous?

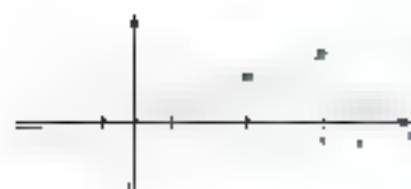


FIGURE 7

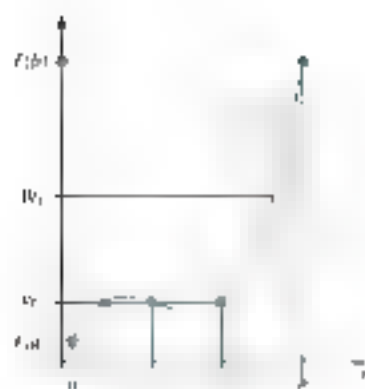


Figure 8

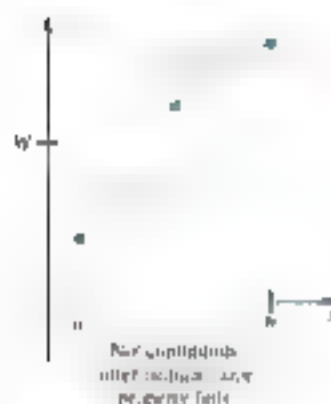


Figure 9

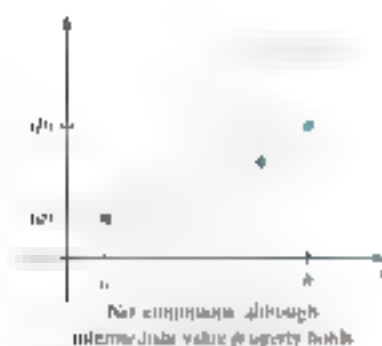


Figure 10

**Sketch 11.15** The domain of  $g$  is the interval  $[-2, 2]$ . To see if the function is on  $[-2, 2]$ , then  $g$  is continuous at  $c$  by Theorem E; hence  $g$  is continuous on  $[-2, 2]$ . The one-sided limits are

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow -2^+} \sqrt{4 - x^2} = \sqrt{4 - (-2)^2} = \sqrt{4 - 4} = 0 = g(-2)$$

and

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2^-} \sqrt{4 - x^2} = \sqrt{4 - 2^2} = \sqrt{4 - 4} = 0 = g(2)$$

This implies that  $g$  is right continuous at  $-2$  and left continuous at  $2$ . Thus,  $g$  is continuous on its domain, the closed interval  $[-2, 2]$ .

In value  $x$  can be chosen as close as we wish to  $a$  as we wish, the  $g$  applied to  $x$  should have no jumps, so we should be able to “draw” the graph of  $f$  from the point  $a$  (that is, the point  $(a, f(a))$ ) without lifting a pencil. In a paper book, the book that  $f$  should use for every  $x$  in the domain of  $f$  and  $y$  in the range of  $f$  is stated more precisely in Theorem F.

### Theorem F Intermediate Value Theorem

Let  $f$  be a function defined on  $[a, b]$  and let  $W$  be a number between  $f(a)$  and  $f(b)$ . If  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$ , then there is at least one number  $c$  between  $a$  and  $b$  such that  $f(c) = W$ .

Figure 9 shows the graph of a function  $f$  that does not satisfy the hypotheses of the Intermediate Value Theorem. For every  $W$  in the interval  $(0, W)$ , the function  $f$  is not continuous on  $[a, b]$ . In other words, there is no value  $c$  between  $a$  and  $b$  such that  $f(c) = W$ . Figure 10 shows an example of such a function. That is, we show that continuity is satisfied but the Intermediate Value property fails.

The converse of this theorem, which is not true in general, says that if  $f$  takes on every value between  $f(a)$  and  $f(b)$ , then  $f$  is continuous. Figures 8 and 10 show functions that take on all values between  $f(a)$  and  $f(b)$  but the function in Figure 10 is not continuous on  $[a, b]$ . Just because a function has the intermediate value property does not mean that it must be continuous.

The Intermediate Value Theorem can be used to show that some things are the solutions of equations, as the next example shows.

**EXAMPLE 11.16** Use the Intermediate Value Theorem to show that the equation  $x = \cos x = 0$  has a solution between  $x = 0$  and  $x = \pi/2$ .

**SOLUTION** Let  $f(x) = x - \cos x$ , and let  $W = 0$ . Then  $f(0) = 0 - \cos 0 = -1$  and  $f(\pi/2) = \pi/2 - \cos \pi/2 = \pi/2$ . Since  $f$  is continuous on  $[0, \pi/2]$  and since  $W = 0$  is between  $f(0)$  and  $f(\pi/2)$ , the Intermediate Value Theorem implies the existence of a  $c$  in the interval  $(0, \pi/2)$  with the property that  $f(c) = 0$ . Such a  $c$  is a solution to the equation  $x = \cos x = 0$ . Figure 11 suggests that there is exactly one such  $c$ .

We can go one step farther. The midpoint of the interval  $(0, \pi/2)$  is the point  $c = \pi/4$ . When we evaluate  $f(\pi/4)$ , we get

$$f(\pi/4) = \pi/4 - \cos \pi/4 = \pi/4 - \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \approx 0.0782914$$

which is greater than 0. Thus,  $f(0) = -1$  and  $f(\pi/4) > 0$ . Another application of the Intermediate Value Theorem tells us that there exists a  $c$  between 0 and  $\pi/4$  such that  $f(c) = 0$ . We have thus narrowed down the interval containing the

described a term  $\delta < \epsilon$  as  $\delta = \delta(\epsilon)$ . There is nothing stopping us from selecting the midpoint of  $(0, \delta)$  and evaluating  $f$  at that point, thereby narrowing  $\epsilon$  even further to the interval containing  $\delta$ . This process can be continued indefinitely, and we can get that  $\epsilon$  is in a sufficiently small interval. This method of finding  $\delta$  as a solution is called the *epsilon-delta method*, and we will study it further in Section 7.

The Intermediate Value Theorem can also lead to some surprising results.

**EXAMPLE 1** Use the Intermediate Value Theorem to show that on a continuous day there is at least one point's approximate temperature with the same temperature.

**SOLUTION** Choose estimates for this problem so that the circle of the ring is horizontal, and let  $r$  be the radius of the ring (see Figure 1). Define  $T(\theta)$  to be the temperature at the point  $(r \cos \theta, r \sin \theta)$  on the circle. The temperature takes on all values with the values with the interval  $[0, 2\pi]$  be the complete difference between the points that make angles of  $\theta$  and  $\theta + \pi$  that is,

$$T(\theta) = T(r \cos \theta, r \sin \theta) = T(r \cos(\theta + \pi), r \sin(\theta + \pi)).$$

With this definition

$$f(0) = T(r, 0) = T(-r, 0)$$

$$f(\pi) = T(-r, 0) = T(r, 0) = -[T(r, 0) - T(-r, 0)] = -f(0).$$

Thus either  $f(0) = 0$  or  $f(\pi) = 0$  are both zero, or one is positive and the other is negative. If both are  $\neq 0$ , then we have found two points on the circle where we can apply the Intermediate Value Theorem. Assuming the temperature varies continuously, we conclude that there exists  $c$  between 0 and  $\pi$  such that  $f(c) = 0$ . Thus, for this, we have at the angles  $c$  and  $c + \pi$ , the temperature is the same.

## Concepts Review

1. A function  $f$  is continuous at  $c \in \mathbb{R}$  if  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = f(c)$ .
2. The function  $f(x) = x$  is discontinuous at \_\_\_\_\_.
3. A function  $f$  is said to be continuous on a closed interval  $[a, b]$  if  $f$  is continuous at every point of  $(a, b)$  and if \_\_\_\_\_ and \_\_\_\_\_.
4. The Intermediate Value Theorem says that if a function  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and  $M$  is a number between  $f(a)$  and  $f(b)$ , then there is a number  $c$  between \_\_\_\_\_ and \_\_\_\_\_ such that \_\_\_\_\_.

## Problem Set 1.6

In Problems 1–15, state whether the indicated function is continuous.

On an interval  $(a, b)$ , a function is continuous if it is

1.  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$  on  $(-1, 1)$
2.  $g(x) = x^2 + 1$  on  $(-1, 1)$
3.  $h(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x < 0 \\ x + 1 & \text{if } x \geq 0 \end{cases}$
4.  $q(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x < 1 \\ x - 1 & \text{if } x \geq 1 \end{cases}$
5.  $h(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x < 1 \\ x + 1 & \text{if } x \geq 1 \end{cases}$
6.  $h(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x < 1 \\ x + 1 & \text{if } x \geq 1 \end{cases}$
7.  $f(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x < 1 \\ x + 1 & \text{if } x \geq 1 \end{cases}$
8.  $g(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x < 1 \\ x + 1 & \text{if } x \geq 1 \end{cases}$
9.  $h(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x < 1 \\ x + 1 & \text{if } x \geq 1 \end{cases}$
10.  $f(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x < 1 \\ x + 1 & \text{if } x \geq 1 \end{cases}$
11.  $f(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x < 1 \\ x + 1 & \text{if } x \geq 1 \end{cases}$

12.  $f(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x < 1 \\ x + 1 & \text{if } x \geq 1 \end{cases}$
13.  $f(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x < 1 \\ x + 1 & \text{if } x \geq 1 \end{cases}$
14.  $f(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x < 1 \\ x + 1 & \text{if } x \geq 1 \end{cases}$
15.  $f(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x < 1 \\ x + 1 & \text{if } x \geq 1 \end{cases}$

16. From the graph of  $g$  (see Figure 1), indicate the values where  $g$  is discontinuous. For each of these values state whether  $g$  is continuous from the right, left, or neither.

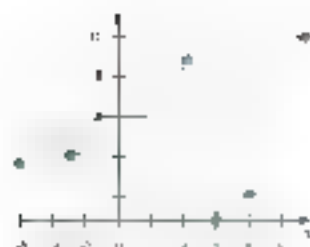


Figure 13

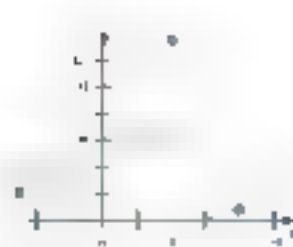


Figure 14

17. From the graph of  $f$  given in Figure 1.4, indicate the intervals in which  $f$  is continuous.

In Problems 18–23, the given function is not defined at a certain point. How should it be defined in order to make it continuous at that point? See Example 1.

18.  $f(x) = \frac{x^2 - 4}{x - 2}$       19.  $f(x) = \frac{x^2 - 9}{x - 3}$   
 20.  $f(x) = \frac{\sin x}{x}$       21.  $f(x) = \frac{x^2 - 1}{x - 1}$   
 22.  $f(x) = \frac{x^2 - 1}{x + 1}$       23.  $f(x) = \frac{x^2 - 1}{x - 1}$

In Problems 24–25, at what points, if any, are the functions discontinuous?

24.  $f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 & \text{if } x \leq 0 \\ x + 1 & \text{if } x > 0 \end{cases}$   
 25.  $f(x) = \frac{x^2 - 1}{x^2 + 1}$   
 26.  $f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 & \text{if } x \leq 0 \\ x + 1 & \text{if } x > 0 \end{cases}$   
 27.  $f(x) = \frac{x^2 - 1}{x^2 + 1}$   
 28.  $f(x) = \frac{x^2 - 1}{x^2 + 1}$   
 29.  $f(x) = \frac{x^2 - 1}{x^2 + 1}$   
 30.  $f(x) = \frac{x^2 - 1}{x^2 + 1}$   
 31.  $f(x) = \frac{x^2 - 1}{x^2 + 1}$   
 32.  $f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 & \text{if } x \leq 0 \\ x + 1 & \text{if } x > 0 \end{cases}$   
 33.  $f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 & \text{if } x \leq 0 \\ x + 1 & \text{if } x > 0 \end{cases}$   
 34.  $f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 & \text{if } x \leq 0 \\ x + 1 & \text{if } x > 0 \end{cases}$   
 35.  $f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 & \text{if } x \leq 0 \\ x + 1 & \text{if } x > 0 \end{cases}$

36. Sketch the graph of a function  $f$  that satisfies all the following conditions.

- (a) It is continuous on  $[-1, 1]$  and discontinuous on  $(1, 2]$ .  
 (b) It is discontinuous at  $x = 1$  and continuous at  $x = 2$ .  
 (c) It is discontinuous at  $x = 1$  and continuous at  $x = 2$ .  
 (d) It is right continuous at  $x = 1$  and left continuous at  $x = 2$ .

37. Sketch the graph of a function that has domain  $[0, \infty)$  and is continuous on  $[0, 2)$  but not on  $[2, 3]$ .

38. Sketch the graph of a function that has domain  $[0, 6]$  and is continuous on  $[0, 2]$  and  $[2, 6]$  but is not continuous on  $[0, 6]$ .

39. Sketch the graph of a function that has domain  $[0, 6]$  and is continuous on  $(0, 6)$  but not on  $[0, 6]$ .

## 1.4

If  $x$  is rational,  $f(x) = 0$   
 If  $x$  is irrational,  $f(x) = 1$

Sketch the graph of this function as best you can and decide whether it is continuous.

In Problems 40–45, determine whether the function is continuous at the given point  $c$ . If the function is not continuous, determine whether the discontinuity is removable or nonremovable.

40.  $f(x) = \sin x, c = 0$       41.  $f(x) = \frac{x^2 - 1}{x - 1}, c = 1$   
 42.  $f(x) = \frac{x^2 - 4}{x - 2}, c = 2$       43.  $f(x) = \frac{x^2 - 9}{x - 3}, c = 3$   
 44.  $f(x) = \frac{x^2 - 1}{x - 1}, c = 1$   
 45.  $f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 & \text{if } x \leq 0 \\ x + 1 & \text{if } x > 0 \end{cases}, c = 0$   
 46.  $f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 & \text{if } x \leq 0 \\ x + 1 & \text{if } x > 0 \end{cases}, c = 1$   
 47.  $f(x) = \sin x, c = \pi$       48.  $f(x) = \frac{x^2 - 1}{x - 1}, c = 1$

49. A cell phone company charges \$0.15 per minute for a cell phone call. If a call lasts 3 minutes and 3 seconds costs \$0.23 (3 × \$0.15). Sketch a graph of the cost of making a call as a function of the length of time  $t$  that the call lasts. Discuss the continuity of this function.

50. A rental car company charges \$20 per day, allowing up to 100 miles. For each additional 100 miles or any portion thereof the company charges \$5. Sketch a graph of the cost for renting a car for one day as a function of the miles driven. Discuss the continuity of this function.

51. A cab company charges \$2.00 for the first  $\frac{1}{2}$  mile and \$1.20 for each additional  $\frac{1}{2}$  mile. Sketch a graph of the cost as a function of the number of miles driven. Discuss the continuity of this function.

52. Use the Intermediate Value Theorem to prove that  $f(x) = x^2 - 6x + 3$  has a root between 0 and 1.

53. Use the Intermediate Value Theorem to prove that  $f(x) = x^2 - 6x + 3$  has a root between 1 and 2.

54. Use the Intermediate Value Theorem to show that  $f(x) = x^3 - 7x^2 + 14x - 8$  has at least one solution in the interval  $[0, 5]$ . Sketch the graph of  $y = x^3 - 7x^2 + 14x - 8$  over  $[0, 5]$ . How many solutions does this equation really have?

55. Use the Intermediate Value Theorem to show that  $f(x) = x^3 - 6x^2 + 9x - 4$  has a solution between 0 and 2. Graph  $f(x)$  on the graph of  $y = x^3 - 6x^2 + 9x - 4$  to find an interval having length that contains the solution.

56. Show that the equation  $x^2 - 4x + 4 = 0$  has at least one real solution.

57. Prove that  $f$  is continuous at  $c$  if and only if  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = f(c)$ .

58. Prove that if  $f$  is continuous at  $c$  and  $f(c) > 0$  there is an interval  $(c - \delta, c + \delta)$  such that  $f(x) > 0$  on this interval.

59. Prove that if  $f$  is continuous on  $[0, 1]$  and satisfies  $0 < f(x) < 1$  there, then  $f$  has a fixed point, that is, there is a number  $c$  in  $(0, 1)$  such that  $f(c) = c$ . Hint: Apply the Intermediate Value Theorem to  $g(x) = x - f(x)$ .

60. Find the values of  $a$  and  $b$  so that the following function is continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$ , where

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x + 1 & \text{if } x < 1 \\ ax^2 + b & \text{if } 1 \leq x < 2 \\ 3x & \text{if } x \geq 2 \end{cases}$$

61. A stretched elastic string covers the interval  $[0, 1]$ . The ends are released and the string contracts so that it covers the interval  $[a, b]$ ,  $a \leq 0$ ,  $b \leq 1$ . Prove that this results in at least one point of the string being where it was originally. See Problem 10.59.

62. Let  $f$  be a function on  $[a, b]$  and let  $x^*$  be

the Infimum Value Theorem only the existence of a number between  $f(a)$  and  $f(b)$  such that  $f(x^*) = k$  is an

63. Starting at 4:30 a hiker goes uphill at the top of a mountain, getting to noon. The next day, he returned along the same path, starting at 9:30 and getting to the bottom at 3:30. Show that at some point along the path his watch showed the same time on both days.

64. Let  $D$  be a bounded but otherwise arbitrary region in the first quadrant. Given an angle  $\theta$ ,  $0 \leq \theta \leq \pi/2$ ,  $D$  can be circumscribed by a rectangle whose base makes angle  $\theta$  with the  $x$ -axis as shown in Figure 15. Prove that at some angle the rectangle is a square. (This means that any bounded region can be circumscribed by a square.)

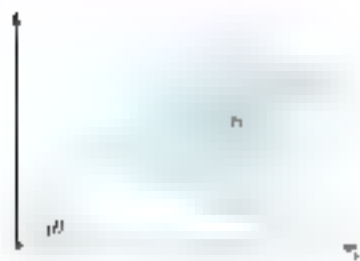


Figure 15

65. The gravitational force exerted by the earth on an object having mass  $m$  that is a distance  $r$  from the center of the earth is

$$g(r) = \begin{cases} \frac{GMm}{R^2}, & \text{if } r < R \\ \frac{GMm}{r^2}, & \text{if } r \geq R \end{cases}$$

Here  $G$  is the gravitational constant,  $M$  is the mass of the earth and  $R$  is the earth's radius. Is  $g$  a continuous function of  $r$ ?

66. Suppose that  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and it is never zero there. Is it possible that  $f$  changes sign on  $[a, b]$ ? Explain.

67. Let  $f(x) = |x| = f_1(x) + f_2(x)$  for all  $x$  and prove separately that  $f_1$  is continuous at  $x = 0$ .

(a) Prove that  $f_1$  is continuous everywhere.

(b) Prove that there is a constant  $m$  such that  $f_2(x) = mx$  for all  $x$  (see Problem 43 of Section 1.5).

68. Prove that if  $f(x)$  is a continuous function on an interval then so is the function  $f(x) = \sqrt[n]{f(x)}$ .

69. Show that if  $g(x) = f^{-1}(x)$  is continuous it is not necessarily true that  $f(x)$  is continuous.

70. Let  $f(x) = 0$  if  $x$  is irrational and let  $f(x) = \frac{1}{q}$  if  $x = \frac{p}{q}$  is the rational number  $p/q$  in reduced form ( $q > 0$ ).

(a) Sketch (as best you can) the graph of  $f$  on  $(0, 1)$ .

(b) Show that  $f$  is continuous at each irrational number in  $[0, 1]$  but is discontinuous at each rational number in  $[0, 1]$ .

71. A thin equilateral triangular block of side length 1 unit lies at rest in the vertical  $xy$ -plane with a vertex  $V$  at the origin. Under the influence of gravity it will rotate about  $V$  until it slides into the  $x$ -axis (see Figure 16). Let  $x$  denote the actual  $x$ -coordinate of the midpoint  $M$  of the side opposite  $V$  and let  $f(x)$  denote the final  $x$ -coordinate of this point. Assume that the block translates when  $M$  is directly above  $V$ .

(a) Determine the domain and range of  $f$ .

(b) Where on this domain is  $f$  discontinuous?

(c) Identify any fixed points of  $f$  (see Problem 59).

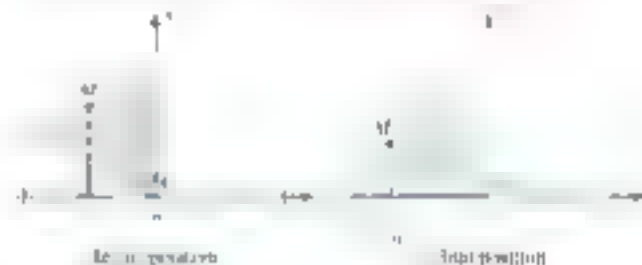


Figure 16

Answers to Concepts Review 1. (a)  $f(4)$ ; 2. every integer

3.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)$ ; 4.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} f(x) = f(2)$

5. at  $b$ ;  $f(b) = 0$

## 1.7 Chapter Review

### Concepts Test

Respond with true or false to each of the following assertions. Be prepared to justify your answer.

1. If  $h(x) = f$ , then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f$ .

2. If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$ , then  $f(a) = L$ .

3. If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x)$  exists, then  $f(c)$  exists.

4. If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = 0$ , then for every  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists a  $\delta > 0$

such that  $0 < |x| < \delta$  implies  $|f(x)| < \epsilon$ .

5. If  $f(x)$  is undefined, then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$  does not exist.

6. The open circles at  $x = 0$  and  $x = 1$  in the graph of  $y = x^2 - 10$

7. If  $p(x)$  is a polynomial, then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} p(x) = p(a)$ .

8.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x}$  does not exist.

9. For every real number  $x$ ,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sin x = \sin x$ .

10. The  $x$  is continuous at every point of its domain.



11. The function  $f(x) = 2 \sin x - \cos x$  is harmonic in every number.

12. If  $f$  is continuous at  $c$  then  $f(c)$  exists.

13. If  $f$  is continuous on the interval  $(-3, 3)$ , then  $f$  is continuous at 0.

14. If  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$ , then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$  exists.

15. If  $f$  is continuous at  $c$  and  $a < b$ , then  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  for all  $x$  between  $a$  and  $b$ .

16. If  $f$  is continuous on  $(a, b)$  then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = f(c)$  for all  $c$  in  $(a, b)$ .

17.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} = 1$

18. If the line  $y = 2$  is a horizontal asymptote of the graph of  $y = f(x)$  then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = 2$ .

19. The graph of  $y = \frac{1}{x}$  has a horizontal asymptote at  $y = 0$ .

20. The graph of  $y = \frac{1}{x^2} - 4$  has two vertical asymptotes.

21.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2x}{x+1} = 2$ .

22. If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = L$  and  $f(c) = L$  then  $f$  is continuous at  $x = c$ .

23. If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = L$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x) = M$  then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} (f(x) + g(x)) = L + M$ .

24. The function  $f(x) = |x/2|$  is continuous at  $x = 0$ .

25.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x} = 0$ . Use the definition of limits to show that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x} = 0$ .

26. If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = L$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x) = M$  then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} (f(x)g(x)) = LM$ .

27. If  $f(x) = 3x^2 + 2x + 1$  for all  $x$ , then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = 1$ .

28. If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = L$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x) = M$  then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} (f(x) - g(x)) = L - M$ .

29. If  $f(x) \neq g(x)$  for all  $x$  then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) \neq \lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x)$ .

30. If  $f(x) < 0$  for all  $x$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = L$  then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} |f(x)| = |L|$ .

31. If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = L$  then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} |f(x)| = |L|$ .

32. If  $f$  is continuous and positive on  $(a, b)$ , then  $f$  must assume every value between  $f(a)$  and  $f(b)$ .

### Sample Test Problems

In Problems 1–10, find the indicated limit or state that it does not exist.

1.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

2.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

3.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

4.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

5.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

6.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

7.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

8.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

9.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

10.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

11.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

12.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

13.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

14.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

15.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

16.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

17.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

18.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

19.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

20.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

21.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

22.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

23.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

24.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

25.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

26.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

27.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

28.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

29.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

30.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

31.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

32.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

33.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

34.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

35.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

36.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

37.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

38.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

39.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

40.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

41.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

42.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

43.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

44.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

45.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

46.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

47.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

48.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

49.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

50.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

51.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

52.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

53.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

54.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

55.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

56.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

57.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

58.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

59.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

60.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

61.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

62.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

63.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

64.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

65.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

66.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

67.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

68.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

69.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

70.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

71.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

72.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

73.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

74.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

75.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

76.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

Find each value.

(a)  $f(1)$

(b)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x)$

(c)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f'(x)$

(d)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x)$

27. Refer to  $f$  of Problem 26. (a) What are the values of  $x$  at which  $f$  is discontinuous? (b) How should  $f$  be defined at  $x = 1$  to make  $f$  continuous there?

28. Give the  $\epsilon$ - $\delta$  definition in each case.

(a)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} g(x) = M$

(b)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = L$

29. If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x) = 3$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} g(x) = 2$  and  $h$  is continuous at  $x = 1$  find each value.

(a)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (2f(x) - 4g(x))$

(b)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} g(x) \frac{x - 1}{x - 3}$

(c)  $g(1)$

(d)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} g(f(x))$

(e)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \sqrt{f(x)} = \sqrt{g(x)}$

(f)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{f(x) - g(x)}{x - 1}$

30. Sketch the graph of a function  $f$  that satisfies all the following conditions.

(a) It is decreasing.

(b)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = 1$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x) = 0$ .

(c)  $f$  is continuous except at  $x = 2$ .

(d)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} f(x) = 1$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} f(x) = 2$ .

31. Let  $f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 & \text{if } x \neq 1 \\ 1 & \text{if } x = 1 \end{cases}$

Determine  $a$  and  $b$  so that  $f$  is continuous everywhere.

32. Use the Intermediate Value Theorem to prove that the equation  $x^3 - 4x^2 - 3x + 1 = 0$  has at least one solution between  $x = 2$  and  $x = 3$ .

In Problems 33–36, find the equations of all vertical and horizontal asymptotes for the given function.

33.  $y = \frac{1}{x^2 - 1}$

34.  $y = \frac{1}{x^2 - 1}$

35.  $y = \frac{1}{x^2 - 1}$

36.  $y = \frac{1}{x^2 - 1}$

37.  $y = \frac{1}{x^2 - 1}$

38.  $y = \frac{1}{x^2 - 1}$

39.  $y = \frac{1}{x^2 - 1}$

40.  $y = \frac{1}{x^2 - 1}$

41.  $y = \frac{1}{x^2 - 1}$

42.  $y = \frac{1}{x^2 - 1}$

43.  $y = \frac{1}{x^2 - 1}$

44.  $y = \frac{1}{x^2 - 1}$

45.  $y = \frac{1}{x^2 - 1}$

46.  $y = \frac{1}{x^2 - 1}$

47.  $y = \frac{1}{x^2 - 1}$

48.  $y = \frac{1}{x^2 - 1}$

49.  $y = \frac{1}{x^2 - 1}$

50.  $y = \frac{1}{x^2 - 1}$

# REVIEW & PREVIEW PROBLEMS

8. Let  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$ . Find and simplify the following:

(a)  $f'(x)$

(b)  $f'(x^2)$

(c)  $f'(x + h)$

(d)  $f'(x + h) - f'(x)$

(e)  $\frac{f'(x + h) - f'(x)}{h}$

(f)  $f'(x)$

(g)  $f'(x^2)$

(h)  $f'(x + h)$

(i)  $f'(x + h) - f'(x)$

(j)  $\frac{f'(x + h) - f'(x)}{h}$

9. Repeat (a) through (h) of Problem 8 for the function  $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ .

10. Repeat (a) through (h) of Problem 8 for the function  $f(x) = \sqrt[3]{x}$ .

11. Repeat (a) through (h) of Problem 8 for the function  $f(x) = x^2 + 1$ .

12. Write the first two terms in the expansions of the following.

(a)  $(a + b)^2$

(b)  $(a + b)^3$

(c)  $(a + b)^4$

13. Based on your results from Problem 8, make a conjecture about the first two terms in the expansion of  $(a + b)^n$  for an arbitrary  $n$ .

14. Use a trigonometric identity to write  $\sin(x + h)$  in terms of  $\sin x$  and  $\cos x$  and  $\sin h$  and  $\cos h$ .

15. Use a trigonometric identity to write  $\cos(x + h)$  in terms of  $\cos x$  and  $\sin x$  and  $\cos h$  and  $\sin h$ .

16. A wheel centered at the origin and of radius 10 centimeters is rotating counterclockwise with angular velocity  $\omega$  (radians per second). A point  $P$  on the rim of the wheel is at position  $(10, 0)$  at time  $t = 0$ .

(a) What are the coordinates of  $P$  at times  $t = 1, 2, 3$ ?

(b) At what time does the point  $P$  first return to the starting position  $(10, 0)$ ?

17. Assume that a soap bubble retains spherical shape as it expands. At time  $t = 0$  the soap bubble has radius  $r_0$  centimeters. At time  $t = 1$  second the radius has increased by  $\Delta r$  centimeters. How much has the volume changed in this 1-second interval?

18. Two airplanes fly in a straight line at constant speed. At 2:00 miles per hour, Airplane A leaves the home airport and flies east, and 10 minutes later, Airplane B leaves the home airport and flies east at 400 miles per hour.

(a) What are the positions of the airplanes at 2:00 p.m.?

(b) What is the distance between the two planes at 2:05 p.m.?

(c) What is the distance between the two planes at 2:15 p.m.?

- 2 Two Problems with One Theme
- 2.1 The Derivative
- 2.2 Rules for Finding Derivatives
- 2.3 Derivatives of Trigonometric Functions
- 2.4 The Chain Rule
- 2.5 Higher-Order Derivatives
- 2.6 Implicit Differentiation
- 2.7 Related Rates
- 2.8 Differentials and Approximations

## 2.1

## Two Problems with One Theme

Our first problem is very old; it dates back to the great Greek scholar Archimedes (287–212 B.C.). We refer to the problem of the *slope of the tangent line*. Our second problem is newer. It grew out of attempts by Kepler (1571–1630), Galileo (1564–1642), Newton (1643–1727), and others to describe the speed of a moving body. It is the problem of *instantaneous velocity*.

The two problems, one geometric and the other mechanical, appear to be quite different. In this case, appearances are deceiving. The two problems are identical in spirit.

**Figure 3** Euclid's definition of a tangent as a line touching a circle at exactly one point is not useful for circles. Figure 4 has a complete and satisfactory definition for most curves (Figure 5). The slope of a tangent line through a point  $P$  on a curve can be approximated by the slope of a secant line through  $P$  and a nearby point  $Q$  on the curve. The concept of limit provides a way of doing the best approximation.

Let  $P$  be a point on a curve and let  $Q$  be a nearby *movable* point on the curve. The line through  $P$  and  $Q$  is called a *secant line*. The tangent line at  $P$  is the limiting position of a secant line as  $Q$  moves toward  $P$  along the curve (Figure 3).

Suppose that the curve is the graph of the equation  $y = f(x)$  and that  $P$  has coordinates  $(c, f(c))$ . Let  $Q$  be a nearby point. If its coordinates are  $(c + h, f(c + h))$  and the secant line through  $P$  and  $Q$  has slope  $m_{\text{sec}}$  given by (Figure 4):

$$m_{\text{sec}} = \frac{(c + h) - c}{h} = \frac{f(c + h) - f(c)}{h}$$



Figure 3



Figure 4



Figure 5

Figure 3

Using the concept of limit, which we studied in the previous chapter, we can now give a formal definition of the tangent line.

**Definition** Tangent Line

The **tangent line** to the curve  $y = f(x)$  at the point  $(c, f(c))$  is that line through  $P$  with slope

$$m_{\text{tan}} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} m_{\text{sec}} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(c + h) - f(c)}{h}$$

provided that this limit exists and is not  $\infty$  or  $-\infty$ .



FIGURE 5

**EXAMPLE 1** Find the slope of the tangent line to the curve  $y = f(x) = x^2$  at the point  $(2, 4)$ .

**SOLUTION** The line whose slope we are seeking is shown in Figure 5. It clearly has a large positive slope.

$$\begin{aligned} m_{\text{tan}} &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(2+h) - f(2)}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{(2+h)^2 - 2^2}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{4 + 4h + h^2 - 4}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{4h + h^2}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} (4 + h) = 4. \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 2** Find the slopes of the tangent lines to the curve  $y = f(x) = -x^2 + 2x + 2$  at the points with  $x$ -coordinates  $-1$ ,  $2$ , and  $3$ .

**SOLUTION** Rather than make three separate calculations, it seems wise to calculate the slope at the point with  $x$ -coordinate  $c$  and then obtain the three desired answers by substitution.

$$\begin{aligned} m_{\text{tan}} &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(c+h) - f(c)}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{-(c+h)^2 + 2(c+h) + 2 - (-c^2 + 2c + 2)}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{-c^2 - 2ch - h^2 + 2c + 2h + 2 + c^2 - 2c - 2}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{-2ch - h^2 + 2h}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} (-2c - h + 2) \\ &= -2c + 2. \end{aligned}$$

The three desired slopes (obtained by letting  $c = -1$ ,  $c = 2$ , and  $c = 3$ ) are  $4$ ,  $0$ , and  $-4$ . These answers also appear as the slopes of the tangent lines to the graph in Figure 6.

**EXAMPLE 3** Find the equation of the tangent line to the curve  $y = f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$  at  $(2, \frac{1}{2})$  (see Figure 7).

**SOLUTION** Let  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$ .

$$\begin{aligned} m_{\text{tan}} &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(2+h) - f(2)}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\frac{1}{2+h} - \frac{1}{2}}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\frac{2 - (2+h)}{(2+h) \cdot 2}}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{2 - (2+h)}{2h(2+h)} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{-h}{2h(2+h)} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{-1}{2(2+h)} = -\frac{1}{4}. \end{aligned}$$

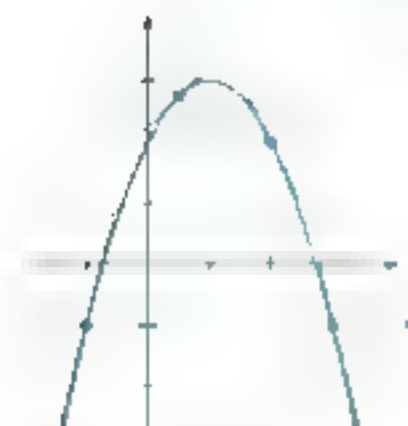


FIGURE 6

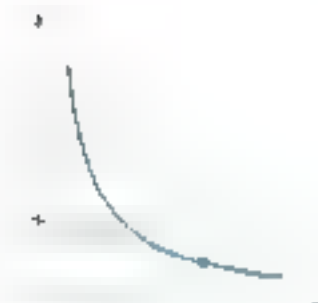


FIGURE 7

Knowing that the slope of the line is  $\frac{1}{2}$ , and that the point  $(2, 1)$  is on it, we can easily write its equation by using the point-slope form:  $y - y_0 = m(x - x_0)$ . The result is  $y - 1 = \frac{1}{2}(x - 2)$ , or equivalently,  $y = 1 + \frac{1}{2}x$ . ■

**Example 1** Suppose that a car starts at a position  $s_0$  miles away from a town and drives toward it at an average velocity  $v$  miles per hour. The average velocity is the distance from the first position to the second position divided by the elapsed time.

But during our trip, the speedometer reading was often different from  $v$ . At the start, it registered a value as high as 52, and then it fell back to  $v$  again. Just what does the speedometer measure? Certainly, it does not indicate average velocity.

Consider the more precise example of an object  $P$  falling in a vacuum. Experiment shows that  $P$  starts falling at  $t = 0$  seconds, that it is 16 feet in the air 1 second later, and 64 feet during the 2 seconds. From a plot of  $s$  (in feet) against  $t$  (in seconds), one obtains Figure 9, showing the distance traveled in the vertical axis as a function of time (on the horizontal axis).

During the second second (i.e., in the time interval from  $t = 1$  to  $t = 2$ ),  $P$  fell  $64 - 16 = 48$  feet. Its average velocity was

$$v_{\text{avg}} = \frac{64 - 16}{2 - 1} = 48 \text{ feet per second}$$

During the time interval from  $t = 1$  to  $t = 1.5$ ,  $P$  fell  $16(1.5)^2 - 16 = 24$  feet. Its average velocity was

$$v_{\text{avg}} = \frac{16(1.5)^2 - 16}{1.5 - 1} = \frac{24}{0.5} = 48 \text{ feet per second}$$

Similarly, on the time intervals  $t = 1$  to  $t = 1.1$  and  $t = 1$  to  $t = 1.01$ , we calculate the respective average velocities to be

$$v_{\text{avg}} = \frac{16(1.1)^2 - 16}{1.1 - 1} = \frac{3.36}{0.1} = 33.6 \text{ feet per second}$$

$$v_{\text{avg}} = \frac{16(1.01)^2 - 16}{1.01 - 1} = \frac{0.336}{0.01} = 33.6 \text{ feet per second}$$

What we have done so far, calculate the average velocity over a certain and short time interval, just starting at  $t = 1$ . The shorter the time interval is, the better we shall approximate the instantaneous velocity at  $t = 1$ . The instant  $t = 1$  and the numbers  $33.6$ ,  $10^{-5}$ ,  $6$ ,  $10^{-5}$ ,  $2$ ,  $10^{-5}$  may, however, be replaced by any other instantaneous velocity.

But let us be more precise. Suppose that the object  $P$  moves along a horizontal line and its position at time  $t$  is given by  $s = f(t)$ . At the time  $t = c$ ,  $P$  is at the point  $A$  in Figure 10. Thus, the average velocity on this interval is

$$v_{\text{avg}} = \frac{f(c + h) - f(c)}{h}$$

We can now define instantaneous velocity.

#### Definition

If an object moves along a coordinate line with position function  $f(t)$ , then its instantaneous velocity at time  $c$  is

$$v = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} v_{\text{avg}} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(c + h) - f(c)}{h}$$

provided that the limit exists and is not  $+\infty$  or  $-\infty$ .



Figure 9



Figure 10

In the case where  $t = 16t^2$  the instantaneous velocity at  $t = 1$  is

$$\begin{aligned} v &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(1+h) - f(1)}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{16(1+h)^2 - 16}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{16(1 + 2h + h^2) - 16}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{32h + 16h^2}{h} \end{aligned}$$

This confirms our earlier guess.

**EXAMPLE 4** A ball is dropped from a height of 64 feet. Find its instantaneous velocity at  $t = 3.1$  seconds and at  $t = 5.4$  seconds.

**SOLUTION** We calculate the instantaneous velocity at  $t = 3.1$  seconds. Since  $s = 16t^2$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} v &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(3.1+h) - f(3.1)}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{16(3.1+h)^2 - 16(3.1)^2}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{16h^2 + 32(3.1)h + 16(3.1)^2 - 16(3.1)^2}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} (32(3.1) + 16h) = 32c \end{aligned}$$

Thus the instantaneous velocity at 3.1 seconds is  $32(3.1) = 99.2$  feet per second. At 5.4 seconds, it is  $32(5.4) = 172.8$  feet per second. ■

**EXAMPLE 5** How long will it take the falling object of Example 4 to reach an instantaneous velocity of 112 feet per second?

**SOLUTION** We learned in Example 4 that the instantaneous velocity after  $t$  seconds is  $32t$ . Thus we must solve the equation  $32t = 112$ . The solution is  $t = 3.5$  seconds. ■

**EXAMPLE 6** A particle moves along a coordinate line and  $x$ , its directed distance in centimeters from the origin after  $t$  seconds, is given by  $x = f(t) = \sqrt{t} - t + 1$ . Find the instantaneous velocity of the particle after 3 seconds.

**SOLUTION** Figure 11 shows the distance traveled as a function of time. The instantaneous velocity at time  $t = 3$  seconds is the slope of the tangent line at  $t = 3$ .

$$\begin{aligned} v &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(3+h) - f(3)}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sqrt{3+h} - (3+h) + 1 - (\sqrt{3} - 3 + 1)}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sqrt{3+h} - \sqrt{3} - h + 4 - 4}{h} \end{aligned}$$

To evaluate the limit, we rationalize the numerator by multiplying the numerator and denominator by  $\sqrt{3+h} + \sqrt{3} + h + 4$ . We obtain

### Two Problems with One Theme

Now you see why we called this section “Two Problems with One Theme.” I talk at the definitions of slope of the tangent line and instantaneous velocity. They give us even names for the same truths in different language.



Figure 11





- b. Draw the tangent line at  $(2, 7)$ .
10. (a) Estimate the slope of the tangent line.
- (b) Calculate the slope of the secant line through  $(2, 7)$  and  $(3, 10)$ .
- (c) Find by the limit process (see Example 1) the slope of the tangent line at  $x = 2$ .
11. Find the slopes of the tangent lines to the curve  $y = x^2$  at the points where  $x = -2, -1, 0, 1, 2$  (see Example 2).
12. Find the slopes of the tangent lines to the curve  $y = x^3$  at the points where  $x = -2, -1, 0, 1, 2$ .
13. Sketch the graph of  $y = 1/x$ ,  $x \neq 0$ , and then find the equation of the tangent line at  $x = 1$  (see Example 3).
14. Find the equation of the tangent line to  $y = \sqrt{x}$  at  $x = 1$ .
15. Experiment suggests that a falling body will fall approximately  $4t^2$  feet in  $t$  seconds.
- (a) How far will it fall between  $t = 0$  and  $t = 1$ ?
- (b) How far will it fall between  $t = 1$  and  $t = 2$ ?
- (c) What is its average velocity on the interval  $2 \leq t \leq 3$ ?
- (d) What is its average velocity on the interval  $3 \leq t \leq 11$ ?
- (e) Find its instantaneous velocity at  $t = 3$  (see Example 4).
16. An object travels along a line so that its position  $s$  is  $s = t^3$  meters after  $t$  seconds.
- (a) What is its average velocity on the interval  $2 \leq t \leq 3$ ?
- (b) What is its average velocity on the interval  $3 \leq t \leq 11$ ?
- (c) What is its average velocity on the interval  $2 \leq t \leq 2 + h$ ?
- (d) Find its instantaneous velocity at  $t = 3$ .
17. Suppose that an object moves along a coordinate line so that its position (distance from the origin) after  $t$  seconds is  $s = 2t^3 - 12t^2$ .
- (a) Find its instantaneous velocity at  $t = a$ ,  $a > 0$ .
- (b) When will it reach a velocity of  $7$  feet per second? (see Example 5).
18. If a particle moves along a coordinate line so that its position (distance from the origin) after  $t$  seconds is  $(-t^3 + 4t)$  feet, when did the particle come to a momentary stop (i.e., when did its instantaneous velocity become zero)?
19. A certain bacterial culture is growing so that it has a mass of  $3e^t + 1$  grams after  $t$  hours.
- (a) How much did it grow during the interval  $2 \leq t \leq 20$ ?
- (b) What was its average growth rate during the interval  $2 \leq t \leq 20$ ?
- (c) What was its instantaneous growth rate at  $t = 2$ ?
20. A business is prospering in such a way that its first  $t$  years realized profit after  $t$  years is  $6000t^2$  dollars.
- (a) How much did the business make during the third year (between  $t = 2$  and  $t = 3$ )?
- (b) What was its average rate of profit during the first half of the third year, between  $t = 2$  and  $t = 2.5$ ? (The rate will be in dollars per year.)
- (c) What was its instantaneous rate of profit at  $t = 2$ ?

21. A wire of length 8 centimeters is such that the mass between its left end and a point  $x$  centimeters to the right is  $x^3$  grams (Figure 2).



Figure 2

- (a) What is the average density of the middle 3-centimeter segment of this wire? (Note: Average density equals mass/length.)
- (b) What is the actual density at the point 3 centimeters from the left end?

22. Suppose that the revenue  $R(x)$  in dollars from producing  $x$  computers is given by  $R(x) = 0.4x - 0.001x^2$ . Find the instantaneous rate of change of revenue when  $x = 10$  and  $x = 15$ . (The instantaneous rate of change of cost with respect to the amount of product produced is called the marginal revenue.)

23. The rate of change of velocity with respect to time is called **acceleration**. Suppose that the velocity at time  $t$  of a particle is given by  $v(t) = 3t$ . Find the instantaneous acceleration when  $t = 10$  seconds.

24. A city is hit by an Asian flu epidemic. Scientists estimate that  $t$  days after the beginning of the epidemic the number of persons sick with the flu is given by  $p(t) = 170t - 2t^2$ , where  $0 \leq t \leq 85$ . At what rate is the flu spreading at time  $t = 40$  days?

25. The graph in Figure 3 shows the amount of water in a city water tank during one day when no water was pumped into the tank. What was the average rate of water usage during the day? How fast was water being used at 3 A.M.?



26. Pavee gets by and is elevated at the ground floor of the seventh floor and take it to the seventh floor, which is 84 feet above the ground floor. The elevator's position  $s$  as a function of time  $t$  (measured in seconds) is shown in Figure 4.



- (a) What is the average velocity of the elevator from the time the elevator began moving until the time that it reached the seventh floor?
- (b) When was the elevator's approximate velocity at time 3?
- (c) How many stops did the elevator make between the ground floor and the seventh floor (excluding the ground and seventh floors)? On which floors do you think the elevator stopped?

18. Figure 15 shows the normal high temperature for St. Louis, Missouri, as a function of time (measured in days) beginning January 1.



Figure 15

- (a) What is the approximate rate of change in the normal high temperature on March 1 (i.e. on day number 6)? What are the units of this rate of change?
- (b) What is the approximate rate of change in the normal high temperature on July 11 (i.e. on day number 191)?
- (c) In what month is there a moment when the rate of change is equal to 0?
- (d) In what month is the absolute value of the rate of change the greatest?

19. Figure 16 shows the population in millions of a developing country for the years 1970 to 1994. What is the approximate rate of change of the population in 1970? In 1990? The percentage growth is often a more appropriate measure of population growth. This is the rate of growth divided by the population size at that time. What is the population when it was the approximate percentage growth in 1970? In 1990?

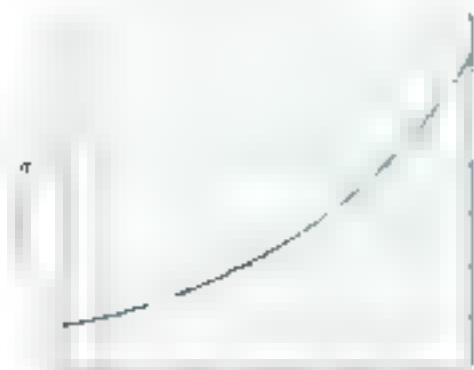


Figure 16

20. Figures 17a and 17b show the position  $s$  as a function of time  $t$  for two particles that are moving along a line. For each particle, is the velocity increasing or decreasing? Explain.



Figure 17

21. The rate of change of electric charge with respect to time is called **current**. Suppose that  $(t^2 + 1)$  coulombs of charge flow through a wire in  $t$  seconds. Find the current in amperes (coulombs per second) after 3 seconds. When will a 20 ampere fuse in the wire blow?

22. The radius of a circular oil spill is growing at a constant rate of 3 kilometers per day. At what rate is the area of the spill growing 3 days after it began?

23. The radius of a spherical balloon is increasing at the rate of 0.25 inch per second. If the radius is 3 in. when  $t = 0$ , find the rate of change in the volume at time  $t = 3$ .

1. Use a graphing calculator (or a CAS) to do Problems 24–26.

24. Draw the graph of  $y = f(x) = x^3 - 2x^2 - 1$ . Then find the slope of the tangent line at

- (a)  $-1$       (b)  $0$       (c)  $1$       (d)  $1.2$

25. Draw the graph of  $y = f(x) = \sin x + 2x^{-1}$ . Then find the slope of the tangent line at

- (a)  $\pi/3$       (b)  $2\pi$       (c)  $\pi$       (d)  $4.2$

26. If a point moves along a line so that its distance  $s$  (in feet) from 0 is given by  $s = t + t \cos t$  at time  $t$  seconds, find its instantaneous velocity at  $t = 3$ .

27. If a point moves along a circle so that its distance  $s$  (in meters) from 0 is given by  $s = (t + 1)^2/t + 2$  at time  $t$  minutes, find its instantaneous velocity at  $t = 1.6$ .

Answers to 1–4 are given below: 1. tangent line; 2. instant

3.  $(f(c + h) - f(c))/h$ ; 4. average velocity

## The Derivative

We have seen that slope of the tangent line and instantaneous velocity are naturally associated with the same basic idea. Rate of growth of an organism, biology, marginal profit, economics, density of a wire, physics, ion discharge rates, chemistry are other versions of the same basic concept. Good mathematical sense suggests that we study this concept independently of these specialized volubilities and diverse applications. We choose the noun, a name, *derivative*. *Function* and *limit* are one of the key words in calculus.

## Definition

The **derivative** of a function  $f$  at another function  $f'$  read  $f$  prime, whose value at any number  $x$  is

$$f'(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h}$$

If this limit does exist we say that  $f$  is **differentiable** at  $x$ . Finding a derivative is called **differentiation**, the part of calculus associated with this because it is with **differential calculus**.

**Finding Derivatives** We illustrate with several examples.

**EXAMPLE 1** Let  $f(x) = 1/x$ . Find  $f'(x)$ .  
**SOLUTION**

$$f'(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1/(x+h) - 1/x}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1/x - 1/(x+h)}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1/x^2 - 1/(x+h)^2}{h}$$

**EXAMPLE 2** Let  $f(x) = x^2$ . Find  $f'(x)$ .  
**SOLUTION**

$$\begin{aligned} f'(x) &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{(x+h)^2 - x^2}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 2xh + h^2 - x^2}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{2xh + h^2}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} (2x + h) \\ &= 2x \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 3** Let  $f(x) = 1/x^2$ . Find  $f'(x)$ .  
**SOLUTION**

$$\begin{aligned} f'(x) &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1/(x+h)^2 - 1/x^2}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1/(x+h)^2 - 1/x^2}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1/(x+h)^2 - 1/x^2}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1/(x+h)^2 - 1/x^2}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1/(x+h)^2 - 1/x^2}{h} \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $f'$  is the function given by  $f'(x) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$  for  $x$  forming a real number except  $x = 0$ . ■

**EXAMPLE 4** Find  $f'$  if  $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ .

**SOLUTION**

$$f' = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sqrt{x+h} - \sqrt{x}}{h}$$

At this time you will have to be a bit daring: *derivative always involves* taking the limit of a quotient whose both numerator and denominator *add up to* each other zero. Our task is to simplify this quotient so that we can cancel a factor  $h$  from the numerator and denominator. (We show you *how* to do this by *putting* it together. In the present example, this can be accomplished by *conjugating* the numerator.)

$$\begin{aligned} f' &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \left| \frac{\sqrt{x+h} - \sqrt{x}}{h} \cdot \frac{\sqrt{x+h} + \sqrt{x}}{\sqrt{x+h} + \sqrt{x}} \right| \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{x + h - x}{h(\sqrt{x+h} + \sqrt{x})} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{h}{h(\sqrt{x+h} + \sqrt{x})} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\sqrt{x+h} + \sqrt{x}} \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{x} + \sqrt{x}} = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}} \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $f'$ , the derivative of  $f$ , is given by  $f'(x) = 1/(2\sqrt{x})$ . Its domain is  $(0, \infty)$ . ■

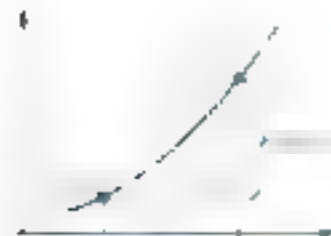
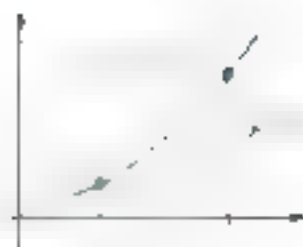
**EXAMPLE 5** Find  $f'(c)$  if  $f(x) = x^2$ . **THEOREM** Each expression obtained by the letter  $h$  in defining  $f'(x)$ . Notice for example that

$$\begin{aligned} f'(c) &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(c+h) - f(c)}{h} \\ &= \lim_{p \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(c+p) - f(c)}{p} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} \end{aligned}$$

A more radical change, but still just a change of notation, may be understood by comparing Figures 1 and 2. Note how  $x$  takes the place of  $c+h$ , and no  $x=c$  replaces  $h$ . Thus,

$$f'(c) = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c}$$

Note that, in all cases the number at which  $f'$  is evaluated is held fixed during the limit operation.



**EXAMPLE 5** Use the limit definition to find  $f'(c)$  if  $f(x) = 2x^2 + 3x - 5$ .

**SOLUTION**

$$\begin{aligned} f'(c) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{2x^2 + 3x - 5 - (2c^2 + 3c - 5)}{x - c} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{2x^2 + 3x - 2c^2 - 3c}{x - c} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow c} \left[ \frac{2(x - c) + 3(x - c) + 5(c - c)}{x - c} \right] \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{5(x - c)}{x - c} = 5. \end{aligned}$$

Here we manipulated the quotient until we could cancel the  $(x - c)$  terms in the numerator and denominator. Then we could evaluate the limit.

**EXAMPLE 6** Each of the following is a derivative. Find  $f$  and  $f'$  if possible. If not, at what point?

$$(a) \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{(4 - h)^2 - 16}{h} \qquad (b) \lim_{x \rightarrow 3} \frac{x - 3}{x - 3}$$

**SOLUTION**

(a) This is the derivative of  $f(x) = x^2$  at  $x = 4$ .

(b) This is the derivative of  $f(x) = x$  at  $x = 3$ .

**Differentiability Implies Continuity** If a curve has a corner, cusp, or jump point, then that curve cannot take a unique tangent line at that point. The precise formulation of this fact is an important theorem.

### **Theorem 2** Differentiability Implies Continuity

If  $f'(c)$  exists, then  $f$  is continuous at  $c$ .

**Proof** We need to show that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = f(c)$ . We begin by writing  $f(x) - f(c)$  in a clever way:

$$f(x) - f(c) = \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} \cdot (x - c) \qquad x \neq c$$

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow c} \left[ \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} \cdot (x - c) \right] \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) - f(c) + \lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} \cdot (x - c) \qquad \text{If } x \rightarrow c, \\ &\qquad f(x) - f(c) \rightarrow 0 \\ &= f(c) \end{aligned}$$

The converse of this theorem is false. If a function is continuous at  $c$ , it does not follow that  $f$  has a derivative at  $c$ . This is easily seen by a graph of  $f(x) = |x|$  at the origin (Figure 2). The function is certainly continuous at zero. However, it does not have a derivative there, as we now show. Note that



Figure 2

$$\frac{f(a) - f(a-h)}{h} = \frac{f(a) - f(a)}{h} = \frac{0}{h} = 0$$

Thus

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{h}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} 1 = 1$$

whereas

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a) - f(a-h)}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{h}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} 1 = 1$$

Since the right- and left-hand limits are different,

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}$$

does not exist. Therefore  $f'(a)$  does not exist.

A similar situation arises when the graph of a continuous function has a sharp corner; the function is not differentiable. The graph in Figure 4 indicates a number of ways for a function to be nondifferentiable at a point.



For the function shown in Figure 4 the derivative does not exist at the point  $a$  where the tangent line is vertical. This is because

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h} = \infty$$

This corresponds to the fact that the slope of a vertical line is undefined.

Consider the value of a variable  $y$  changes from  $y_1$  to  $y_2$  when the change in  $x$  is called an **increment** of  $x$  (often denoted by  $\Delta x$ , read “delta  $x$ ”). Note that  $\Delta x$  does not mean  $\Delta$  times  $x$ . If  $x_1 = 4.1$  and  $x_2 = 5.7$ , then

$$\Delta x = x_2 - x_1 = 5.7 - 4.1 = 1.6$$

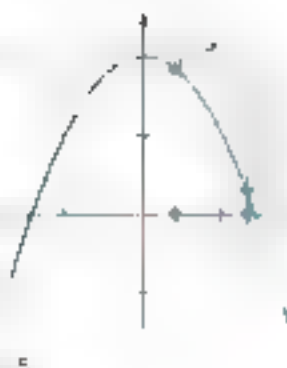
If  $x_1 = c$  and  $x_2 = c + h$ , then

$$\Delta x = x_2 - x_1 = c + h - c = h$$

Suppose next that  $y = f(x)$  determines a function. If  $x$  changes from  $x_1$  to  $x_2$ , then  $y$  changes from  $y_1 = f(x_1)$  to  $y_2 = f(x_2)$ . Thus corresponding to the increment  $\Delta x = x_2 - x_1$  in  $x$  there is an increment in  $y$  given by

$$\Delta y = y_2 - y_1 = f(x_2) - f(x_1)$$

**EXAMPLE 1** Let  $y = f(x) = 2 - x^2$ . Find  $\Delta y$  when  $x$  changes from 0.4 to 1. (See Figure 5.)



## SOLUTION

$$\Delta y = f(x + \Delta x) - f(x) = 7 - 1 = 6 \quad \Delta x = 2 - 1 = 1$$

**FIGURE 6**  $\Delta y$  is the change in  $y$  as  $x$  changes from  $x$  to  $x + \Delta x$ . Suppose now that the independent variable changes from  $x$  to  $x + \Delta x$ . The corresponding change in the dependent variable,  $y$ , will be

$$\Delta y = f(x + \Delta x) - f(x)$$

and the ratio

$$\frac{\Delta y}{\Delta x} = \frac{f(x + \Delta x) - f(x)}{\Delta x}$$

represents the slope of a secant line through points as shown in Figure 6. As  $\Delta x \rightarrow 0$ , the slope of this secant line approaches that of the tangent line and that latter slope we use the symbol  $dy/dx$ . Thus

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta x} = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x + \Delta x) - f(x)}{\Delta x}.$$

**Caution** While Leibniz's contemporary, Gottfried Wilhelm Leibniz, called  $dy/dx$  a quotient of two differentials. The meaning of this was unfortunate in the long run and we will not use it. However,  $dy/dx$  is a standard symbol for the derivative and we will use it frequently from now on.

**FIGURE 7**  $y = f(x)$ . The derivative  $f'(x)$  is the slope of the tangent line to the graph of  $y = f(x)$  at the value of  $x$  (upward when the tangent line is sloping up to the right, the derivative is positive, and when the tangent line is sloping down to the right, the derivative is negative). We draw the whole set of tangent picture of the derivative given just the graph of the function.

**EXAMPLE 8** Given the graph of  $y = f(x)$  shown in the first part of Figure 7, sketch a graph of the derivative  $f'(x)$ .

**SOLUTION** For  $x < 0$ , the tangent line to the graph of  $y = f(x)$  has positive slope. A tangent line shown in such a position suggests that we draw  $f'(x)$  as shown in Figure 8. As we move from left to right along the curve in Figure 7, we see that the slope is (a) positive (for a while) but that the tangent lines become flatter and flatter. When  $x = 0$ , the tangent line is horizontal, telling us that  $f'(0) = 0$ . For  $x$  between 0 and 2, the tangent lines have negative slope, indicating that the derivative will be negative over this interval. When  $x = 2$ , we are again at a point where the tangent line is horizontal, so the derivative is equal to 0. When  $x > 2$ , the tangent line again has positive slope. The graph of the derivative  $f'(x)$  is shown in the last part of Figure 7. ■



FIGURE 8



## Concepts Review

1. The derivative of  $y$  at  $a$  is given by  $f'(a) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}$ . Equivalently,  $f'(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h}$ .

2. The slope of the tangent line to the graph of  $y = f(x)$  at the point  $(a, f(a))$  is  $f'(a)$ .

3. If  $f$  is differentiable at  $a$ , then  $f$  is continuous at  $a$ . The converse is false, as is shown by the example  $f(x) = \begin{cases} x \sin(1/x) & x \neq 0 \\ 0 & x = 0 \end{cases}$ .

4. If  $y = f(x)$ , we now have two different symbols for the derivative of  $y$  with respect to  $x$ . They are  $f'(x)$  and  $\frac{dy}{dx}$ .

## Problem Set 2.2

In Problems 1–4, use the definition

$$f'(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h}$$

to find the indicated derivative.

1.  $\frac{d}{dx} x^2$
2.  $\frac{d}{dx} x^3$
3.  $\frac{d}{dx} x^4$
4.  $\frac{d}{dx} x^5$

In Problems 5–22, use  $f'(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h}$  to find the derivative.

5.  $\frac{d}{dx} x^2$
6.  $\frac{d}{dx} x^3$
7.  $\frac{d}{dx} x^4$
8.  $\frac{d}{dx} x^5$
9.  $\frac{d}{dx} x^6$
10.  $\frac{d}{dx} x^7$
11.  $\frac{d}{dx} x^8$
12.  $\frac{d}{dx} x^9$
13.  $\frac{d}{dx} x^2$
14.  $\frac{d}{dx} x^3$
15.  $\frac{d}{dx} x^4$
16.  $\frac{d}{dx} x^5$
17.  $\frac{d}{dx} x^6$
18.  $\frac{d}{dx} x^7$
19.  $\frac{d}{dx} x^8$
20.  $\frac{d}{dx} x^9$
21.  $\frac{d}{dx} x^2$
22.  $\frac{d}{dx} x^3$

In Problems 23–26, find  $f'(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h}$  or find  $f'(a)$  if it exists.

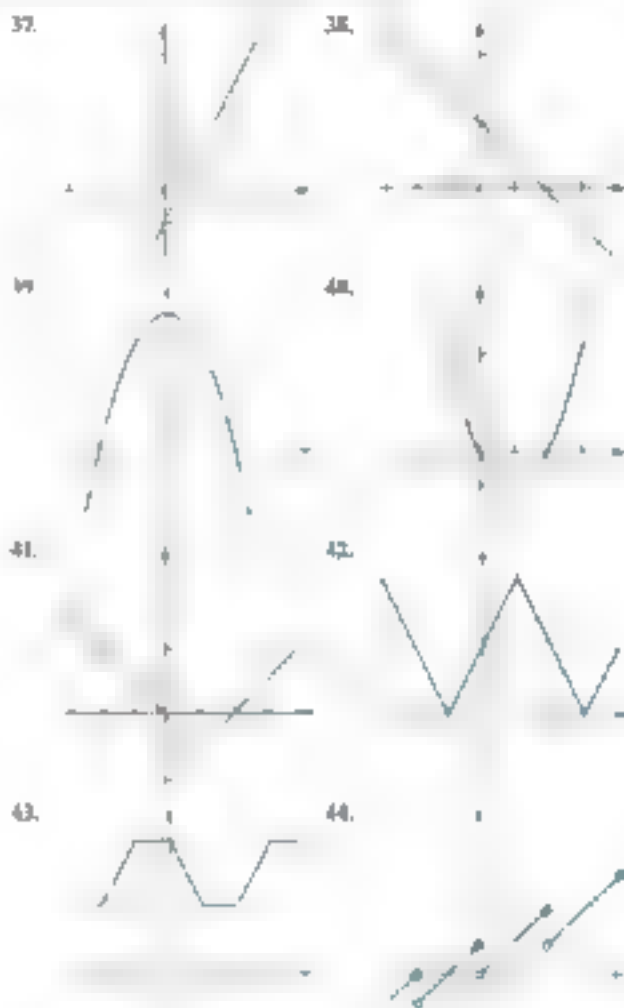
23.  $\frac{d}{dx} x^2$
24.  $\frac{d}{dx} x^3$
25.  $\frac{d}{dx} x^4$
26.  $\frac{d}{dx} x^5$

In Problems 27–40, the given limit is a derivative, but of what function and at what point? (See Example 6.)

27.  $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(2+h) - f(2)}{h}$
28.  $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(1+h) - f(1)}{h} = 15$
29.  $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(3+h) - f(3)}{h}$
30.  $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(4+h) - f(4)}{h}$
31.  $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(5+h) - f(5)}{h}$
32.  $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(6+h) - f(6)}{h}$
33.  $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(7+h) - f(7)}{h}$
34.  $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(8+h) - f(8)}{h}$

$$35. \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(1+h) - f(1)}{h} = 10 \quad 36. \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(2+h) - f(2)}{h} = 20$$

In Problems 37–44, the graph of a function is given. Find  $f'(x)$  if it exists, or find  $f'(a)$  if it exists.



In Problems 45–50, find  $f'(x)$  if it exists, or find  $f'(a)$  if it exists.

45.  $\frac{d}{dx} x^2$
46.  $\frac{d}{dx} x^3$
47.  $\frac{d}{dx} x^4$
48.  $\frac{d}{dx} x^5$

49.  $y = \frac{1}{x+3}, x = 2.34, x_2 = 2.31$

50.  $y = \cos^{-1} x, x = 0.7, x_2 = 0.65$

In Problems 51–59, first find and simplify

$$\frac{\Delta y}{\Delta x} = \frac{y(x_2) - y(x_1)}{x_2 - x_1}$$

Then find  $y, dy$  by taking the limit of your answer as  $\Delta x \rightarrow 0$ .

51.  $y = x^2$

52.  $y = x^3 - 3x$

53.  $y = x^4$

54.  $y = x^5$

55.  $y = x^6$

56.  $y = x^7$

47. From Figure 8, estimate  $f'(0)$ ,  $f'(2)$ ,  $f'(5)$ , and  $f'(7)$ .

58. From Figure 9, estimate  $g'(1)$ ,  $g'(3)$ ,  $g'(4)$ , and  $g'(6)$ .



Figure 8

59. Sketch the graph of  $y = f'(x)$  on  $-1 < x < 7$  for the function  $f$  in Figure 8.

60. Sketch the graph of  $y = g'(x)$  on  $-1 < x < 7$  for the function  $g$  in Figure 9.

61. Consider the function  $y = f(x)$ , whose graph is sketched in Figure 9.

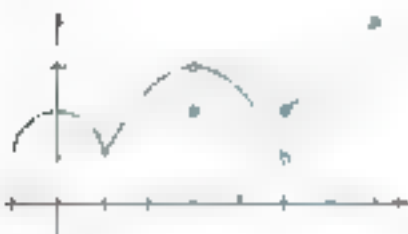


Figure 9

- Estimate  $f'(2)$ ,  $f'(3)$ ,  $f'(4)$ , and  $f'(5)$ .
- Estimate the average rate of change in  $f$  on the interval  $x_1 = 1, x_2 = 5$ .
- Where on the interval  $-1 < x < 7$  does  $f$  fail to be concave?
- Where on the interval  $-1 < x < 7$  does  $f$  fail to be concave?
- Where on the interval  $-1 < x < 7$  does  $f$  fail to have a derivative?
- Where on the interval  $-1 < x < 7$  is  $f'(x) = 0$ ?

62. Where on the interval  $-1 < x < 7$  is  $f'(x) = 0$ ?

63. Figure 14 in Section 2.1 shows the position  $s$  of an elevator as a function of time  $t$ . At what points does the derivative exist? Sketch the derivative of  $s$ .

64. Figure 15 in Section 2.1 shows the normal high jumping time for St. Louis Monarch. Sketch the derivative.

65. Figure 11 shows two functions. One is the function  $f$  and the other is its derivative  $f'$ . Which one is which?



66. Figure 12 shows three functions. One is the function  $f$ , another is its derivative  $f'$ , which we will call  $g$ , and the third is the derivative of  $g$ . Which one is which?



67. Suppose that  $f(x + y) = f(x)f(y)$  for all  $x$  and  $y$ . Show that  $f'(x) = f(x)f'(0)$  for all  $x$ .

68. Let  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$ . Find  $f'(x)$  using the definition of the derivative.

69. Let  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$ . Find  $f'(x)$  using the definition of the derivative.

70. The symmetric derivative  $f_s(x)$  is defined by

$$f_s(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x-h)}{2h}$$

Show that if  $f'(x)$  exists then  $f_s(x)$  exists, but that the converse is not true.

71. Let  $f$  be differentiable and let  $f'(x_0) = \infty$ . Find  $f''(x_0)$ .

72.  $f$  is an odd function.

$f$  is an even function.

**70.** Prove that the derivative of an odd function is an even function and that the derivative of an even function is an odd function.

**71.** Use the CAS to solve Problems 71 and 73.

**EXERCISE 71.** Draw the graphs of  $f(x) = x^3 - 4x^2 - 3$  and its derivative  $f'(x)$  on the interval  $[-2, 5]$  using the same axes.

(a) Where on this interval is  $f'(x) < 0$ ?

(b) Where on this interval is  $f(x)$  decreasing as  $x$  increases?

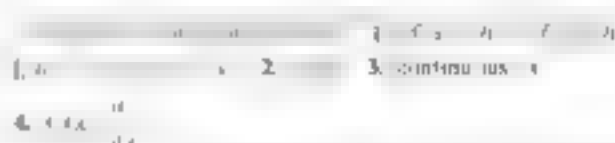
(c) Make a conjecture. Experiment with other intervals and other functions to support this conjecture.

**EXERCISE 72.** Draw the graphs of  $f(x) = \cos x \sin(x^2)$  and its derivative  $f'(x)$  on the interval  $[1, 9]$  using the same axes.

(a) Where on this interval is  $f'(x) > 0$ ?

(b) Where on this interval is  $f(x)$  increasing as  $x$  increases?

(c) Make a conjecture. Experiment with other intervals and other functions to support this conjecture.



## 2 Rules for Finding Derivatives

The process of finding the derivative of a function directly from the definition of the derivative—that is, by working up the difference quotient—

$$\frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h}$$

is a tedious task that can be time-consuming and tedious. We are going to develop a set of rules that will allow us to compute the derivative of a function without having to find derivatives of the most complicated-looking functions.

Recall that the derivative of a function  $f$  at another function  $f$ . We saw in the previous section that if  $f(x) = x^2$  is the function, then  $f'(x) = 2x$  is the derivative. When we take the derivative of a function, we are applying the operation of differentiation to produce  $f'$ . We then use the symbol  $D$  to denote the operation of differentiating (Figure 1). The  $D$  symbol says that we are to take the derivative with respect to the variable  $x$  of what follows. Thus, we write  $D_x f(x) = 2x$  for the derivative of the function  $f(x) = x^2$  with respect to  $x$ . In  $D$  notation,  $D$  is an operator. As Figure 1 suggests, an operator is a function whose input is a function and whose output is another function.

With Leibniz notation, introduced in the last section, we now have three notations for the derivative. If  $y = f(x)$ , we can denote the derivative of  $f$  by

$$f'(x) \quad \text{or} \quad D_x f(x) \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{dy}{dx}$$

We will use the notation  $\frac{dy}{dx}$  to mean the same as the others if  $D$ .

Figure 2 shows the graph of the constant function  $f(x) = k$  and its derivative  $f'(x) = 0$ . The graph of  $f$  is a horizontal line. The graph of  $f'$  is a horizontal line at  $y = 0$ . This is a good way to understand our first theorem.

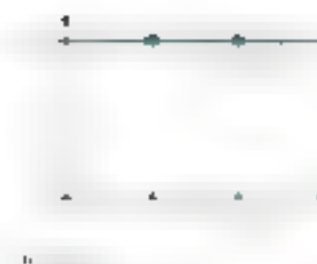
### THEOREM 2.1 Constant Function Rule

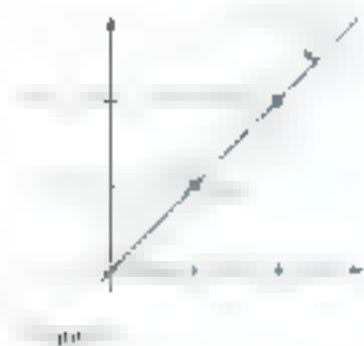
If  $f(x) = k$  where  $k$  is a constant, then for any  $x$ ,  $f'(x) = 0$ . That is,

$$D_x k = 0$$

**Proof**

$$f'(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{k - k}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{0}{h} = 0$$





The graph of  $f(x) = x$  is a line through the origin with slope 1. Figure 3.1.4 we should expect the derivative of this function to be 1 for all  $x$ .

### Theorem 3 Identity Function Rule

If  $f(x) = x$  then  $f'(x) = 1$  that is,

$$D_x x = 1$$

**Proof**

$$f'(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{x+h - x}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{h}{h} = 1 \quad \blacksquare$$

Before stating our next theorem, we recall something from algebra: how to raise a binomial to a power.

$$(a + b)^2 = a^2 + 2ab + b^2$$

$$(a + b)^3 = a^3 + 3a^2b + 3ab^2 + b^3$$

$$(a + b)^4 = a^4 + 4a^3b + 6a^2b^2 + 4ab^3 + b^4$$

$$(a + b)^n = a^n + na^{n-1}b + \frac{n(n-1)}{2}a^{n-2}b^2 + \cdots + na^{n-1}b + b^n$$

### Theorem 4 Power Rule

If  $f(x) = x^n$  where  $n$  is a positive integer, then  $f'(x) = nx^{n-1}$  that is,

$$D_x x^n = nx^{n-1}$$

**Proof**

$$\begin{aligned} f'(x) &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{(x+h)^n - x^n}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^n + nx^{n-1}h + \frac{n(n-1)}{2}x^{n-2}h^2 + \cdots + nx^{n-1}h + h^n - x^n}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{h \left[ nx^{n-1} + \frac{n(n-1)}{2}x^{n-2}h + \cdots + nx^{n-1} + h^{n-1} \right]}{h} \end{aligned}$$

Within the bracket, all terms except the first have  $h$  as a factor and so, for every value of  $x$ , each of these terms has limit zero as  $h$  approaches zero. Thus,

$$f'(x) = nx^{n-1} \quad \blacksquare$$

As a consequence of Theorem 4, note that

$$D_x x = 1, \quad D_x(x^2) = 2x, \quad D_x(x^3) = 3x^2, \quad D_x(x^{100}) = 100x^{99}$$

**Theorem 5** The operator  $D_x$  behaves very well when applied to constant multiples of functions or to sums of functions.

### Theorem 6 Constant Multiple Rule

If  $k$  is a constant and  $f$  is a differentiable function, then  $(kf)'(x) = k \cdot f'(x)$  that is,

$$D_x(k \cdot f(x)) = k \cdot D_x f(x)$$

In words, a constant multiplier  $k$  can be passed across the operator  $D_x$ .

**Proof** Let  $F(x) = k \cdot f(x)$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} F'(x) &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{k \cdot f(x+h) - k \cdot f(x)}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} k \cdot \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h} = k \cdot \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h} \\ &= k \cdot f'(x) \end{aligned}$$

The next-to-last step was the crux of the proof. We should add a note to this step because of the Mean Value Theorem (Part 2).

Examples that illustrate this result are

$$D_x(-7x^3) = -7D_x(x^3) = -7 \cdot 3x^2 = -21x^2$$

and

$$D_x(x^3) = \frac{1}{4}D_x(x^4) = \frac{1}{4} \cdot 4x^3 = x^3$$

### Theorem E

#### Sum Rule

If  $f$  and  $g$  are differentiable functions, then  $(f + g)'(x) = f'(x) + g'(x)$ ; that is,

$$D_x[f(x) + g(x)] = D_x f(x) + D_x g(x)$$

In words, the derivative of a sum is the sum of the derivatives.

**Proof** Let  $F(x) = f(x) + g(x)$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} F'(x) &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) + g(x+h) - f(x) - g(x)}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \left[ \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h} + \frac{g(x+h) - g(x)}{h} \right] \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h} + \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{g(x+h) - g(x)}{h} \\ &= f'(x) + g'(x) \end{aligned}$$

Again the next-to-last step was the crux of the proof, as justified by the Mean Value Theorem (Part 4).

Any operator  $L$  with the properties stated in Theorems D and E is called **linear**; that is,  $L$  is a **linear operator** if for all functions  $f$  and  $g$ ,

1.  $L(kf) = kL(f)$ , for every constant  $k$
2.  $L(f + g) = L(f) + L(g)$ .

Linear operators will appear again and again in this book.  $D$  is a particularly important example. A linear operator always satisfies the difference rule  $L(f - g) = L(f) - L(g)$ ; stated next for  $D_x$ .

### Theorem F

#### Difference Rule

If  $f$  and  $g$  are differentiable functions, then  $(f - g)'(x) = f'(x) - g'(x)$ ; that is,

$$D_x[f(x) - g(x)] = D_x f(x) - D_x g(x)$$

The proof of Theorem F is left as an exercise (Problem 54).

The fundamental meaning of the word *linear*, as used in mathematics, is that given in this section. An operator  $L$  is linear if it satisfies the two key conditions:

- 1.  $L(ku) = kL(u)$
- 2.  $L(u + v) = L(u) + L(v)$

Linear operators play a central role in the *linear algebra* course, which many students of this book will take.

Functions of the form

$f(x) = mx + b$  are called **linear functions** because of their connection with lines. This terminology can be confusing because linear functions are not lines in the operator sense. To see this note that

$$f(kx) = m(kx) + b$$

while

$$kf(x) = k(mx + b)$$

Thus,  $f(kx) \neq kf(x)$  unless  $b$  happens to be zero.

**EXAMPLE 1** Find the derivatives of  $5x^2 - 7x + 6$  and  $4x^3 - 9x^2 + 10x^2 + 5x + 16$ .

**SOLUTION**

$$\begin{aligned} D_x(5x^2 - 7x + 6) &= D_x(5x^2) - D_x(7x) + D_x(6) && \text{(Theorem F)} \\ &= 5D_x(x^2) - 7D_x(x) + D_x(6) && \text{(Theorem E)} \\ &= 5D_x(x^2) + 7D_x(x) - D_x(6) && \text{(Theorem D)} \\ &= 5(2x^{2-1}) + 7(1x^{1-1}) - 0 && \text{(Theorem C, B, A)} \\ &= 10x + 7 \end{aligned}$$

To find the next derivative, we note that the theorems on sums and differences extend to any finite number of terms. Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} D_x(4x^3 - 3x^2 + 10x - 5x + 16) \\ &= D_x(4x^3) - D_x(3x^2) + D_x(10x) + D_x(-5x) + D_x(16) \\ &= 4D_x(x^3) - 3D_x(x^2) + 10D_x(x) + 5D_x(x) + D_x(6) \\ &= 4(3x^2) - 3(2x) + 10(2x) + 5(1) + 0 \\ &= 24x^2 - 15x + 20x + 5 \end{aligned}$$

The method of Example 1 allows us to find the derivative of an arbitrary polynomial by the Power Rule and the rules on sums and differences. This requires, perhaps, a little thought. As we will practice, you will find that you can write the derivative immediately, without having to write any intermediate steps.

**THEOREM 1.3A** Let  $f(x) = u(x)v(x)$ . Then we are in for a surprise. So far we have seen that the limit of a sum or difference is equal to the sum or difference of the limits (Theorem 1.3A, Parts 4 and 5), the limit of a product or quotient is the product or quotient of the limits (Theorem 1.3A, Parts 6 and 7), and the derivative of a sum or difference is the sum or difference of the derivatives (Theorem 1.3A). So what can we more naturally handle next in the way of a product? Is the product of the derivatives?

This may seem natural, but it is wrong. To see why, let's look at the following example.

**EXAMPLE 2** Let  $g(x) = x$ ,  $h(x) = 1 + 2x$ , and  $f(x) = g(x)h(x) = x(1 + 2x)$ . Find  $D_x f(x)$ ,  $D_x g(x)$ , and  $D_x h(x)$ , and show that  $[D_x f(x)] \neq [D_x g(x)][D_x h(x)]$ .

**SOLUTION**

$$\begin{aligned} D_x f(x) &= D_x[x(1 + 2x)] \\ &= D_x(x + 2x^2) \\ &= 1 + 4x \\ D_x g(x) &= D_x x \\ D_x h(x) &= D_x(1 + 2x) = 2 \end{aligned}$$

Notice that

$$D_x g(x)D_x h(x) = 1 \cdot 2 = 2$$

whereas

$$D_x f(x) = D_x[x(1 + 2x)] = 1 + 4x$$

Thus,  $D_x f(x) \neq [D_x g(x)][D_x h(x)]$ .

That the derivative of a product should be the product of the derivatives seemed so natural that it even inspired Gottfried Wilhelm von Leibniz, one of the developers of calculus. In a manuscript of November 11, 1675, he computed the derivative of the product of two functions and—without checking—found it was equal to the product of the derivatives. For decades, it took the calculus community to give the correct product rule, which we present as Theorem 2.

### THEOREM 2 Product Rule

If  $f$  and  $g$  are differentiable functions, then

$$(f \cdot g)'(x) = f(x)g'(x) + g(x)f'(x)$$

that is

$$D_x[f(x)g(x)] = f(x)D_xg(x) + g(x)D_xf(x)$$

This rule should be memorized in words as follows: *the derivative of the product of two functions is the first times the derivative of the second plus the second times the derivative of the first.*

**Proof** Let  $F(x) = f(x)g(x)$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} F(x+h) - F(x) &= f(x+h)g(x+h) - f(x)g(x) \\ \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{F(x+h) - F(x)}{h} &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h)g(x+h) - f(x)g(x)}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h)g(x+h) - f(x)g(x+h) + f(x)g(x+h) - f(x)g(x)}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h)g(x+h) - f(x)g(x+h)}{h} + \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x)g(x+h) - f(x)g(x)}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h} g(x+h) + f(x) \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{g(x+h) - g(x)}{h} \\ &= f'(x)g(x) + f(x)g'(x) \end{aligned}$$

The derivation just given relies first on the basic technique of approximating the same thing that is,  $f(x+h)g(x)$ . Second, at the very end, we use the fact that

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} f(x+h) = f(x)$$

This is just an application of Theorem 2.4, which says that differentiability at a point implies continuity there, and the definition of a continuous function. ■

**EXAMPLE 3** Find the derivative of  $(3x^2 - 5)(2x^4 - x)$  by use of the Product Rule. Check the answer by doing the problem a different way.

**SOLUTION**

$$\begin{aligned} D_x[(3x^2 - 5)(2x^4 - x)] &= (3x^2 - 5)D_x(2x^4 - x) + (2x^4 - x)D_x(3x^2 - 5) \\ &= (3x^2 - 5)(8x^3 - 1) + (2x^4 - x)(6x) \\ &= 24x^5 - 5x^2 - 40x^2 + 5 + 12x^5 - 6x^2 \\ &= 36x^5 - 40x^3 - 9x^2 + 5 \end{aligned}$$

To check, we first multiply and then take the derivative:

$$(3x^2 - 5)(2x^4 - x) = 6x^6 - 10x^4 - 3x^3 + 5x$$

Thus

Some people say that memorization is good, that only logical reasoning is important in mathematics. They are wrong. Some things, including the rules of mathematics, must become so much a part of our mental apparatus that we can use them without stopping to reflect.

"Civilization advances by extending the number of important operations which we can perform without thinking about them."

Alfred N. Whitehead



$$D_x(x^2) = 2x^2 \cdot x^{-1} = 2x \quad D_x(6x^5) = D_x(10x^2) = D_x(3x^3) + D_x(7x) \\ = 30x^4 + 20x + 21x^2 + 7$$

**Theorem 4** Quotient Rule

Let  $f$  and  $g$  be differentiable functions with  $g(x) \neq 0$ . Then

$$\left(\frac{f}{g}\right)'(x) = \frac{g(x)f'(x) - f(x)g'(x)}{g^2(x)}$$

That is,

$$D\left(\frac{f \circ g}{g \circ g}\right) = \frac{g(x)D_x(f \circ g) - f(x)D_x(g \circ g)}{g^2(x)}$$

We should always remember this formula as well as the derivative rules. However, it is not the only formula for differentiating quotients. In fact, the quotient rule can be derived from the product rule and the derivative of the reciprocal of a function. We will see this in the next section.

**Proof** Let  $F(x) = f(x)/g(x)$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} F'(x) &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{F(x+h) - F(x)}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\frac{f(x+h)}{g(x+h)} - \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\frac{f(x+h)g(x) - f(x)g(x+h)}{g(x+h)g(x)}}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h)g(x) - f(x)g(x+h)}{h} \cdot \frac{1}{g(x)g(x+h)} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h)g(x) - f(x)g(x) + f(x)g(x) - f(x)g(x+h)}{h} \cdot \frac{1}{g(x)g(x+h)} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \left[ \frac{f(x+h)g(x) - f(x)g(x)}{h} + \frac{f(x)g(x) - f(x)g(x+h)}{h} \right] \cdot \frac{1}{g(x)g(x+h)} \\ &= [g(x)f'(x) - f(x)g'(x)] \cdot \frac{1}{g(x)g(x)} \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 4** Find  $\frac{d}{dx} \left( \frac{3x-5}{x^2+7} \right)$

**SOLUTION**

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dx} \left( \frac{3x-5}{x^2+7} \right) &= \frac{\frac{d}{dx}(3x-5)}{x^2+7} - \frac{(3x-5) \frac{d}{dx}(x^2+7)}{(x^2+7)^2} \\ &= \frac{3}{x^2+7} - \frac{(3x-5)(2x)}{(x^2+7)^2} \\ &= \frac{3(x^2+7) - 2x(3x-5)}{(x^2+7)^2} \\ &= \frac{3x^2 + 21 - 6x^2 + 10x}{(x^2+7)^2} \\ &= \frac{-3x^2 + 10x + 21}{(x^2+7)^2} \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 5** Find  $D_x f$  if  $f(x) = \frac{x^2}{x^2 + 1}$ .

**SOLUTION**

$$\begin{aligned} D_x f &= D_x \left( \frac{x^2}{x^2 + 1} \right) = D_x \left( \frac{u}{v} \right) \\ &= \frac{(u)'v - u(v)'}{v^2} = \frac{(x^2)'(x^2 + 1) - (x^2)(x^2 + 1)'}{(x^2 + 1)^2} \\ &= \frac{(x^2 + 1)(0) - (x^2)(2x)}{(x^2 + 1)^2} = \frac{(x)(0) - (3x^3)}{(x^2 + 1)^2} \\ &= \frac{-3x^3}{x^4 + 1} \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 6** Show that the Power Rule holds for negative integer exponents.

$$D_x(x^{-n}) = -nx^{-n-1}$$

$$D_x(x^{-n}) = D_x \left( \frac{1}{x^n} \right) = \frac{(1)'x^n - (1)(x^n)'}{x^{2n}} = \frac{0 - nx^{n-1}}{x^{2n}} = -nx^{-n-1}$$

We saw as part of Example 5 that  $D_x(x^{-1}) = -x^{-2}$ , so we have one other way to see the same thing.

## Concepts Review

- The derivative of a product of two functions is the first times the second plus the first times the derivative of the second. Symbolically,  $D_x(f(x)g(x)) =$   $f(x)g'(x) + g(x)f'(x)$ .
- The derivative of a quotient is the derivative of the numerator times the denominator minus the numerator times the derivative of the denominator divided by the square of the denominator. Symbolically,  $D_x\left(\frac{f(x)}{g(x)}\right) =$   $\frac{f'(x)g(x) - f(x)g'(x)}{g(x)^2}$ .
- The second derivative of a function is the derivative of the first derivative. Symbolically,  $D_x^2 f(x) =$   $D_x(D_x f(x))$ .
- If  $f$  is a function of  $x$  and  $g$  is a function of  $x$ , then  $D_x(f \circ g) =$   $f'(g(x))g'(x)$ . This is called the chain rule.

## Problem Set 2.3

In Problems 1–44, find  $D_x y$  using the rules of this section.

- $y = x^3$
- $y = x^2 + 5x$
- $y = x^4$
- $y = x^5$
- $y = x^6$
- $y = x^7$
- $y = x^8$
- $y = x^9$
- $y = x^{10}$
- $y = x^{11}$
- $y = x^{12}$
- $y = x^{13}$
- $y = x^{14}$
- $y = x^{15}$
- $y = x^{16}$
- $y = x^{17}$
- $y = x^{18}$
- $y = x^{19}$
- $y = x^{20}$
- $y = x^{21}$
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- $y = x^{26}$
- $y = x^{27}$
- $y = x^{28}$
- $y = x^{29}$
- $y = x^{30}$
- $y = x^{31}$
- $y = x^{32}$
- $y = x^{33}$
- $y = x^{34}$
- $y = x^{35}$
- $y = x^{36}$
- $y = x^{37}$
- $y = x^{38}$
- $y = x^{39}$
- $y = x^{40}$
- $y = x^{41}$
- $y = x^{42}$
- $y = x^{43}$
- $y = x^{44}$

33.  $y = \frac{1}{x^2} + \frac{1}{x}$

35.  $y = \frac{1}{4x^2} - \frac{1}{x} + \frac{1}{x^2}$

37.  $y = \frac{1}{x^2}$

39.  $y = \frac{1}{x^2}$

41.  $y = \frac{1}{x^2}$

43.  $y = \frac{1}{x^2}$

45.  $y = \frac{1}{x^2}$

34.  $y = \frac{1}{x^2}$

36.  $y = \frac{1}{x^2}$

38.  $y = \frac{1}{x^2}$

40.  $y = \frac{1}{x^2}$

42.  $y = \frac{1}{x^2}$

44.  $y = \frac{1}{x^2}$

46. If  $f(3) = 4$ ,  $f'(3) = 2$ ,  $g(3) = 6$ , and  $g'(3) = 10$ , find  
(a)  $(f + g)(3)$  (b)  $(f - g)(3)$  (c)  $(fg)'(3)$

47. Use the Product Rule to show that  $D_x[f(x) \cdot g(x)] = f'(x)g(x) + f(x)g'(x)$

48. Develop a rule for  $D_x[f(x)g(x)h(x)]$

49. Find the equation of the tangent line to  $y = x^2 - 2x + 2$  at the point  $(1, 1)$ .

50. Find the equation of the tangent line to  $y = 1$ ,  $y = x^2 + 4$  at the point  $(2, 5)$ .

51. Find all points on the graph of  $y = x^3 - x^2$  where the tangent line is horizontal.

52. Find all points on the graph of  $y = \frac{1}{2}x^3 - x^2 - x$  where the tangent line has slope 1.

53. Find all points on the graph of  $y = 60x^2$  where the tangent line is perpendicular to the line  $y = x$ .

54. Prove Theorem 2 in two ways.

55. The height  $s$  (in ft) of a ball above the ground at  $t$  seconds is given by  $s = 16t^2 + 64t + 64$ .

a. What is its instantaneous velocity at  $t = 2$ ?

b. What is its instantaneous velocity 0?

56. A ball rolls down a long inclined plane so that its distance  $s$  from its starting point after  $t$  seconds is  $s = 4.5t^2 + 2t$  feet. When will its instantaneous velocity be 30 feet per second?

57. There are two tangent lines to the curve  $y = 4x - x^2$  that go through  $(2, 5)$ . Find the equations of both of them. *Hint:* Let

$(x_0, y_0)$  be a point of tangency. Find two conditions that  $(x_0, y_0)$  must satisfy. See Figure 4.

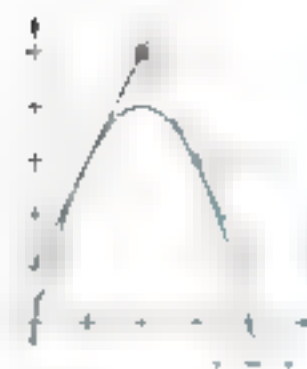


Figure 4

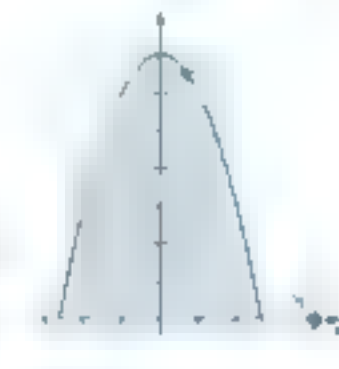


Figure 5

58. A space traveler is moving from left to right along the curve  $y = x^3$ . When she shuts off the engines, she will continue traveling along the tangent line at the point where she is at that time. At what point should she shut off the engines in order to reach the point  $(4, 15)$ ?

59. A fly is crawling from left to right along the top of the curve  $y = 7 - x^2$  (Figure 5). A spider waits at the point  $(4, 0)$ . Find the distance between the two insects when they first see each other.

60. Let  $P(a, b)$  be a point on the first quadrant portion of the curve  $y = e/x$  and let the tangent line at  $P$  intersect the  $x$ -axis at  $A$ . Show that triangle  $APQ$  is isosceles and determine its area.

61. The radius of a spherical watermelon is growing at a constant rate of 2 centimeters per week. The thickness of the rind is always one-fourth of the radius. How fast is the volume of the rind growing at the end of the 6th week? Assume that the radius is initially 0.

62. Re-do Problems 21–44 on a computer and compare your answers with those you got by hand.

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{Let } f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2} \text{ and } g(x) = \frac{1}{x^3}. \text{ Find } f'(x) \text{ and } g'(x). \\ & \text{Let } f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2} \text{ and } g(x) = \frac{1}{x^3}. \text{ Find } (fg)'(x). \\ & \text{Let } f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2} \text{ and } g(x) = \frac{1}{x^3}. \text{ Find } (f/g)'(x). \end{aligned}$$

## 2.4 Derivatives of Trigonometric Functions

Figure 1 reminds us of the definition of the sine and cosine functions. In what follows, we should be thought of  $t$  as a number measuring the length of an arc on the unit circle or, equivalently, the number of radians in the corresponding angle. Thus,  $f(t) = \sin t$  and  $g(t) = \cos t$  are functions for which both domain and range are sets of real numbers. We may consider the problem of finding their derivatives.

**The Derivative Formulas.** We choose to use  $x$  rather than  $t$  as our basic variable. Find  $D_x \sin x$  and  $D_x \cos x$  by using the definition of derivative and using the Addition Identity for  $\sin(x + h)$ .



$$\begin{aligned}
 D_x \sin x &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin(x+h) - \sin x}{h} \\
 &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x \cos h + \cos x \sin h - \sin x}{h} \\
 &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \left( \sin x \frac{\cos h - 1}{h} + \cos x \frac{\sin h}{h} \right) \\
 &= \left( \sin x \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos h - 1}{h} + \cos x \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin h}{h} \right)
 \end{aligned}$$

Notice that the first limit in the last expression is exactly the limit we studied in Section 2.3 in Theorem 2.4B; we proved that

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin h}{h} = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos h - 1}{h} = 0.$$

Thus

$$D_x(\sin x) = (\sin x) \cdot 0 + (\cos x) \cdot 1 = \cos x.$$

Similarly,

$$\begin{aligned}
 D_x(\cos x) &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos(x+h) - \cos x}{h} \\
 &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos x \cos h - \sin x \sin h - \cos x}{h} \\
 &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \left( \cos x \frac{\cos h - 1}{h} - \sin x \frac{\sin h}{h} \right) \\
 &= (-\cos x) \cdot 0 - (\sin x) \cdot 1 \\
 &= -\sin x.
 \end{aligned}$$

We summarize these results in an important theorem.

### Theorem 2

The functions  $y = \sin x$  and  $y = \cos x$  are both differentiable and

$$D_x \sin x = \cos x \quad \text{and} \quad D_x \cos x = -\sin x.$$

**EXAMPLE 1** Find  $D_x(3 \sin x + 2 \cos x)$ .

### SOLUTION

$$\begin{aligned}
 D_x(3 \sin x + 2 \cos x) &= 3D_x(\sin x) + 2D_x(\cos x) \\
 &= 3 \cos x + 2(-\sin x)
 \end{aligned}$$

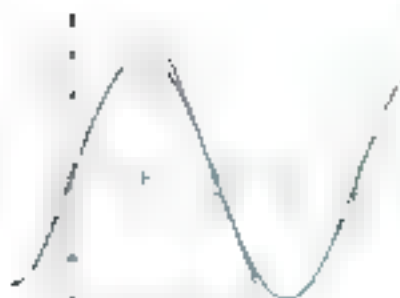
**EXAMPLE 2** Find the equation of the tangent line to the graph of  $y = 3 \sin x$  at the point  $(\pi/2)$ . (See Figure 2.)

**SOLUTION** The derivative is  $\frac{dy}{dx} = 3 \cos x$ , so when  $x = \pi/2$ , the slope is  $3 \cos \pi/2 = 0$ . Using the point-slope formula and we find that the equation of the tangent line is

The solid curve below is the graph of  $y = \sin x$ . Notice that the curve is at  $y = 0$  when  $x = 0$ . When we graph the slope function, the dashed curve, we obtain the dashed curve. Could you have guessed that  $D_x \sin x = \cos x$ ?



Just try: the curve pattern in the slope function on page 115 is a repeating calculation.



$$\begin{aligned} y &= 6 - 3x + x^2 \\ y' &= -3 + 2x \end{aligned}$$

The Product and Quotient Rules are useful when evaluating derivatives of functions involving the trigonometric functions.

**EXAMPLE 5** Find  $D_x(x^2 \sin x)$ .

**SOLUTION** The Product Rule is needed here.

$$D_x(x^2 \sin x) = x^2 D_x(\sin x) + \sin x (D_x x^2) = x^2 \cos x + 2x \sin x$$

**EXAMPLE 6** Find  $\frac{d}{dx} \left( \frac{1 - \sin x}{\cos x} \right)$ .

**SOLUTION** For this problem, the Quotient Rule is needed.

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dx} \left( \frac{1 - \sin x}{\cos x} \right) &= \frac{\cos x \left( \frac{d}{dx} (1 - \sin x) \right) - (1 - \sin x) \left( \frac{d}{dx} \cos x \right)}{(\cos x)^2} \\ &= \frac{\cos x (-\cos x) - (1 - \sin x)(-\sin x)}{\cos^2 x} \\ &= \frac{-\cos^2 x + \sin x - \sin^2 x}{\cos^2 x} \\ &= \frac{-(\cos^2 x + \sin^2 x) + \sin x}{\cos^2 x} \\ &= \frac{-1 + \sin x}{\cos^2 x} \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 7** At time  $t$  seconds, the velocity of a falling object is  $v = 32t$  ft/sec. Is the object above or below water level when the velocity of the object is  $v = 0$ ?

**SOLUTION** The velocity is the derivative of position, and  $\frac{t}{0} = 2$  feet. Thus, when  $t = 0$ ,  $\frac{dy}{dt} = 2 \cos 0 = 2$ , when  $t = \pi/2$ ,  $\frac{dy}{dt} = 2 \cos \frac{\pi}{2} = 0$ , and when  $t = \pi$ ,  $\frac{dy}{dt} = 2 \cos \pi = -2$ .

Since the tangent, cotangent, secant, and cosecant functions are defined in terms of the sine and cosine functions, the derivatives of these functions can be obtained from Theorem 4 by applying the Quotient Rule. The results are summarized in Theorem 8; for proofs, see Problems 4–8.

### Theorem 8

For all points  $x$  in the function's domain,

$$\begin{aligned} D_x \tan x &= \sec^2 x & D_x \cot x &= -\csc^2 x \\ D_x \sec x &= \sec x \tan x & D_x \csc x &= -\csc x \cot x \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 8** Find  $D_x(x^n \tan x)$  for  $n \geq 1$ .

**SOLUTION** We apply the Product Rule along with Theorem 8.

$$\begin{aligned} D_x(x^n \tan x) &= x^n D_x(\tan x) + \tan x (D_x x^n) \\ &= x^n \sec^2 x + nx^{n-1} \tan x \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 9** Find the equation of the tangent line to the graph of  $f(x) = \sin x$  at the point  $(\pi/4, 1)$ .



24. A Ferris wheel of radius 30 feet is rotating counterclockwise with an angular velocity of 1 radian per second. One seat on the wheel is at (30, 0) in units  $t = 0$ .

- What are its coordinates at  $t = \pi/6$ ?
- How fast is it rising vertically at  $t = \pi/6$ ?
- How fast is it rising when it is rising at the fastest rate?

25. Find the equation of the tangent line to  $y = \tan x$  at

26. Find all points on the graph of  $y = \tan^2 x$  where the tangent line is horizontal.

27. Find all points on the graph of  $y = 4 \sin x \cos x$  where the tangent line is horizontal.

28. Let  $f(x) = x - \sin x$ . Find all points on the graph of  $y = f(x)$  where the tangent line is horizontal. Find all points on the graph of  $y = f'(x)$  where the tangent line has slope

29. Show that the curves  $y = \sqrt{2} \sin x$  and  $y = \sqrt{2} \cos x$  are perpendicular at  $x$  for all  $x$  with  $0 < x < \pi/2$ .

30. At time  $t$  seconds, the center of a bubbling cork is 3 cm below the surface (or below) water level. What is the velocity of the cork at  $t = \pi$ ?

31. Use the definition of the derivative to show that  $D_x(\sin x^2) = 2x \cos x$ .

32. Use the definition of the derivative to show that  $D_x(\sin 2x) = 2 \cos 2x$ .

**EXERCISES** Problems 33 and 34 are concerned with graphing absolute extrema.

33. Let  $f(x) = x \sin x$ .

- Draw the graphs of  $f(x)$  and  $f'(x)$  on  $[-\pi, \pi]$ .
- How many solutions does  $f(x) = 0$  have on  $[\pi, 6\pi]$ ? How many solutions does  $f'(x) = 0$  have on this interval?
- What is wrong with the following conjecture? If  $f$  and  $f'$  are both continuous and differentiable on  $[a, b]$ , if  $f(a) = f(b) = 0$ , and if  $f'(x) = 0$  has exactly  $n$  solutions on  $(a, b)$ , then  $f'(x) = 0$  has exactly  $n + 1$  solutions on  $[a, b]$ .
- Determine the maximum value of  $f(x) = f'(x)$  on  $[\pi, 6\pi]$ .

34. Let  $f(x) = \cos^3 x$ .  $f'(x) = -3 \cos^2 x \sin x = 0.225$ . Find  $f'(x)$  at that value of  $x$  where  $f'(x) = 0$ .

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} & & & & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ & & & & \cos x & \sin x & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 3 \cos x & \sin x & 4 & \frac{1}{2} & \sqrt{3}/2 = 1.732 \end{array}$$

## 2.5 The Chain Rule

Imagine trying to find the derivative of

$$f(x) = (2x^2 - 4x + 1)^{100}$$

We could find the derivative, but we would first have to multiply together the 100 quadratic factors of  $2x^2 - 4x + 1$  and then differentiate the resulting polynomial. Or, how about trying to find the derivative of

$$f(x) = \sin 5x$$

We might be able to use some trigonometric identities to reduce it to a multiple that depends on  $x$  and  $\sin x$  and  $\cos x$ , but the answer seems to be no.

Fortunately, there is a better way. After learning the *Chain Rule*, we will be able to write the answer as

$$f'(x) = 100(2x^2 - 4x + 1)^{99}(2x - 4)$$

and

$$f'(x) = 3 \cos 5x$$

The *Chain Rule* is so important that we will seldom again determine a derivative without using it.

**EXAMPLE 1** Suppose that  $x = 2t$  and  $y = 3x^2 - 1$ . If David can drive 20 miles an hour and Mary and Steve can type twice as fast as Joe, what David can type 20 times as fast as Joe.

Consider the composite function  $y = f(g(x))$ . If we let  $u = g(x)$ , we can then think of  $y$  as a function of  $u$ . Suppose that  $f(u)$  changes twice as fast as  $u$  and  $u = g(x)$  changes three times as fast as  $x$ . How fast is  $y$  changing? The answer is



" $y = f(u)$  changes twice as fast as  $u$ " and " $u = g(x)$  changes three times as fast as  $x$ " can be restated as

$$\frac{dy}{du} = 2 \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{du}{dx} = 3.$$

It was in the previous paragraph it seems as if the rates should multiply. In fact, the rate of change of  $y$  with respect to  $x$  should equal the rate of change of  $y$  with respect to  $u$  times the rate of change of  $u$  with respect to  $x$ . In other words,

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{du} \frac{du}{dx}.$$

There is in fact a rule, and we will state it the precise way at the end of this section. The rule is called the **Chain Rule**.

### Theorem 2 Chain Rule

Let  $y = f(u)$  and  $u = g(x)$ . If  $g$  is differentiable at  $a$  and  $f$  is differentiable at  $u = g(a)$ , then the composite function  $f \circ g$ , defined by  $(f \circ g)(x) = f(g(x))$ , is differentiable at  $a$  and

$$D_a(f \circ g) = D_{g(a)}f \cdot D_a g.$$

That is,

$$D(f(g(x))) = f'(g(x))g'(x)$$

or

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{du} \frac{du}{dx}.$$

You can remember the Chain Rule this way: *The derivative of a composite function is the derivative of the outer function evaluated at an inner function times the derivative of the inner function.*

**EXAMPLE 1** Find  $D_x y$  if  $y = (2x^2 - 4x + 1)^{10}$ . We begin with the example  $(2x^2 - 4x + 1)^{10}$  introduced at the beginning of this section.

**SOLUTION** If  $y = (2x^2 - 4x + 1)^{10}$ , find  $D_x y$ .

**SOLUTION** We think of  $y$  as the 10th power of a function of  $x$  that is

$$y = u^{10} \quad \text{and} \quad u = 2x^2 - 4x + 1.$$

The outer function is  $f(u) = u^{10}$  and the inner function is  $u = g(x) = 2x^2 - 4x + 1$ . Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} D_x y &= D_x(f(g(x))) \\ &= f'(u)g'(x) \\ &= (10u^9)(4x - 4) \\ &= 10(2x^2 - 4x + 1)^9(4x - 4) \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 2** If  $y = x - 2x$ , find  $\frac{dy}{dx}$ .

**EXAMPLE 3**

price of an item will fall, may be obtained using the derivative.

**The two-step calculation**  
~~is~~ ~~done~~ ~~in~~ ~~the~~ ~~next~~ ~~step~~  
~~of~~ ~~the~~ ~~calculation~~

For example, the next step in calculating  $y = x^3 + 1$  in Example 3 is that you would first apply the Chain Rule to the cube function. The next step in calculating

$$x^3$$

$$x = 1$$

is to take the derivative of the first rule (to use in differentiating is the Quotient Rule).

**SOLUTION** Think of it this way:

$$y = \frac{1}{u} = u^{-1} \quad \text{where } u = x^4 + 3.$$

Thus

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dy}{dx} &= \frac{dy}{du} \cdot \frac{du}{dx} \\ &= \frac{-1}{u^2} \cdot 4x^3 \\ &= \frac{-4x^3}{(x^4 + 3)^2} \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 4** Find  $D_x \left( \frac{x^3 - 2x + 1}{x^4 + 3} \right)$ .

**SOLUTION** The first step in calculating this expression would be to write the expressions on the inside of the quotient as  $u$ . Thus we begin by applying the Chain Rule to the function  $y = u^3$ , where  $u = (x^3 - 2x + 1)/(x^4 + 3)$ . The Chain Rule followed by the Quotient Rule gives

$$\begin{aligned} D_x \left( \frac{x^3 - 2x + 1}{x^4 + 3} \right) &= D_x \left( \frac{x^3 - 2x + 1}{x^4 + 3} \right)^{u^3} D_x \left( \frac{x^3 - 2x + 1}{x^4 + 3} \right) \\ &= 3 \left( \frac{x^3 - 2x + 1}{x^4 + 3} \right)^2 D_x \left( \frac{x^3 - 2x + 1}{x^4 + 3} \right) \\ &= 3 \left( \frac{x^3 - 2x + 1}{x^4 + 3} \right)^2 \frac{-x^4 - 6x^2 - 4x^3 - 15x - 11}{(x^4 + 3)^2} \\ &= -3 \left( \frac{x^3 - 2x + 1}{x^4 + 3} \right)^3 \frac{-x^4 - 6x^2 - 4x^3 - 15x - 11}{(x^4 + 3)} \end{aligned}$$

The Chain Rule implies computation of three derivatives by using the quotient rule function. Although it is possible to differentiate  $y = \sin 2x$  using the quotient rule, we prefer to use Problem 1 of the next section because it is much easier to use the Chain Rule.

**EXAMPLE 5** Find  $D_x (\sin 2x)$  using  $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{du} \cdot \frac{du}{dx}$ .

**SOLUTION** The next step in calculating this derivative would be to write the quantity  $\sin$  as  $y$ ; thus we use the Chain Rule in the next step, and  $u = 2x$  where  $y = \sin u$ .

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = (\sin 2x) \left( \frac{d}{dx} 2x \right) = 2 \cos 2x$$

**EXAMPLE 6** Find  $F'(x)$  where  $F(x) = y \sin v^2$ .

**SOLUTION** The next step in calculating this expression would be to multiply and  $\sin v^2$ , so we begin by applying the Product Rule. The Chain Rule is needed when we differentiate  $\sin v^2$ .

$$\begin{aligned} F'(x) &= x D_x [\sin v^2] + (\sin v^2) D_x (x) \\ &= x (\cos v^2) D_x (v^2) + (\sin v^2) (1) \\ &= 2x^2 \cos v^2 + \sin v^2 \end{aligned}$$

### EXAMPLE 2 Find $D_x \frac{x^2}{1+x}$ .

**SOLUTION** The first step in differentiating this expression would be to take the quotient. Thus the Quotient Rule would first have to be applied. But it can be that when we take the derivative of the same time we must apply the Product Rule and then the Chain Rule.

$$\begin{aligned} D_x \frac{x^2(1+x)}{1+x} &= (1+x)D_x(x^2(1-x)^2) - x^2(1-x)^2D_x(1+x) \\ &= (1+x)[x^2D_x(1-x)^2 + (1-x)^2D_x(x^2)] - x^2(1-x)^2 \\ &= (1+x)[x^2(2(1-x)^{-1})(-1)) + (1-x)^2(2x)] - x^2(1-x)^2 \\ &= (1+x)[-2x^2(1-x)^{-1}] + 2x^2(1-x)^2 - x^2(1-x)^2 \\ &= (1+x)(1-x)^{-1}x(2-3x) - x^2(1-x) \\ &= \frac{(1+x)(1-x)x(2-3x) - x^2(1-x)}{(1+x)^2} \end{aligned}$$

### EXAMPLE 3 Find $\frac{d}{dx} \sqrt{x^2+1}$ .

#### Notations for the Derivative

In this section, we have used all the various notations for the derivative, namely,

and

You should by now be familiar with all these notations. We will all use  $\frac{dy}{dx}$  in the remainder of the book.

#### SOLUTION

$$\frac{d}{dx} \sqrt{x^2+1} = \frac{d}{dx} (x^2+1)^{1/2} = \frac{1}{2}(x^2+1)^{-1/2} \cdot \frac{d}{dx} (x^2+1) = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{2x}{\sqrt{x^2+1}} = \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2+1}}.$$

In this last example, we were able to use the power rule for differentiation like the Quotient Rule. You should notice that the derivative of the function  $\sqrt{x^2+1}$  which implies the calculation. You should work this problem like the previous the same time as above. As a rule, the derivative of the function of a function is a constant, then do not use the Quotient Rule to find the derivative of a function like the previous one. The constant rule is a special case of the Chain Rule, and hence, not Chain Rule.

**EXAMPLE 4** Find  $\frac{d}{dx} F(x^2)$  where  $F$  is differentiable. This is an example of  $F \circ G$ . Assume that  $F$  is differentiable.

$$(a) D_x(F(x^2)) \quad \text{and} \quad (b) D_x(F(x^2)^2)$$

#### SOLUTION

(a) The first step in differentiating this expression would be to apply the Chain Rule. Let  $u = x^2$  and let  $y = F(u)$ . Then

$$D_x(F(x^2)) = D_x(F(u)) = D_u(F(u)) \cdot D_x(x^2) = F'(u) \cdot 2x = 2x F'(x^2)$$

(b) For this expression we would first evaluate  $F(x^2)$  and then cube the result. (Here the inner function is  $u = F(x^2)$  and the outer function is  $y = u^3$ .) Thus we apply the Power Rule first, then the Chain Rule,

$$D_x(F(x^2)^2) = 3(F(x^2))^2 D_x(F(x^2)) = 3(F(x^2))^2 F'(x^2) \cdot 2x$$

As  $x$  approaches  $a$ ,  $F(x^2)$  approaches  $F(a^2)$ . So, sometimes when we apply the Chain Rule to a composite function we find that differentiation of the inner function also requires the Chain Rule. In cases like this we simply have to use the Chain Rule a second time.

**EXAMPLE 7** Find  $D_x \sin^3 4x$ .

**SOLUTION** Remember  $\sin^3 x = [\sin(x)]^3$ , so we view this as the cube of a function of  $x$ . Then, using our rule, “derivative of the outer function evaluated at the inner function times the derivative of the inner function,” we have

$$D_x \sin^3(4x) = D_x[\sin(4x)]^3 = 3[\sin(4x)]^2 D_x[\sin(4x)].$$

Now we apply the Chain Rule once again for the derivative of the inner function

$$\begin{aligned} D_x \sin(4x) &= 3[\sin(4x)]^2 D_x \sin(4x) \\ &= 3[\sin(4x)]^2 \cos(4x) D_x(4x) \\ &= 3[\sin(4x)]^2 \cos(4x) (4) \\ &= 12 \cos(4x) \sin^2(4x). \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 8** Find  $D_x \sin(\cos x^2)$ .

**SOLUTION**

$$\begin{aligned} D_x \sin(\cos(x^2)) &= \cos(\cos(x^2)) \cdot (-\sin(x^2)) \cdot 2x \\ &= -2x \sin(x^2) \cos(\cos(x^2)). \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 9** Suppose that the graphs of  $y = f(x)$  and  $y = g(x)$  are as shown in Figure 1. Use these graphs to approximate  $(f \circ g)'(2)$  and  $(f \circ g)'(1)$ .

**SOLUTION**

(a) By Theorem 2.4.1,  $(f \circ g)'(2) = f'(g(2)) \cdot g'(2)$ . From Figure 1 we can determine that  $f'(1) = 1$  and  $g'(2) = \frac{1}{2}$ . Thus

$$(f \circ g)'(2) = 1 \cdot \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}.$$

(b) From Figure 1 we can determine that  $(f \circ g)'(1) = \frac{1}{2}$  by the Chain Rule.

$$(f \circ g)'(1) = f'(g(1))g'(1) = f'\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)g'(1) = \frac{1}{2} \left(-\frac{1}{2}\right) = -\frac{1}{4}.$$

**PROOF** Figure 2 suggests that  $(f \circ g)'(2) = \frac{1}{2}$ . We will now give a rigorous proof of the Chain Rule.

**Proof** We suppose that  $x = x_0$  and  $y = g(x_0)$  (so  $g$  is differentiable at  $x_0$  and that  $f$  is differentiable at  $y = g(x_0)$ ). When  $x$  is given an increment  $\Delta x$ , there is a corresponding increment  $\Delta u$  in  $u = g(x)$  so

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta u &= g(x + \Delta x) - g(x) \\ \Delta y &= f(g(x + \Delta x)) - f(g(x)) \\ &= f(u + \Delta u) - f(u). \end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dy}{dx} &= \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta x} = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta u} \frac{\Delta u}{\Delta x} \\ &= \lim_{\Delta u \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta u} \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta u}{\Delta x} \end{aligned}$$

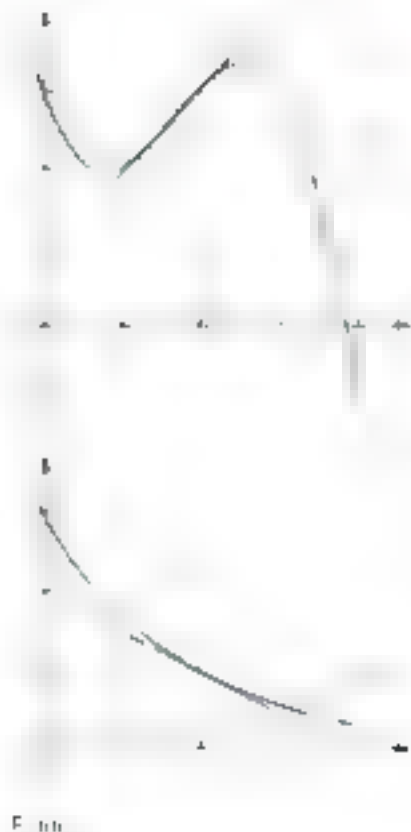


FIGURE 1

Since  $u$  is differentiable at  $x$ ,  $u$  is continuous there (Theorem 2.4), and so  $\Delta u \rightarrow 0$  as  $\Delta x \rightarrow 0$ . Hence

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta u} \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta u}{\Delta x} = \frac{dy}{du} \cdot \frac{du}{dx}$$

This proof was very slick, but unfortunately it contains a subtle flaw. There are functions  $u = u(x)$  that have the property that  $\Delta u \neq 0$  for some points in every neighborhood of  $x$  (the constant function  $u(x) = k$  is a good example). This means the division by  $\Delta u$  in our first step might not be legal. The  $\epsilon$  is no simple way to get around the difficulty, though the Chain Rule is still true even in this case. We will see a complete proof of the Chain Rule in the appendix (Section A.2, Theorem 8).

## Concepts Review

1. If  $u = f(x)$  and  $y = u$ , then  $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{du} \cdot \frac{du}{dx}$ .
2. If  $u = G(x)$ , where  $y = f(u)$ , then  $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{du} \cdot \frac{du}{dx}$ .
3. If  $u = G(x)$ , where  $y = f(u)$ , then  $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{du} \cdot \frac{du}{dx}$ .
4. If  $u = G(x)$ , where  $y = f(u)$ , then  $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{du} \cdot \frac{du}{dx}$ .

## Problem Set 2.5

In Problems 1–24, find  $D_x y$ .

1.  $y = x^2 + 3x - 5$
2.  $y = (3 - 2x)^2$
3.  $y = x^2 + 3x - 5$
4.  $y = (4 - 2x)^2$
5.  $y = x^2 + 3x - 5$
6.  $y = x^2 + 3x - 5$
7.  $y = \frac{1}{x^2 + 3x}$
8.  $y = \sin(x^2 - x)$
9.  $y = \cos(x^2 - x)$
10.  $y = \tan(x^2 - x)$
11.  $y = \sec(x^2 - x)$
12.  $y = \csc(x^2 - x)$
13.  $y = \frac{1}{x^2 + 3x}$
14.  $y = \frac{1}{x^2 + 3x}$
15.  $y = \frac{1}{x^2 + 3x}$
16.  $y = \frac{1}{x^2 + 3x}$
17.  $y = \frac{1}{x^2 + 3x}$
18.  $y = \frac{1}{x^2 + 3x}$
19.  $y = \frac{1}{x^2 + 3x}$
20.  $y = \frac{1}{x^2 + 3x}$

In Problems 25–38, find the indicated derivatives.

21.  $\frac{dy}{dx}$  when  $y = x^2 + 3x - 5$
22.  $\frac{dy}{dx}$  when  $y = x^2 + 3x - 5$
23.  $\frac{dy}{dx}$  when  $y = x^2 + 3x - 5$
24.  $\frac{dy}{dx}$  when  $y = x^2 + 3x - 5$
25.  $\frac{dy}{dx}$  when  $y = x^2 + 3x - 5$
26.  $\frac{dy}{dx}$  when  $y = x^2 + 3x - 5$
27.  $\frac{dy}{dx}$  when  $y = x^2 + 3x - 5$
28.  $\frac{dy}{dx}$  when  $y = x^2 + 3x - 5$

In Problems 39–46, evaluate the indicated derivative.

39.  $\frac{dy}{dx}$  when  $y = x^2 + 3x - 5$

$$39. G'(1) \text{ if } G(x) = (x^2 + 3x - 5)^2$$

$$40. \frac{dy}{dx} \text{ when } y = x^2 + 3x - 5$$

$$41. \frac{dy}{dx} \text{ when } y = x^2 + 3x - 5$$

In Problems 42–46, use the Chain Rule to find the indicated derivative.

42.  $D_x [\sin^2(x^2 + 3x)]$
43.  $D_x [\cos^2(x^2 + 3x)]$
44.  $D_x [\tan^2(x^2 + 3x)]$
45.  $D_x [\sec^2(x^2 + 3x)]$
46.  $D_x [\csc^2(x^2 + 3x)]$

In Problems 47–58, use Figures 2 and 3 to approximate the indicated derivatives.



Figure 2

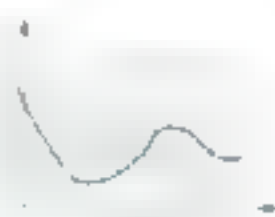


Figure 3

47.  $f'(2)$
48.  $f'(2)$
49.  $f'(2)$
50.  $f'(2)$
51.  $f'(2)$
52.  $f'(2)$
53.  $f'(2)$
54.  $f'(2)$
55.  $f'(2)$
56.  $f'(2)$
57.  $f'(2)$
58.  $f'(2)$

In Problems 47–58, express the indicated derivative in terms of  $f$  and  $x$ . Assume that  $f$  is differentiable.

47.  $f'(2)$
48.  $f'(2)$

49.  $D_t[F(t_0)^{-1}]$       50.  $\frac{d}{dt}\left(\frac{1}{F(t)}\right)$
51.  $\frac{d}{dx}[(1 + (F(2x'))^2]$       52.  $\frac{d}{dx}\left(x^2 + \frac{1}{x}\right)$
53.  $\frac{d}{dx}F(\cos x)$       54.  $\frac{d}{dx}\cos F(x)$
55.  $D_x \tan F(2x)$       56.  $\frac{d}{dx}g(\tan 2x)$
57.  $D_x[F(x) \sin F(x)]$       58.  $D_x \sec^2 F(x)$

48. Given that  $f'(0) = 3$  and  $f'(0) = 2$ , find  $f'(0)$  where  $g(x) = f(x)$ .

49. Given that  $f'(0) = 3$  and  $f'(0) = -1$ , find  $g'(0)$  where  $g(x) = \frac{1}{f(x)} + \sin F(2x)$ .

50. Given that  $f'(1) = 2$ ,  $f'(1) = -1$ ,  $g(1) = 0$  and  $g'(1) = -1$  find  $f'(1)$  where  $F(x) = f(x) + \sin g(x)$ .

51. Find the equation of the tangent line to the graph of  $y = \sin^{-1}(x)$ . Where does this line cross the  $x$ -axis?

52. Find all points on the graph of  $y = \sin x$  where the tangent line has slope 0.

53. Find the equation of the tangent line to  $y = \frac{1}{x}$ .

54. Find the equation of the tangent line to  $y = \frac{1}{x}$  at  $x = 1$ .

55. Where does the tangent line to  $y = (2x + 3)^2$  at  $(0, 1)$  cross the  $x$ -axis?

56. Where does the tangent line to  $y = (x^2 + 1)^2$  at  $(1, 4)$  cross the  $x$ -axis?

57. A point  $P$  is moving in the plane so that its coordinates after  $t$  seconds are  $(4 \cos 2t, 3 \sin 2t)$  measured in feet.

a. Show that  $P$  is following an elliptical path. *Hint:* Show that  $(x/4)^2 + (y/3)^2 = 1$  which is an equation of an ellipse.

b. Obtain an expression for  $d$ , the distance of  $P$  from the origin at time  $t$ .

c. How fast is the distance between  $P$  and the origin changing when  $t = \pi/4$ ? (You will need the fact that  $D_t(\sqrt{x}) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$ , see Example 4 of Section 2.2.)

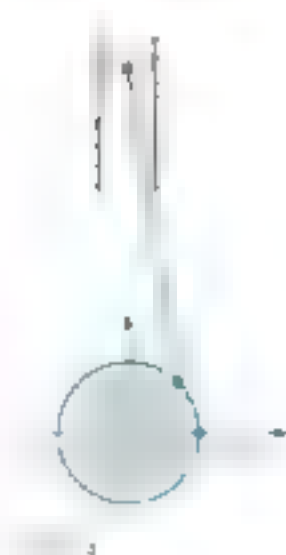
58. A wheel centered at the origin and of radius 0 centimeters is rotating counterclockwise at a rate of 4 revolutions per second. A point  $P$  on the rim is at  $(0, 0)$  at  $t = 0$ .

- a. What are the coordinates of  $P$  at time  $t$  seconds?  
 b. What rate is  $P$  rising or falling at time  $t = 1$ ?

59. Consider the wheel-piston device in Figure 4. The wheel has radius 1 foot and rotates counterclockwise at 2 radians per second. The connecting rod is 4 feet long. The point  $P$  is at  $(1, 0)$  at time  $t = 0$ .

- a. Find the coordinates of  $P$  at time  $t$ .  
 b. Find the  $y$ -coordinate of  $Q$  at time  $t$  (the  $x$ -coordinate is always zero).

(c) Find the velocity of  $Q$  at time  $t$ . You will need the fact that  $D_t(\sqrt{x}) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$ .



60. Do Problem 59, assuming that the wheel is rotating at 40 revolutions per minute and is measured in seconds.

61. The dial of a standard clock has a 30-centimeter radius. One end of an elastic string is attached to the rim at 2 and is other to the tip of the 30-centimeter minute hand. At what rate is the string stretching at 12:15 (assuming that the clock is not slowed down for this stretching)?

62. The hour and minute hands of a clock are 6 and 8 inches long, respectively. How fast are the tips of the hands separating at 12:30 (see Figure 5)? *Hint:* Law of Cosines.



63. Find the approximate time between 12:00 and 1:00 when the distance between the tips of the hands in Figure 5 is increasing most rapidly. That is, when the derivative  $ds/dt$  is largest.

64. Let  $\alpha$  be the smallest positive value of  $t$  at which the curves  $y = \sin t$  and  $y = t$  intersect. Find  $\alpha$  and describe the angle  $\alpha$ , which the two curves intersect at. *Hint:* Problem 62, Sec. 6.6.

65. An isosceles triangle is inscribed by a semicircle, as shown in Figure 6. Let  $\theta$  be the angle at the origin  $O$  and let  $A$  be the area of the shaded region. Find a formula for  $D_t A$  in terms of  $\theta$  and then calculate

$$\lim_{\theta \rightarrow 0} \frac{D_t A}{\theta} \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{\theta \rightarrow \pi} \frac{D_t A}{\theta}$$

77. Show that  $D_x(x^p) = (p)x^{p-1}$ ,  $p \neq 0$ . First write  $x^p = \sqrt[p]{x^p}$  and use the Chain Rule with  $u = x^p$ .

78. Apply the result of Problem 77 to find  $D_x(x^2) = 2x$ .

79. Apply the result of Problem 77 to find  $D_x(x^3) = 3x^2$ .

80. In this problem we will study a function  $f$  satisfying  $f'(x) = -x$ . Find each of the following derivatives.

(a)  $D_x(f(x^2))$  (b)  $D_x(f(\cos^2 x))$

81. Find  $f'(x)$  and  $f''(x)$ . Find the  $x$ -values at which  $f'(x) = 0$ .

82. Suppose that  $f$  is a differentiable function.

(a) Find  $\frac{d}{dx}(x^2 f(x))$ . (b) Find  $\frac{d}{dx}(x^2 f(x^2))$ .

(c) Let  $f^{(k)}$  denote the function defined as follows,  $f^{(0)} = f$  and  $f^{(k)}(x) = \frac{d}{dx} f^{(k-1)}(x)$  for  $k \geq 1$ . Thus  $f^{(1)} = f'$ ,  $f^{(2)} = f''$ , etc. Based on your results from parts (a) and (b),

make a conjecture regarding  $\frac{d}{dx} f^{(k)}$ . Prove your conjecture.

83. Give a second proof of the Quotient Rule. Write

$$D_x \left( \frac{f}{g} \right) = D_x \left( f \cdot \frac{1}{g} \right)$$

and use the Product Rule and the Chain Rule.

84. Suppose that  $f$  is differentiable and that there are constants  $a$  and  $b$  such that  $f'(x) = a$  and  $f''(x) = b$ . Show that  $f(x) = \frac{b}{2}x^2 + ax + c$  for some constant  $c$ .

Answers to Odd-Numbered Problems 1.  $D_x f = f'(x)$

2.  $D_x(x^2) = 2x$  3.  $D_x(x^3) = 3x^2$

4.  $D_x(x^4) = 4x^3$

## Higher-Order Derivatives

The operation of differentiation takes a function and produces a new function. If we now differentiate  $f'$ , we produce a second function, denoted by  $f''$  and called the **second derivative** of  $f$ . It is also the derivative of the first derivative  $f'$ , which is called the **third derivative** of  $f$ , and so on. The **fourth derivative** is denoted by  $f^{(4)}$ , the **fifth derivative** is denoted by  $f^{(5)}$ , and so on. If  $f$  is a cubic,

$$f(x) = 2x^3 + 4x^2 + 7x + 8$$

then

$$f'(x) = 6x^2 + 8x + 7$$

$$f''(x) = 12x + 8$$

$$f'''(x) = 12$$

$$f^{(4)}(x) = 0$$

Since the derivative of the zero function is zero, the fourth derivative and all higher-order derivatives of  $f$  will be zero.

We have introduced two notations for the derivative (now also called the **first derivative**) of  $y = f(x)$ . They are

$$f'(x) = D_x y = \frac{dy}{dx}$$

call  $x$  respectively the *prime notation*, the *D notation*, and the *Leibniz notation*. There is a variation of the prime notation, but we will not use it in this book. All the  $x$  notations have extensions for higher-order derivatives, as shown in the accompanying table. Note especially the Leibniz notation, which, though cumbersome, seems more appropriate to Leibniz. What, though, is more natural than  $y'$  or  $y''$ ?

$$\frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} = \frac{d^2}{dx^2} y$$



Leibniz's notation for the second derivative is read *the sec-ond der-ivative of  $y$  with respect to  $x$* .

Derivative	Notation	Notation	Notation	Notation
First	$y'$ or $\frac{dy}{dx}$	$y'$	$y''$	$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$
Second	$y''$ or $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$	$y''$	$y'''$	$\frac{d^3y}{dx^3}$
Third	$y'''$ or $\frac{d^3y}{dx^3}$	$y'''$	$y^{(4)}$	$\frac{d^4y}{dx^4}$
Fourth	$y^{(4)}$ or $\frac{d^4y}{dx^4}$	$y^{(4)}$	$y^{(5)}$	$\frac{d^5y}{dx^5}$
$n$ th	$y^{(n)}$ or $\frac{d^ny}{dx^n}$	$y^{(n)}$	$y^{(n)}$	$\frac{d^ny}{dx^n}$

**EXAMPLE 1** If  $y = \sin^2 x$ , find  $y'$ ,  $y''$ ,  $y'''$ ,  $y^{(4)}$ , and  $y^{(5)}$ .

**SOLUTION**

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dy}{dx} &= 2 \cos^2 x \\ y' &= 2 \cos^2 x \\ \frac{d}{dx} &= 2 \cos^2 x \\ \frac{d}{dx} &= 2 \cos^2 x \\ \frac{d}{dx} &= 2 \cos^2 x \\ \frac{d}{dx} &= 2 \cos^2 x \\ \frac{d}{dx} &= 2 \cos^2 x \\ \frac{d}{dx} &= 2 \cos^2 x \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 2** In Section 2.1 we used the notation  $\frac{d}{dt}$  to denote the derivative of a function with respect to time  $t$ . Let's review this notation by means of an example. Also from now on we will use the angle with arc length in place of the more cumbersome phrase *arc measure or velocity*.

**EXAMPLE 3** An object moves along a coordinate line so that its position  $s$  satisfies  $s = 2t^2 - 12t + 8$ , where  $s$  is measured in centimeters and  $t$  in seconds with  $t \geq 0$ . Determine the velocity of the object when  $t = 5$  and when  $t = 6$ . When is the velocity 0? When is it positive?

**SOLUTION** If we use the symbol  $v(t)$  for the velocity at time  $t$ , then

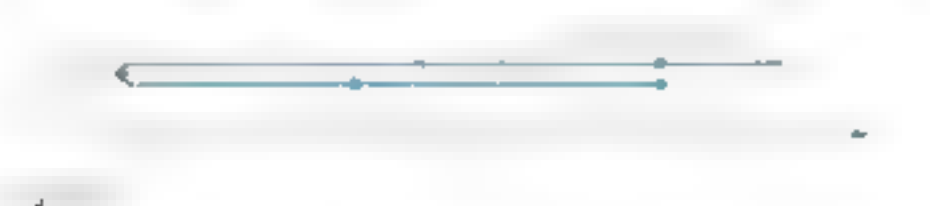
$$v(t) = \frac{ds}{dt} = 4t - 12$$

Thus

$$v(5) = 4(5) - 12 = 8 \text{ centimeters per second}$$

$$v(6) = 4(6) - 12 = 12 \text{ centimeters per second}$$

The velocity is 0 when  $4t - 12 = 0$ , that is, when  $t = 3$ . The velocity is positive when  $4t - 12 > 0$ , or when  $t > 3$ . All this is shown schematically in Figure 2.6.1.



The object is, of course, moving along the  $s$ -axis, not on the colored path above it. But the colored path shows what happens to the object. Between  $t = 0$  and  $t = 3$ , its velocity is negative; the object is moving in the  $s$  backward direction. At time  $t = 3$ , it has “turned around” and for  $t > 3$  it is moving in the right  $s$  direction. Its velocity becomes positive. Thus, negative velocity corresponds to slowing in the direction of decreasing  $s$ ; positive velocity corresponds to slowing in the direction of increasing  $s$ . A rigorous discussion of these points will be given in Chapter 3. ■

There is a technical distinction between the words *velocity* and *speed*. Velocity is a vector associated with a motion; for positive  $s$ , negative *speed* is defined to be the absolute value of the velocity. Thus, to speak of the *speed* of the object is to say it is moving at 4 centimeters per second. The *speed* is in that case a *speedometer*; it always gives nonnegative values.

Now we want to give a physical interpretation of the second derivative  $d^2s/dt^2$ . For, of course, just as the first derivative of the position  $s$  has, meaning, the rate of change of  $s$  with respect to time, which has the name *velocity*. If it is denoted by  $v$ , then

$$v = \frac{ds}{dt} = \frac{d}{dt}s$$

In Example 2,  $s = 2t^2 - 12t + 18$ . Thus

$$v = \frac{ds}{dt} = 4t - 12$$

$$a = \frac{dv}{dt} = 4$$

This means that the velocity is increasing at a constant rate of 4 centimeters per second every second, which we write as 4 centimeters per second per second, or as  $4 \text{ cm/sec}^2$ .

**EXAMPLE 3** An object moves along a horizontal coordinate line in such a way that its position at time  $t$  is specified by

$$s = -\frac{1}{3}t^3 + 12t^2 - 46t + 24$$

If  $t = 0$  is measured in feet and  $t$  in seconds.

- When is the velocity 0?
- When is the velocity positive?
- When is the object moving in the left (that is, in the negative) direction?
- When is the acceleration positive?

**SOLUTION**

(a)  $v = ds/dt = -t^2 + 24t - 46 = 3(t - 2)(t - 6)$ . Thus,  $v = 0$  at  $t = 2$  and at  $t = 6$ .

(b)  $v > 0$  when  $(t - 2)(t - 6) > 0$ . We learned how to solve quadratic inequalities in Section 0.2. The solution is  $\{t, t < 2 \text{ or } t > 6\}$  or, in interval notation,  $(-\infty, 2) \cup (6, \infty)$ ; see Figure 2.7.

### Measuring Time

$t = 0$  corresponds to the present moment,  $t = 1$  to one second in the past, and  $t = 2$  to the future. In the next chapter we will show that we are concerned only with the past. However, since the statement of Example 3 does not specify this, it seems reasonable to allow  $t$  to have negative as well as positive values.



- (c) The object is moving to the left when  $v < 0$ , that is, when  $(t - 2)(t - 6) < 0$ . This inequality has as its solution the interval  $(2, 6)$ .
- (d)  $s = \int v \, dt = 6t^2 - 24t + 6(t - 4)$ . Thus,  $s > 0$  when  $t > 4$ . The motion of the object is shown schematically in Figure 3.



Figure 3

**Problems** If an object is thrown straight upward (or downward) from an initial height of  $s_0$  feet with an initial velocity of  $v_0$  feet per second and  $f$  is its height above the ground in feet after  $t$  seconds, then

$$h(t) = -\frac{1}{2}gt^2 + v_0t + s_0.$$

This assumes that the experiment takes place near sea level and that air resistance is negligible. The diagram at the right shows the setup in the next example. Notice that positive velocity means that the object is moving upward.

**EXAMPLE 4** From the top of a building 160 feet high a ball is thrown upward with an initial velocity of 64 feet per second.

- When does it reach its maximum height?
- What is its maximum height?
- When does it hit the ground?
- With what speed does it hit the ground?
- What is its acceleration at  $t = 3$ ?

**SOLUTION** As in Example 3, we express the height  $s$  of the ball with  $s = h(t)$ . In this case,  $s_0 = 160$  and  $v_0 = 64$ , so  $s$  is positive because the ball was thrown upward. Thus

$$\begin{aligned}s &= -16t^2 + 64t + 160 \\v &= \frac{ds}{dt} = 32t + 64 \\a &= \frac{dv}{dt} = 32\end{aligned}$$

- The ball reached its maximum height at the time its velocity was 0, that is, when  $-32t + 64 = 0$  or when  $t = 2$  seconds.
- At  $t = 2$ ,  $s = -16(2)^2 + 64(2) + 160 = 224$  feet.
- The ball hit the ground when  $s = 0$ , that is, when

$$-16t^2 + 64t + 160 = 0$$

Dividing by  $-16$  yields

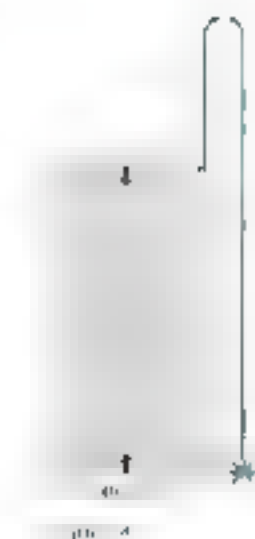
$$t^2 - 4t - 10 = 0.$$

The quadratic formula then gives

$$t = \frac{4 \pm \sqrt{16 + 40}}{2} = \frac{4 \pm 2\sqrt{14}}{2} = 2 \pm \sqrt{14}.$$

Only the positive answer makes sense. Thus, the ball hit the ground at  $t = 2 + \sqrt{14} \approx 5.74$  seconds.

- At  $t = 2 + \sqrt{14}$ ,  $v = -32(2 + \sqrt{14}) + 64 \approx -119.73$ . Thus, the ball hit the ground with a speed of  $119.73$  feet per second.



- (c) The acceleration is always  $-32$  feet per second per second. This is the acceleration of gravity near sea level. ■

## Concepts Review

- If  $v = f(x)$ , then the derivative of  $v$  with respect to  $x$  can be denoted by any one of the following four symbols:
  - $f'(x)$
  - $\frac{dv}{dx}$
  - $\frac{d}{dx}f(x)$
  - $\frac{d}{dx}v$
- If  $s = f(t)$  denotes the position of a particle on a coordinate line at time  $t$ , then its velocity is given by \_\_\_\_\_, its speed is given by \_\_\_\_\_, and its acceleration is given by \_\_\_\_\_.

- If  $s = f(t)$  denotes the position of an object at time  $t$ , then the object is moving in the \_\_\_\_\_ if \_\_\_\_\_.
- Assume that an object is thrown straight upward so that its height  $s$  at time  $t$  is given by  $s = f(t)$ . The object reaches its maximum height when  $ds/dt =$  \_\_\_\_\_, after which  $ds/dt$  \_\_\_\_\_.

## Problem Set 2.6

In Problems 1–6, find  $d^2y/dx^2$ .

- $y = x^2 + 3x - 5$
- $y = x^3 - 2x^2 + x - 7$
- $y = x^4 - 3x^3 + 2x^2 - x + 1$
- $y = x^5 - 4x^4 + 3x^3 - 2x^2 + x - 6$
- $y = \sin x$
- $y = \cos x$
- $y = e^x$
- $y = \ln x$

In Problems 7–10, find  $f''(x)$ .

- $f(x) = x^3 - 2x^2 + x - 5$
- $f(x) = 3x^4 + 2x^3 + x$
- $f(x) = \frac{2}{x}$
- $f(x) = \frac{3x^2}{x^2 + 1}$
- $f(x) = \cos(3x)$
- $f(x) = \sin(2x)$
- $f(x) = e^{3x}$
- $f(x) = \ln(x - 1)$

11. Let  $f(x) = x(x - 1)(x - 2) \cdots (x - 20)$ . Then  $f'(3) = 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 \cdots 19 = 3!$  and  $f'(5) = 5 \cdot 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdots 1 = 5!$ . We give  $f'$  the name  $g$  for brevity. Show that  $f'(x) = g(x)$ .

12. Find a formula for

$$\frac{d^2}{dx^2} \left( \frac{1}{x} \right), \quad \frac{d^2}{dx^2} \left( \frac{1}{x^2} \right), \quad \frac{d^2}{dx^2} \left( \frac{1}{x^3} \right).$$

13. Without doing any calculations, find each derivative.

- $\frac{d}{dx} \left( \frac{1}{x} \right)$
- $\frac{d}{dx} \left( \frac{1}{x^2} \right)$
- $\frac{d}{dx} \left( \frac{1}{x^3} \right)$
- $\frac{d}{dx} \left( \frac{1}{x^4} \right)$

14. Find a formula for  $f''(x)$ .

- If  $f(x) = x^3 + 3x^2 - 45x + 6$ , find the value of  $f''$  at each zero of  $f'$  (that is, at each point  $x$  where  $f'(x) = 0$ ).

- Suppose that  $g(t) = at^3 + bt + c$  and  $g(1) = 3$ ,  $g'(1) = 4$ , and  $g''(1) = 5$ . Find  $a$ ,  $b$ , and  $c$ .

In Problems 15–20, an object is moving along a horizontal coordinate line according to the formula  $s = f(t)$ , where  $s$  is the directed position from the origin, in feet, and  $t$  is in seconds. For each case answer the following questions (see Examples 2 and 3).

- What are  $v(t)$  and  $a(t)$ , the velocity and acceleration, at time  $t$ ?
- When is the object moving to the right?
- When is it moving to the left?
- When is its acceleration negative?
- Draw a schematic diagram that shows the motion of the object.

- $s = t^3 - 3t^2 + 2t$
- $s = t^4 - 4t^3 + 6t^2 - 4t + 1$
- $s = t^5 - 5t^4 + 10t^3 - 10t^2 + 5t - 1$
- $s = t^6 - 6t^5 + 15t^4 - 20t^3 + 15t^2 - 6t + 1$
- $s = \sin t$
- $s = \cos t$
- $s = e^t$
- $s = \ln t$

21. If  $x = \frac{1}{2}t^3 - 5t^2 + 12t$ , find the velocity of the moving object when it is at the position  $x = 0$ .

22. If  $x = \frac{1}{2}t^3 - 4t^2 + 6t$ , find the velocity of the moving object when it is at the position  $x = 0$ .

23. Two objects move along a coordinate line. At the end of  $t$  seconds their directed distances from the origin in feet are given by  $s_1 = t^3 - 6t^2 + 9t$  and  $s_2 = t^3 - 12t^2 + 20t$ .

- When do the two objects have the same velocity?
- When do the two objects have the same position?
- When do the two objects have the same position?

24. The positions of two objects  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  on a coordinate line at the end of  $t$  seconds are given by  $s_1 = 3t^3 + 12t^2 + 9t + 3$  and  $s_2 = -t^3 + 6t^2 - 2t$ , respectively. When do the two objects have the same velocity?

25. An object thrown directly upward 64 ft at a height of  $s = -16t^2 + 48t = 16t$  feet after  $t$  seconds (see Example 4).

- What is its initial velocity?
- When does it reach its maximum height?
- What is its maximum height?
- When does it hit the ground?
- With what speed does it hit the ground?

26. An object thrown directly upward from ground level with an initial velocity of 48 feet per second is  $s = 48t - 16t^2$  feet high at the end of  $t$  seconds.

- What is the maximum height it attains?
- How fast is the object moving, and in which direction, at the end of  $t = 2$  and  $t = 3$ ?
- How long does it take to return to its original position?

27. A  $10$ -lb object is thrown straight up from the ground with an initial velocity of 48 feet per second. A height of 64 feet is reached. What must be the initial velocity for the projectile to reach a maximum height of 128 ft?

28. An object thrown directly downward from the top of a cliff with an initial velocity of 48 feet per second falls  $s = 16t^2 + 48t$  feet in  $t$  seconds. It strikes the ocean below in 3 seconds with a speed of 40 feet per second. How high is the cliff?

37. An object moves along a horizontal coordinate line in such a way that its position at time  $t$  is specified by  $s = t^3 - 3t^2 - 24t + 6$ . Here  $s$  is measured in centimeters and  $t$  in seconds. When is the object slowing down, that is, when is its speed decreasing?

38. Explain why an object moving along a line is slowing down when its velocity and acceleration have opposite signs (see Problem 37).

17.1.39. Leibniz obtained a general formula for  $D_x^n(uv)$ , where  $u$  and  $v$  are both functions of  $x$ . See if you can find it. (Hint: Begin by checking the cases  $n = 0$ ,  $n = 1$ , and  $n = 2$ .)

40. Use the formula of Problem 39 to find  $D_x^n x^k$  and  $x^k$ .

41. Let  $f(x) = \sin x - \cos x$ .

(a) Draw the graphs of  $f(x)$ ,  $f'(x)$ ,  $f''(x)$ , and  $f'''(x)$  on [0,  $2\pi$ ]. (b) Draw the graphs of  $f(x)$ ,  $f'(x)$ ,  $f''(x)$ , and  $f'''(x)$  on  $[-\pi, \pi]$ .

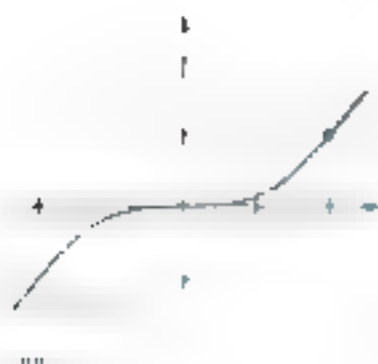
(c) Evaluate  $f''(2 - \pi)$ .

42. Repeat Problem 41 for  $f(x) = (x + 1)e^{x^2} + 2$ .

$$D_x^n x^k = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } n > k \\ k! & \text{if } n = k \\ \frac{k!}{(k-n)!} x^{k-n} & \text{if } n < k \end{cases}$$

$$D_x^n e^x = e^x, \quad D_x^n e^{-x} = (-1)^n e^{-x}$$

## 2.7 Implicit Differentiation



In the equation

$$y^2 = 7y - x,$$

we cannot solve for  $y$  in terms of  $x$ . Still, it may be of use to know the slope at each point  $(x, y)$  on the graph. For each  $x$ , we can ask what values of  $y$  correspond to  $x = 2$ . To answer the question, we must solve

$$y^2 = 7y - 2.$$

Certainly  $y = 1$  is one solution, and it turns out that  $y = 6$  is the *only* real solution. Given  $x = 2$ , the equation  $y^2 = 7y - x$  determines a unique  $y$ -value. We say that this quadratic defines an **implicit** function of  $x$ . The graph of this equation shows in Figure 2.7.1 that  $y = 1$  and  $y = 6$  are the graphs of a differentiable function. The new element is that we do not have an equation of the form  $y = f(x)$ . If, say, in the graph we assume that  $x$  were given with respect to  $y$ , if we denote this function by  $x(y)$ , we can write the equation as

$$[x(y)]^2 + 7y(x) = 0.$$

Even though we do not have a formula for  $x(y)$ , we can nevertheless determine the slope between  $x = 1$  and  $x = 2$  by differentiating both sides of the equation with respect to  $y$ . Remembering to apply the Chain Rule, we get

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dy} [x(y)]^2 + 7 \frac{d}{dy} y(x) &= \frac{d}{dy} 0 \\ 2x \frac{dx}{dy} + 7 \frac{dx}{dy} &= 0 \\ \frac{dx}{dy} (2x + 7) &= 0 \\ \frac{dx}{dy} &= -\frac{7}{2x + 7} \end{aligned}$$

Note that our expression for  $\frac{dx}{dy}$  involves both  $x$  and  $y$ , but that is often a consequence of the way we choose to find a unique  $x$ -value where we can determine the slope; no difficulty exists. At  $(2, 1)$ ,

$$\frac{dx}{dy} = -\frac{7}{2(1) + 7} = -\frac{7}{9} = -\frac{1}{3}.$$

The slope is  $-\frac{1}{3}$ .

The method just illustrated for finding  $\frac{dx}{dy}$  without first solving the given equation for  $y$  explicitly in terms of  $x$  is called **implicit differentiation**. But is the method legitimate—does it give the right answer?

is  $y = \sqrt{4x^2 - 3}$  and  $y = -\sqrt{4x^2 - 3}$ . To give some evidence of the appropriateness of the method, consider the following example, which can be worked two ways.

**EXAMPLE 1** Find  $dy/dx$  if  $4x^2y - 3y = x^3 - 1$ .

**SOLUTION**

**Method 1** We can solve the given equation explicitly for  $y$  in terms of  $x$ :

$$\begin{aligned} 4x^2y - 3y &= x^3 - 1 \\ y(4x^2 - 3) &= x^3 - 1 \\ y &= \frac{x^3 - 1}{4x^2 - 3} \end{aligned}$$

Thus,

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{(3x^2)(4x^2 - 3) - (x^3 - 1)(8x)}{(4x^2 - 3)^2} = \frac{4x^4 - 9x^2 - 8x^4 + 8x}{4x^4 - 6x^2 + 9} = \frac{-4x^4 + 8x}{4x^4 - 6x^2 + 9}$$

**Method 2 Implicit Differentiation** We equate the derivatives of the two sides:

$$\frac{d}{dx}(4x^2y - 3y) = \frac{d}{dx}(x^3 - 1)$$

We obtain, after using the Product Rule on the first term,

$$4x \frac{dy}{dx} + y(8x) - 3 \frac{dy}{dx} = 3x^2$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx}(4x^2 - 3) = 3x^2 - 8xy$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{3x^2 - 8xy}{4x^2 - 3}$$

These two answers look different, but are the same, as we can confirm by using Method 1 above as well as the answer from Method 2 involves using a little

Remember, however, that the original equation can be solved for  $y$  in terms of  $x$  to give  $y = (x^3 - 1)/(4x^2 - 3)$ . When we substitute  $y = (x^3 - 1)/(4x^2 - 3)$  into the expression just obtained for  $dy/dx$ , we get the following:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dy}{dx} &= \frac{3x^2 - 8xy}{4x^2 - 3} = \frac{3x^2 - 8x \cdot \frac{x^3 - 1}{4x^2 - 3}}{4x^2 - 3} \\ &= \frac{12x^4 - 8x^4 + 8x}{4x^4 - 6x^2 + 9} = \frac{-4x^4 + 8x}{4x^4 - 6x^2 + 9} \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 2** Find  $dy/dx$  if  $x^2 + y^2 = 25$ . **SOLUTION** If an equation in  $x$  and  $y$  determines a function  $y = g(x)$  and if the function is differentiable, then the method of implicit differentiation will yield a correct expression for  $dy/dx$ . But, in this case there are two different functions.

Consider the equation

$$x^2 + y^2 = 25$$

which determines both the function  $y = f(x) = \sqrt{25 - x^2}$  and the function  $y = g(x) = -\sqrt{25 - x^2}$ . Their graphs are shown in Figure 2.

Happily, both of these functions are differentiable on  $-5 < x < 5$ . Consider first  $f$  satisfies

$$x^2 + [f(x)]^2 = 25$$

When we differentiate implicitly and solve for  $f'(x)$ , we obtain

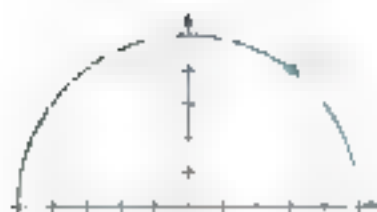


Figure 2

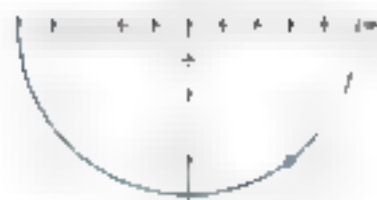


Figure 3

$$2x - 2f(x)f'(x) = 0$$

$$f'(x) = \frac{x}{f(x)} = \frac{x}{\sqrt{25 - x^2}}$$

A similar treatment of  $g(x)$  yields

$$g'(x) = \frac{x}{g(x)} = \frac{x}{\sqrt{25 - x^2}}$$

For practical purposes we can obtain both of these derivatives indirectly by implicit differentiation of  $x^2 + y^2 = 25$ . This gives

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{x}{y} = \begin{cases} \frac{x}{\sqrt{25 - x^2}} & \text{if } y = f(x) \\ \frac{x}{-\sqrt{25 - x^2}} & \text{if } y = g(x) \end{cases}$$

Naturally, the results are identical with those obtained above.

Note that it is often enough to know that  $dy/dx = -x/y$  in order to apply our results. Suppose we want to know the slopes of the tangent lines to the circle  $x^2 + y^2 = 25$  when  $x = 1$ . At  $x = 1$ , the corresponding  $y$ -values are  $y = 4$  and  $y = -4$ . The slopes at  $(1, 4)$  and  $(1, -4)$  are obtained by substituting  $x = 1$  and  $y = 4$ ,  $-4$ , respectively (see Figure 2).

To complicate matters, we point out that

$$x^2 + x = 25$$

defines many other functions  $F(x)$  satisfying  $F(x)^2 + x = 25$ . For example,

$$h(x) = \begin{cases} \sqrt{25 - x^2} & \text{if } -5 \leq x \leq 0 \\ -\sqrt{25 - x^2} & \text{if } 0 < x \leq 5 \end{cases}$$

It too satisfies  $x^2 + x = 25$ , since  $x^2 + h(x)^2 = 25$ . But  $h$  is not even continuous at  $x = 0$ , so it certainly does not have a derivative there (see Figure 3).

Within the subject of implicit functions, the following are historical questions raised in advanced calculus. The problem was solved by using modern methods.

**EXAMPLE 1** In the examples of this section we assume that the given equations determine one or more differentiable functions which we assume can be found by implicit differentiation. Note that in each case we begin by taking the derivative of one side of the given equation with respect to  $x$  and then simplify. Then we use the Chain Rule as needed.

**EXAMPLE 2** Find  $dy/dx$  if  $x^2 + y^2 + e^{xy} = 5$ .

**SOLUTION**

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dx}(x^2 + y^2 + e^{xy}) &= \frac{d}{dx}5 \\ 2x + 2y \frac{dy}{dx} + e^{xy} \frac{dy}{dx} &= 0 \\ \frac{dy}{dx}(2y + e^{xy}) &= -2x \\ \frac{dy}{dx} &= \frac{-2x}{2y + e^{xy}} \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 3** Find the equation of the tangent line to the curve

$$x^2 - xy^3 + \cos xy = 2$$



FIGURE 2

at the point  $(0, 1)$ .

**Sol.** **FIGURE 1** For simplicity, let us use the notation  $y = xy(x)$ . When we differentiate both sides and equate the results, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} 3y^2y' - x(2yy') - y^3 &= (\sin xy)(xy' + y^2) = 0 \\ x^2y^2 - 2xy - x \sin xy &= y^3 + y \sin xy \\ y^2 &= \frac{y^3 + y \sin xy}{x^2y^2 - 2xy} = \frac{y^2 + \sin xy}{x^2 - 2/x} \end{aligned}$$

At  $(0, 1)$ ,  $y' = 0$ . Thus, the equation of the tangent line at  $(0, 1)$  is

$$y - 1 = 0(x - 0) \quad \text{or} \quad y = 1$$

or

$$x = 0, y = 1$$

**FIGURE 2**  $y = x^r$  for  $r = 1, 2, 3, 4$ . We have learned that  $D_x x^r = rx^{r-1}$  when  $r$  is any real number. We now extend this to the case where  $r$  is any rational number.

### THEOREM 2 Power Rule

Let  $r$  be any nonzero rational number. Then for  $x > 0$

$$D_x(x^r) = rx^{r-1}$$

If  $r$  can be written in lowest terms as  $r = p/q$ , where  $q$  is odd, then  $D_x(x^r) = rx^r$  for all  $x$ .

**Proof.** Since  $r$  is rational,  $r$  can be written as  $p/q$ , where  $p$  and  $q$  are integers with  $q > 0$ . Let

$$y = x^{p/q}$$

Then

$$y^q = x^p$$

and, by implicit differentiation,

$$qy^{q-1}y' = px^{p-1}$$

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} D_x x^{p/q} &= \frac{p}{q} \frac{1}{(x^{p/q})^{q-1}} = \frac{p}{q} x^{p/q - q + 1} \\ &= \frac{p}{q} x^{p/q - 1 + 1/q} = \frac{p}{q} x^{p/q - 1} = rx^{r-1} \end{aligned}$$

We have obtained the desired result, but, to be honest, we must point out a flaw in our argument. In the implicit differentiation step, we assumed that  $D_x y$  exists; that is, that  $y = x^{p/q}$  is differentiable. We can fill this gap, but since this is hard work, we relegate the complete proof to the appendix (Section A.7, Theorem 1).

**EXAMPLE 4** If  $y = x^{3/2} + \sqrt{x^2 + 1}$ , find  $D_x y$ .



**SOLUTION** Using Theorem A and the Chain Rule we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 D_x y &= 2D_x e^{1/2} + D_x(x^2 + 1)^{1/2} \\
 &= \frac{5}{3}x^{2/3-1} + \frac{1}{2}(x^2 + 1)^{1/2-1} \cdot (2x) \\
 &= \frac{10}{3}x^{-1/3} + \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2 + 1}}
 \end{aligned}$$

## Concepts Review

1. The implicit relation  $yx^2 + 3y - 6 = 0$  can be solved explicitly for  $y$  giving  $y = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$ .

2. Implicit differentiation of  $y^3 + x^3 = 2$  with respect to  $x$  gives  $\underline{\hspace{2cm}} + 3x^2 = 2$ .

3. Implicit differentiation of  $xy^3 + y^3 + y = x^2$  with respect to  $x$  gives  $\underline{\hspace{2cm}}$ .

4. The Power Rule with rational exponents says that  $D_x x^{m/n} = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$ . This rule, together with the Chain Rule implies that  $D_x(x^3 - 3x)^{2/3} = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$ .

## Problem Set 2.7

Assuming that each equation in Problems 1–12 defines a differentiable function of  $x$ , find  $D_x y$  by implicit differentiation.

- $x^2 + y^2 = 4$
- $x^2 + y^2 = 4x$
- $x^2 + y^2 = 4x^2$
- $x^2 + y^2 = 4x^2$
- $x^2 + y^2 = 4x^2$
- $x^2 + y^2 = 4x^2$
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- $x^2 + y^2 = 4x^2$
- $x^2 + y^2 = 4x^2$
- $x^2 + y^2 = 4x^2$

In Problems 13–18, find the equations of the tangent line at the indicated point. (See Example 3.)

- $x^2 y + y^2 x = 3$ ;  $(1, 1)$
- $x^2 y + y^2 x = 3$ ;  $(1, 1)$
- $x^2 y + y^2 x = 3$ ;  $(1, 1)$
- $x^2 y + y^2 x = 3$ ;  $(1, 1)$
- $x^2 y + y^2 x = 3$ ;  $(1, 1)$
- $x^2 y + y^2 x = 3$ ;  $(1, 1)$
- $x^2 y + y^2 x = 3$ ;  $(1, 1)$
- $x^2 y + y^2 x = 3$ ;  $(1, 1)$

In Problems 19–32 find  $dy/dx$ .

- $x^2 + y^2 = 4$
- $x^2 + y^2 = 4$
- $x^2 + y^2 = 4$
- $x^2 + y^2 = 4$
- $x^2 + y^2 = 4$
- $x^2 + y^2 = 4$
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- $x^2 + y^2 = 4$
- $x^2 + y^2 = 4$

33. If  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$  find  $dy/dx$  and  $d^2y/dx^2$ .

34. If  $y = \sin(x^2) + 2x^3$  find  $dy/dx$ .

35. Sketch the graph of the circle  $x^2 + 4x + y^2 - 3 = 0$  and then find equations of the two tangent lines that pass through the origin.

36. Find the equation of the normal line (the perpendicular to the tangent line) to the curve  $x^2 + y^2 = 100$  at  $(x, y) = (3, 1)$ .

37. Suppose that  $xy = y^2 + 1$ . Then implicit differentiation twice with respect to  $x$  yields in turn

$$(a) \quad xy^2 + y + 3y^2 = 0$$

$$(b) \quad x^2 y^2 + y^2 + 3y^2 = 0$$

Solve (a) for  $y$  and substitute in (b), and then solve for  $y^2$ .

38. Find  $y''$  if  $x^2 + 4y + 3 = 0$  (see Problem 37).

39. Find  $y'$  if  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$  (see Problem 37).

40. Use implicit differentiation twice to find  $y''$  at  $(1, 1)$  if  $x^2 + y^2 = 2$ .

41. Show that the normal line to  $x^2 + y^2 = 5$  at  $(1, 2)$  passes through the origin.

42. Show that the hyperbolas  $xy = 1$  and  $x^2 - y^2 = 1$  intersect at right angles.

43. Show that the graphs of  $2x^2 + y^2 = 6$  and  $y^2 = 4x$  intersect at right angles.

44. Suppose that curves  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  intersect at  $(x_0, y_0)$  with slopes  $m_1$  and  $m_2$ , respectively as in Figure 4. Then, see Problem 40 of Section 2.1, the positive angle  $\theta$  from  $C_1$  (i.e., from the tangent line to  $C_1$ ) to  $C_2$  satisfies

$$\tan \theta = \frac{m_2 - m_1}{1 + m_1 m_2}$$





Figure 2.5.1

hangle, the distance from the observer to the point of release, remains unchanged as  $\theta$  increases (Figure 2.5.1 shows the key quantities in one simple diagram).

**F** Before going further, we pick up a theme discussed earlier: in the book, *calculus* *is* *calculus*. Note that initially  $s$  changes hardly at all:  $ds/dt = 0$ , but eventually  $s$  changes about 100 as  $\theta$  changes 100, so  $dh/dt = K$ . An estimate for  $dh/dt$  when  $h = 50$  might be about one-third the half of  $ds/dt$  (in 3:1, if we get an answer far from this value, we may know we have made a mistake. For example, answers such as 17 and even 7 are clearly wrong.

We continue with the exact solution. For emphasis, we ask and answer three fundamental questions:

- What is given? **Answer:**  $dh/dt = 8$ .
- What do we want to know? **Answer:** We want to know  $ds/dt$  at the instant when  $h = 50$ .
- How are  $s$  and  $h$  related? **Answer:** The variables  $s$  and  $h$  change with time; they are implicit functions of  $t$ , but  $s$  and  $h$  are always related by the Pythagorean Theorem:

$$s^2 = h^2 + (150)^2$$

If we differentiate implicitly with respect to  $t$  and use the Chain Rule, we obtain

$$2s \frac{ds}{dt} = 2h \frac{dh}{dt}$$

or

$$s \frac{ds}{dt} = h \frac{dh}{dt}$$

This relationship holds for all  $t > 0$ .

Now, and *not before now*, we turn to the specific instant when  $h = 50$ . From the Pythagorean Theorem, we see that when  $h = 50$ ,

$$s = \sqrt{50^2 + 150^2} = 156.205 \approx 156.2$$

Substituting in  $s \frac{ds}{dt} = h \frac{dh}{dt}$  yields

$$156.2 \frac{ds}{dt} = 50(8)$$

or

$$\frac{ds}{dt} = \frac{400}{156.2} \approx 2.56$$

At the instant when  $h = 50$ , the distance between the balloon and the observer is increasing at the rate of 2.56 feet per second. ■

**EXAMPLE 2.5.1** Water is pouring into a conical tank at the rate of 8 cubic feet per minute. The depth of the tank is 2 ft, 10 in. 6, and as the water level rises, the tank is 6 feet high. How fast is the water level rising when the water is 4 feet deep?

**SOLUTION** Denote the depth of the water by  $h$  and  $r$  by the instantaneous radius of the surface of the water (see Figure 2.5.2).

We are given that the volume  $V$  of water in the tank is increasing at the rate of 8 cubic feet per minute that is,  $dV/dt = 8$ . We consider how fast the water is rising (that is,  $dh/dt$ ) at the instant when  $h = 4$ .

We need to find an equation relating  $V$  and  $h$ ; we will then differentiate it to get a relationship between  $dV/dt$  and  $dh/dt$ . The formula for the volume  $V$  of water in the tank (that is,  $V = V(h)$ ) contains the unknown variable  $r$  (unknown because we do not know its rate  $dr/dt$ ). However, by similar triangles (see the margin box), we have  $r/h = 6/12$ , so  $r = h/2$ . Substituting this in  $V = \frac{1}{3}\pi r^2 h$  gives

Triangles

Two right triangles are similar if their corresponding angles are congruent.

From geometry, we know that ratios of corresponding sides of similar triangles are equal. For example,

$$\frac{h}{b} = \frac{H}{B}$$

This fact comes in handy if  $b = 0$  or  $B = 0$ .



Figure 2.5.2

$$V = \frac{1}{3}\pi r^2 h = \frac{\pi r^3}{3}$$

Now we differentiate implicitly keeping in mind that both  $r$  and  $h$  depend on  $t$ . We obtain

$$\frac{dV}{dt} = \frac{3\pi r}{3} \frac{dh}{dt} = \pi r \frac{dh}{dt}$$

Note that we have a relationship between  $\frac{dV}{dt}$ ,  $\frac{dh}{dt}$ , and  $r$ . And now, in (1), we consider the situation when  $h = 4$ . Substituting  $h = 4$  and  $\frac{dV}{dt} = 8$ , we obtain

$$8 = \frac{\pi(4)}{3} \frac{dh}{dt}$$

from which

$$\frac{dh}{dt} = \frac{6}{\pi} \approx 0.037$$

When the depth of the water is 4 feet, the water level is rising at 0.037 foot per minute.  $\blacksquare$

If you think about Example 2 for a moment, you realize that the water level will rise more or more slowly as time goes on (i.e., example when  $h$

$$h = \frac{\pi}{4} \frac{dh}{dt}$$

with  $u = 17.1$  ft  $\times 0.037$  foot per minute

What we are really saying is that the acceleration  $\frac{dh}{dt}$  is negative. We can calculate an expression for it. At any time  $t$ ,

$$h = \frac{\pi h}{4} \frac{dh}{dt}$$

or

$$\frac{dh}{dt} = \frac{4}{\pi} \frac{dh}{dt}$$

If we differentiate implicitly again we get

$$h \frac{d^2 h}{dt^2} + 4 \frac{dh}{dt} = 2h \frac{dh}{dt}$$

from which

$$\frac{d^2 h}{dt^2} = \frac{2h}{h} \frac{dh}{dt}$$

This is clearly negative.

**EXAMPLE 3** Examples 1 and 2 suggest the following method for solving a related rates problem.

**STEP 1** Let  $t$  denote the elapsed time. Draw a diagram that is valid for all  $t \geq 0$ . Label those quantities whose values do not change as  $t$  increases with their given constant values. Assign letters to the quantities that vary with  $t$  and label the appropriate parts of the figure with these variables.

**STEP 2** State what is given about the variables and what information is wanted about them. This information will be in the form of derivatives with respect to

**Step 1:** Relate the variables by writing an equation that is valid at all times (not just at some particular instant).

**Step 2:** Differentiate the equation found at Step 1 implicitly with respect to  $t$ . The resulting equation, containing derivatives with respect to  $t$ , is true for all  $t$ .

**Step 3:** At this point, and at earlier, substitute in the equation any  $x$  and  $y$  values that are valid at *one particular instant* for which the answer to the problem is required. Solve for the desired derivative.

**EXAMPLE 3** An airplane flying north at 640 miles per hour passes over a radar station at noon. A second airplane going east at 600 miles per hour passes over the same town 15 minutes later. If the airplanes are flying at the same altitude, how fast will they be separating at 1:15 pm?

### ■ SOLUTION

**Step 1:** Let  $t$  denote the number of hours after 12:15 pm,  $x$  the distance in miles flown by the east-bound airplane at  $t$ ,  $y$  the distance in miles flown by the north-bound airplane after  $t = 0$  pm, and  $z$  the distance between the airplanes in the  $xy$ -plane. If at noon  $t = -\frac{1}{4}$  hr, the north-bound airplane will have flown  $z = 160$  miles from the town to the east-bound airplane at  $t = 0$  pm. We will let  $y = 160$ . (See Figure 4.)

**Step 2:** We are given that for all  $t > 0$ ,  $dx/dt = 600$  and  $dy/dt = 640$ . We want to know  $dz/dt$  at  $t = 1$ , that is, at 1:15 pm.

**Step 3:** By the Pythagorean Theorem,

$$z^2 = x^2 + (y - 160)^2$$

**Step 4:** Differentiate implicitly with respect to  $t$ , and apply the Chain Rule. We have

$$2z \frac{dz}{dt} = 2x \frac{dx}{dt} + 2(y - 160) \frac{dy}{dt}$$

or

$$z \frac{dz}{dt} = x \frac{dx}{dt} + (y - 160) \frac{dy}{dt}$$

**Step 5:** For any  $t > 0$ ,  $dx/dt = 600$  and  $dy/dt = 640$ , with  $x = 600t$  and  $y = 160 + 640t$ . When we substitute these data in the equation of Step 4, we obtain

$$z \frac{dz}{dt} = 600x + 600y = (640 + 160)(640)$$

from which

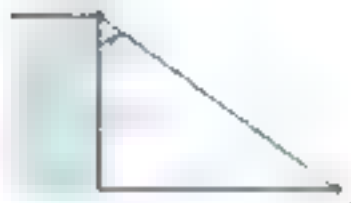
$$\frac{dz}{dt} = 572$$

**Answer:** The airplanes are separating at 572 miles per hour.

Now let's see if our answer makes sense. Look at Figure 4 again. Clearly  $z$  is increasing faster than either  $x$  or  $y$  is increasing, so  $dz/dt$  exceeds 640. On the other hand,  $z$  is surely increasing more slowly than the sum of  $x$  and  $y$ , that is,  $dz/dt < 600 + 640 = 1240$ . Our answer  $dz/dt = 572$  is reasonable. ■



Figure 4



**EXAMPLE 4** A woman standing on a cliff is watching a motorboat through a telescope as the boat approaches the shoreline directly below her. The telescope is 250 feet above the water level and the boat is approaching at 24 feet per second. At what rate is the angle of the telescope changing when the boat is 350 feet from the shore?

**SOLUTION**

**Step 1:** We draw a figure (Figure 5) and introduce variables  $x$  and  $\theta$  as shown.

**Step 2:** We are given that  $dx/dt = -24$  (the sign is negative because  $x$  is decreasing with time). We want to know  $d\theta/dt$  at the instant when  $x = 350$ .

**Step 3:** From trigonometry,

$$\tan \theta = \frac{x}{250}$$

**Step 4:** We differentiate implicitly with respect to  $\theta$ , get  $\theta = \tan^{-1} x/250$  (Theorem 2.1B). This gives

$$\sec^2 \theta \frac{d\theta}{dt} = \frac{1}{250} \frac{dx}{dt}$$

**Step 5:** At the instant when  $x = 350$ ,  $\theta = \pi/4$  (think of  $\tan \theta = \tan \pi/4 = 1$ ). Thus,

$$\sec^2 \theta \frac{d\theta}{dt} = \frac{1}{250} \frac{dx}{dt}$$

or

$$\frac{d\theta}{dt} = \frac{1}{250} \frac{dx}{dt} = -0.04$$

The answer is  $-0.04$  radians per second. The negative sign shows that  $\theta$  is decreasing with time. ■

**EXAMPLE 5** As the sun sets behind a 120-foot building, the building's shadow grows. How fast is the shadow growing in feet per second when the sun's rays make an angle of  $45^\circ$  (or  $\pi/4$  radians)?

**SOLUTION**

**Step 1:** Let  $x$  denote time  $t$  seconds since midnight, let  $y$  denote the length of the shadow in feet, and let  $\theta$  denote the angle of the sun's ray. See Figure 6.

**Step 2:** Since the earth rotates once every 24 hours or 86,400 seconds, we know that  $d\theta/dt = \pi/43,200$  radians per second (the negative sign is needed because  $\theta$  decreases as the sun sets.) We want to know  $dy/dt$  when  $\theta = \pi/4$ .

**Step 3:** Figure 6 indicates that the quantities  $x$  and  $\theta$  satisfy  $\cot \theta = x/120$ , so  $x = 120 \cot \theta$ .

**Step 4:** Differentiating both sides of  $x = 120 \cot \theta$  with respect to  $\theta$  gives

$$\frac{dx}{d\theta} = 120(-\csc^2 \theta) = \frac{d\theta}{dt} \left( 120 \csc^2 \theta \right) = \frac{\pi}{43,200} \csc^2 \theta$$

**Step 5:** When  $\theta = \pi/4$  we have

$$\frac{dx}{d\theta} = \frac{\pi}{43,200} \csc^2 \left( \frac{\pi}{4} \right) = \frac{\pi}{21,600} (\sqrt{2})^2 = \frac{\pi}{10,800} \approx 0.017\% \frac{\text{ft}}{\text{sec}}$$

Notice that as the sun sets  $\theta$  is decreasing (hence  $d\theta/dt$  is negative), while the shadow is increasing (hence  $dx/dt$  is positive). ■



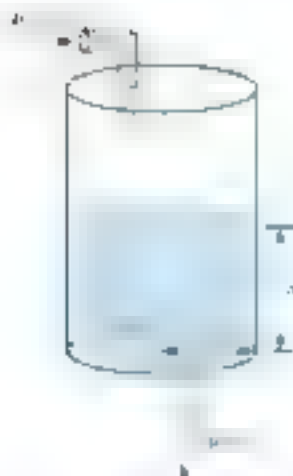


FIGURE 2.1



FIGURE 2.2

Figure 2.1 shows a cylindrical tank of radius  $r$  feet. Often in a real-life situation we can not know a formula for a certain function, but rather have an empirically determined graph for it. We may still be able to answer questions about rates.

**EXAMPLE 4** Webster City monitors the height of the water in its cylindrical water tank with an automatic recording device. Water is constantly pumped in the tank at a rate of 2400 cubic feet per hour, as shown in Figure 2.1. During a certain 1-hour period the graph of the height of the water level, as plotted according to the graph in Figure 2.2, is shown. If the radius of the tank is 20 feet, at what rate was water being used at 7:30 A.M.?

**SOLUTION** Let  $t$  denote the number of hours past midnight,  $h$  the height of the water in the tank at time  $t$ , and  $V$  the volume of water in the tank at time  $t$  (see Figure 2.1). Then  $dV/dt$  is the rate at which the rate out, so  $2400 = dV/dt$  is the rate at which water is being used at any time  $t$ . Since the slope of the tangent line at  $t = 7$  is approximately  $-3$  (Figure 2.2), we conclude that  $dh/dt = -3$  at that time.

For a cylinder  $V = \pi r^2 h$ , and so

$$V = \pi(20)^2 h$$

from which

$$\frac{dV}{dt} = 40\pi \frac{dh}{dt}$$

so that

$$\frac{dV}{dt} = 40\pi(-3) = -3770$$

Thus Webster City residents were using water at the rate of 2400  $- 3770 = -1370$  cubic feet per hour at 7:30 A.M. ■

## Concepts Review

1. To ask how fast a function is changing with respect to time is the same as asking for its derivative.
2. An airplane with a constant speed of 400 miles per hour flies directly over an observer. The distance between the observer and the plane is  $s$  miles, and  $h$  is the height of the plane. How fast is  $h$  changing when  $s = 1000$  miles?
3. If  $dh/dt$  is decreasing as time  $t$  increases, then  $d^2h/dt^2$  is negative.
4. If water is pouring into a spherical tank at a constant rate, then the height of the water grows at a variable and positive rate  $dh/dt$ , but  $d^2h/dt^2$  is negative until  $h$  reaches half the height of the tank, after which  $d^2h/dt^2$  becomes positive.

## Problem Set 2.8

1. Each edge of a variable cube is increasing at a rate of  $\frac{1}{2}$  inches per second. How fast is the volume of the cube increasing when an edge is  $\frac{1}{2}$  inches long?
2. Assuming that a soap bubble retains its spherical shape as it expands, how fast is its radius increasing when its radius is 3 inches if air is blown into it at a rate of 3 cubic inches per second?
3. An airplane flying horizontally at an altitude of 1 mile passes directly over an observer. If the constant speed of the airplane is 400 miles per hour, how fast is its distance from the observer increasing 45 seconds later? **Hint:** Note that in 45 seconds  $\frac{1}{4}$  mile has been traveled. How fast is the plane going?
4. A student is using a straw to drink from a conical paper cup, whose area is decreasing at a rate of  $\frac{1}{2}$  square centimeters per second. If the height of the cup is 4 centimeters and the diameter of its opening is 6 centimeters, how fast is the level of the liquid falling when the depth of the liquid is 5 centimeters?
5. An airplane flying west at 300 miles per hour goes over the control tower at noon, and a second airplane at the same altitude flying north at 400 miles per hour goes over the tower an hour later. How fast is the distance between the airplanes changing at 2:00 P.M.? **Hint:** See Example 3.
6. A stevedore at a dock is pulling in a rope fastened to the bow of a small boat. The woman's hands are 50 inches from the point where the rope is attached to the boat and if she is reeling in the rope at a rate of 2 feet per second, how fast is the boat approaching the dock when 25 feet of rope is still out?
7. A 35-foot ladder is leaning against a building. Is the bottom of the ladder is sliding along the level ground directly



away from the building at 1 foot per second, how fast is the top of the ladder sliding down when the foot of the ladder is 3 feet from the wall?

8. We assume that an oil spill is being cleaned up by deploying suction that removes the oil at 4 cubic feet per hour. The oil spill itself is modeled in the form of a very thin cylinder whose height is the thickness of the oil slick. When the thickness of the slick is 0.001 inch, the volume is 50 cubic feet. Is the height of the slick increasing or decreasing at what rate? Is the slick itself moving?

9. Sand is pouring from a pipe at the rate of 10 cubic feet per second. If the falling sand forms a conical pile on the ground whose altitude is always  $\frac{1}{4}$  the diameter of the base, how fast is the altitude increasing when the pile is 4 feet high? *Hint:* Relate  $V$  to  $h$  and use the fact that  $V' = \frac{1}{2}\pi r^2 h'$ .



Figure 9

10. A child is throwing a kite. If the kite is 40 feet above the child's hand level and the wind is blowing it out in horizontal circles at 5 feet per second, how fast is the child reeling out cord when 50 feet of cord is out? Assume that the cord remains straight from hand to kite, actually an unrealistic assumption.

11. A rectangular swimming pool is 40 feet long, 20 feet wide, 4 feet deep at the deep end, and 3 feet deep at the shallow end (see Figure 10). If the pool is filled by pumping water into it at the rate of 40 cubic feet per minute, how fast is the water level rising when it is 3 feet deep at the shallow end?



Figure 10

12. A particle  $P$  is moving along the graph of  $r = \sqrt{x^2 + 4}$ ,  $x \geq 2$ , so that the  $x$ -coordinate of  $P$  is increasing at the rate 5 units per second. How fast is the distance of  $P$  from the origin when  $x = 3$ ?

13. A metal disk expands during heating. If its radius is increasing at the rate of 102 inch per second, how fast is the area of the disk increasing when its radius is 8 inches?

14. Two ships sail from the same island port, one going north at 24 knots (24 nautical miles per hour) and the other east at 30 knots. The northbound ship departed at 9:00 A.M. and the eastbound ship left at 7:00 A.M. How fast is the distance between them increasing at 2:00 P.M.? *Hint:* Let  $t = 0$  at 1:00 A.M.

15. A light is a lighthouse 1 kilometer offshore from a straight shoreline is rotating at 2 revolutions per minute. How fast is the beam moving along the shoreline when it passes the point 3 kilometers from the point opposite the lighthouse?

16. An aircraft spotter observes a plane flying at a constant altitude of 4000 feet toward a point directly above her head. She notes that when the angle of elevation is  $\frac{\pi}{6}$  radian it is increasing

at a rate of  $\frac{\pi}{30}$  radian per second. What is the speed of the airplane?

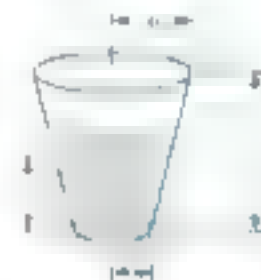
17. Chris, who is 6 feet tall, is walking away from a street light pole 5 feet high at a rate of 2 feet per second.

- How fast is his shadow increasing in length when Chris is 24 feet from the pole? 30 feet?
- How fast is the tip of his shadow moving?
- To follow the tip of his shadow at what angular rate must Chris be turning his eyes when his shadow is 6 feet long?

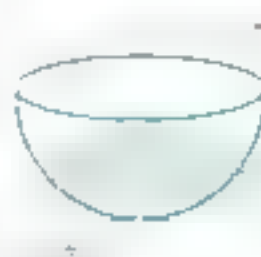
18. The vertex angle  $\theta$  opposite the base of an isosceles triangle with equal sides of length 100 centimeters is increasing at  $\frac{\pi}{6}$  radian per minute. How fast is the area of the triangle increasing when the vertex angle measures  $\pi/6$  radians? *Hint:*  $A = \frac{1}{2}ab \sin \theta$ .

19. A long, level highway bridge passes over a railroad track that is 10 feet below it and at right angles to it. An automobile traveling 45 miles per hour (81 feet per second) is directly above a train engine going 60 miles per hour (104 feet per second). How fast will they be separating 40 seconds later?

20. Water is poured at a constant rate of 3 liters ( $1 \text{ liter} = 1.056688 \text{ cubic centimeters}$ ) per minute into a tank shaped like a frustum of a right circular cone. The tank has altitude 80 centimeters and lower and upper radii of 20 and 40 centimeters, respectively (see Figure 11). How fast is the water level rising when the water is 40 centimeters high? *Hint:* The volume  $V$  of a frustum of a right circular cone of altitude  $h$  and lower and upper radii  $a$  and  $b$  is  $V = \frac{1}{3}\pi h(a^2 + ab + b^2)$ .



21. Water is leaking out the bottom of a hemispherical tank of radius 8 feet at a rate of 2 cubic feet per hour. The tank was full at a certain time. How fast is the water level changing when its height  $h$  is 3 feet? *Hint:* The volume of a segment of height  $h$  in a hemisphere of radius  $r$  is  $V = \frac{\pi}{3}h^2(3r - h)$ . See Figure 12.



22. The hands on a clock are of length 5 inches (minute hand) and 3 inches (hour hand). How fast is the distance between the tips of the hands changing at 11?



23. A steel ball will drop 32 feet in 1 second. Such a ball is dropped from a height of 64 feet at a horizontal distance 10 feet from a 48-foot street light. How fast is the ball's shadow moving when the ball hits the ground?

24. Rework Example 8 assuming that the water tank is a sphere of radius 30 feet. (See Problem 21 for the volume of a spherical segment.)

25. Rework Example 8 assuming that the water tank is in the shape of an upper hemisphere of radius 30 feet. (See Problem 21 for the volume of a spherical segment.)

26. Refer to Example 8. How much water did Webster City use during this 1-hour period from midnight to noon? *Hint:* This is not a difficult problem!

27. An 8-foot ladder leans against a 12-foot vertical wall on top extending over the wall. The bottom end of the ladder is pulled along the ground away from the wall at 2 feet per second.  
a. Find the vertical velocity of the top and when the ladder makes an angle of  $60^\circ$  with the ground.

b. Find the vertical displacement of the same instant.

28. A spherical steel ball rests at the bottom of the tank in Problem 21. Answer the question posed there if the ball has radius

a. 6 inches or  $\frac{1}{2}$  foot  $\quad$  b. 2 feet

Answer: Just the ball does not affect the flow from the tank.

29. A snowball melts at a rate proportional to its surface area.

a. Show that its radius shrinks at a constant rate.

b. If it takes 10 days for a spherical volume to melt, how long will it take to melt completely?

30. A right circular cylinder with a piston at one end is filled with gas. Its volume is continuously changing because of the movement of the piston if the temperature of the gas is kept constant.

Then, by Boyle's Law,  $PV = k$ , where  $P$  is the pressure (pounds per square inch),  $V$  is the volume (cubic inches), and  $k$  is a constant. The pressure was monitored by a recording device over one 10-minute period. The results are shown in Figure 43. Approximately how fast was the volume changing at  $t = 6.5$  if its volume was 100 cubic inches at that instant? (See Example 8.)



31. A girl 5 feet tall walks toward a street light 20 feet high at a rate of 4 feet per second. How fast does her shadow follow at a constant distance of 4 feet directly behind her (Figure 44)?



Determine how fast the tip of the shadow is moving, that is, determine  $ds/dt$ . *Hint:* When the girl is far from the light, she can look from the tip of the shadow, whereas her height dominates if she is close to the light.

**Answers to Concepts Review:** 1.  $ds/dt = 2$  ft/min  
3. negative 4. negative positive

## Differentials and Approximations

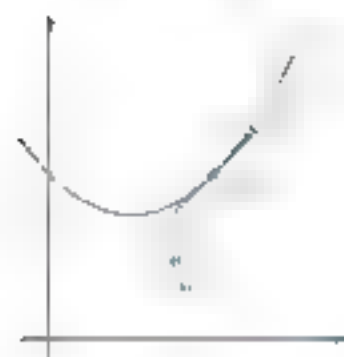


FIGURE 45

The Leibniz notation  $dy/dx$  has been used to mean the derivative of  $y$  with respect to  $x$ . The notation  $df/dx$  has been used as an alternative means for denoting  $dy/dx$ . In some contexts  $df/dx$  with respect to  $x$  has a meaning and  $dy/dx$  is not meaningful. Now we have stopped  $df/dx$  and  $dy/dx$  as a *single* symbol and have introduced a give-or-take meaning to the quantities  $df$  and  $dy$  as well as  $dx$  and  $dx$ .

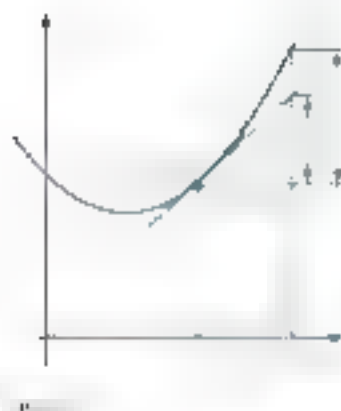
Let  $f$  be a differentiable function. To approximate a definition of  $df$  at  $x_0$  we a point on the graph of  $y = f(x)$  as shown in Figure 45. Since  $f$  is differentiable

$$\lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x_0 + \Delta x) - f(x_0)}{\Delta x} = f'(x_0).$$

If  $\Delta x$  is small, the quotient  $\frac{f(x_0 + \Delta x) - f(x_0)}{\Delta x}$  will be approximately  $f'(x_0)$ , so

$$f(x_0 + \Delta x) - f(x_0) \approx \Delta x f'(x_0).$$

The left side of this expression is called  $\Delta y$ ; this is the actual change in  $y$  as  $x$  changes from  $x_0$  to  $x_0 + \Delta x$ . The right side is called  $dy$ , and it serves as an



approximation of  $\Delta y$ . As Figure 2.9.1 indicates, the quantity  $dy$  is equal to the change in the tangent line to the curve at  $P$  as  $x$  changes from  $x_0$  to  $x_0 + \Delta x$ . When  $\Delta x$  is small, we expect  $dy$  to be a good approximation to  $\Delta y$ . (Using just a constant times  $\Delta x$  it is usually easier to calculate.)

**DEFINITION** Here are the formal definitions of the differentials  $dx$  and  $dy$ .

#### Definition

Let  $y = f(x)$  be a differentiable function of the independent variable  $x$ .

$\Delta x$  is an arbitrary increment in the independent variable  $x$ .

$dx$ , called the **differential of the independent variable**, is equal to  $\Delta x$ .

$\Delta y$  is the actual change in the variable  $y$  as  $x$  changes from  $x$  to  $x + \Delta x$ ; that is,  $\Delta y = f(x + \Delta x) - f(x)$ .

$dy$ , called the **differential of the dependent variable**, is denoted by  $dy = f'(x) dx$ .

#### EXAMPLE 1 Find $dy$ if

(a)  $y = x^2 - 3x + 1$  (b)  $y = \sqrt{x}$

(c)  $y = \sin(x^2 - 3x^2 + 1)$

**SOLUTION** If we know how to calculate  $dy/dx$ , we know how to calculate  $dy$  using differentials. We simply calculate the derivative and multiply it by  $dx$ .

(a)  $dy = (2x - 3) dx$

(b)  $dy = \frac{1}{2}x^{-1/2} dx = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}} dx$

(c)  $dy = \cos(x^2 - 3x^2 + 1) \cdot (2x^2 - 6x) dx$

We ask you to note two things. First, since  $dy = f'(x) dx$ , division of both sides by  $dx$  yields

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = f'(x)$$

and we can if we wish interpret the derivative as a quotient of two differentials.

Second, computing  $dy$  is a very easy task. Here is a table summarizing the rules for the formal differentiation of the symbols  $dy$ . We have seen the basic rules in the following table.

Derivative Rule	Differential Rule
1. $\frac{d}{dx} k = 0$	1. $dy = 0$
2. $\frac{d}{dx} kx = k$	2. $d(kx) = k dx$
3. $\frac{d}{dx} x^n = nx^{n-1}$	3. $d(x^n) = nx^{n-1} dx$
4. $\frac{d}{dx} f(x)g(x) = f(x)\frac{d}{dx}g(x) + g(x)\frac{d}{dx}f(x)$	4. $d(uv) = u dv + v du$
5. $\frac{d}{dx} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{g(x)\frac{d}{dx}f(x) - f(x)\frac{d}{dx}g(x)}{[g(x)]^2}$	5. $d\left(\frac{u}{v}\right) = \frac{v du - u dv}{v^2}$
6. $\frac{d}{dx} f(g(x)) = f'(g(x))\frac{d}{dx}g(x)$	6. $d(f(u)) = f'(u) du$

#### and Differentials

Derivatives and differentials are not the same. When you write  $D_x$  or  $dy/dx$ , you are using a symbol for the derivative which you write  $dy/dx$ . It is important not to let  $dy$  and  $dx$  be sloppy and write it when you use an  $dx$  value. It is a good idea to avoid confusion.

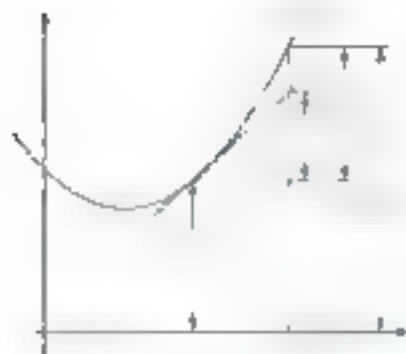


Figure 3

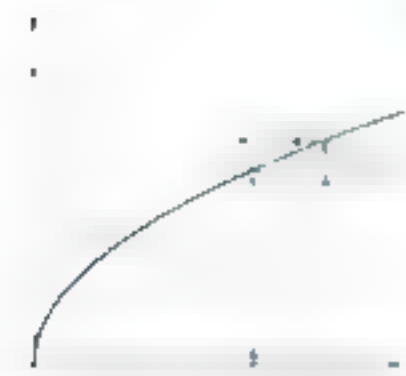


Figure 4

**EXAMPLE 3** Differentials will play several roles in this book, but for now their chief use is in providing approximations. We hinted at this earlier.

Suppose that  $y = f(x)$  as shown in Figure 3. An increment in  $\Delta x$  produces a corresponding increment  $\Delta y$  in  $y$ , which can be approximated by  $dy$ ; thus,  $f(x + \Delta x)$  is approximated by

$$f(x + \Delta x) \approx f(x) + dy = f(x) + f'(x) \Delta x$$

That is the basis for the solutions to all the examples that follow.

**EXAMPLE 4** Suppose you need good approximations to  $\sqrt{4.6}$  and  $\sqrt{8.2}$ , but your calculator has died. What might you do?

**SOLUTION** Consider the graph of  $y = \sqrt{x}$  sketched in Figure 4. When  $x$  changes from 4 to 4.6,  $y$  changes from  $\sqrt{4}$  to  $\sqrt{4.6}$  approximately  $\sqrt{4} + dy$ . Now

$$dy = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}} dx = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{4}} dx$$

which, at  $x = 4$  and  $dx = 0.6$ , has the value

$$dy = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{4}}(0.6) = \frac{0.6}{4} = 0.15$$

Thus

$$\sqrt{4.6} \approx \sqrt{4} + dy = 2 + 0.15 = 2.15$$

Similarly, at  $x = 9$  and  $dx = -0.8$ ,

$$dy = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{9}}(-0.8) = \frac{-0.8}{6} \approx -0.133$$

Hence

$$\sqrt{8.2} \approx \sqrt{9} + dy \approx 3 - 0.133 = 2.867$$

Note that both  $dx$  and  $dy$  were negative in this case.

The approximate values  $\sqrt{4.6} \approx 2.15$  and  $\sqrt{8.2} \approx 2.867$  agree with the actual values (four decimal places) of 2.145 and 2.864.

**EXAMPLE 5** Use differentials to approximate the increase in the area of a soap bubble when its radius increases from 3 inches to 3.025 inches.

**SOLUTION** The area of a spherical soap bubble is given by  $A = 4\pi r^2$ . We may approximate the exact change  $\Delta A$  by the differential  $dA$ , where

$$dA = 8\pi r dr$$

At  $r = 3$  and  $dr = \Delta r = 0.025$

$$dA = 8\pi(3)(0.025) \approx 1.885 \text{ square inches}$$

**EXAMPLE 6** Here is a version of problem 49 in Section 2.4. A researcher measures a certain variable  $x$  to have a value  $x_0$  with a possible error of size  $\Delta x$ . The value  $x_0$  is then used to calculate a value  $y_0$  for  $y$  that depends on  $x$ . The value  $y_0$  is considered to be the error in a couple of ways. The standard procedure is to estimate this error by means of differentials.

**EXAMPLE 7** The side of a cube is measured to be 1.4 centimeters with a possible error of  $\pm 0.5$  centimeter. Evaluate the volume of the cube, and give an estimate for the possible error in this value.



Figure 5a shows both the graph of the function  $f$  and the linear approximation  $L$  over the interval  $[0, \pi]$ . We can see that the approximation is good near  $x = \pi/2$  but not so good as you move away from  $\pi/2$ . Figures 5b and 5c show three plots of the functions  $f$  and  $L$  over smaller and smaller intervals  $I$ . In values of  $\Delta x$  close to 0, we see that the linear approximation is very close to the actual  $f$ . ■

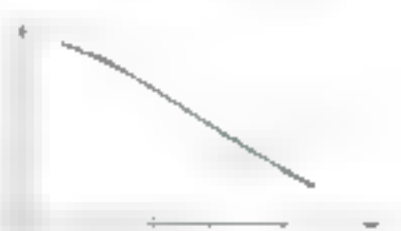
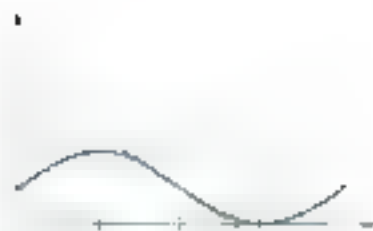


FIGURE 5

## Concepts Review

1. Let  $y = f(x)$  be a function of  $x$  and let  $x$  and  $y$  be defined by  $dy =$  \_\_\_\_\_.

2. Consider the curve  $y = f(x)$  and suppose that  $x$  is given an increment  $\Delta x$ . The corresponding change in  $y$  on the curve is denoted by \_\_\_\_\_, whereas the corresponding change in  $y$  on the tangent line is denoted by \_\_\_\_\_.

## Problem Set 2.9

In Problems 1–8, find  $dy$ .

1.  $y = x^2$
2.  $y = \sqrt{x}$
3.  $y = (2x - 3)^{-5}$
4.  $y = x^2 + 1$
5.  $y = \sin x$
6.  $y = \cos x$
7.  $y = e^x$
8.  $y = \ln x$

9. If  $x = \sqrt{t^2 + \sin t - 2}$ , find  $dx$ .

10. Let  $y = f(x) = x^3$ . Find the value of  $dy$  in each case.

- (a)  $x = 5$  and  $dx = 0.1$
- (b)  $x = 2$  and  $dx = 0.05$
- (c)  $x = 1.5$  and  $dx = 0.1$
- (d)  $x = 1$  and  $dx = 0.1$
- (e)  $x = 1.5$  and  $dx = 0.1$
- (f)  $x = 1$  and  $dx = 0.1$

11. For the function defined in Problem 10, make a careful drawing of the graph of  $f$  for  $-1.5 \leq x \leq 1.5$  and the tangents to the curve at  $x = 1.5$  and  $x = -1$ . In this drawing label  $\Delta x$  and  $dy$  for each of the given sets of data in parts (a) and (b).
12. Let  $y = x^3$ . Find the value of  $dy$  in each case.

13. For the function defined in Problem 12, make a careful drawing similar to Problem 11 for  $-3 \leq x \leq 3$  and  $0 < x < 3$ .

14. For the data of Problem 10, find the actual changes in  $y$ , that is,  $\Delta y$ .

15. For the data of Problem 12, find the actual changes in  $y$ , that is,  $\Delta y$ .

16. If  $y = x^2 - 3$ , find the values of  $\Delta y$  and  $dy$  in each case.

17. If  $y = x^2 + 2x$ , find the values of  $\Delta y$  and  $dy$  in each case.

18. If  $y = x^2 + 2x$ , find the values of  $\Delta y$  and  $dy$  in each case.

19. We can expect  $dy$  to be a good approximation to  $\Delta y$  provided that \_\_\_\_\_.

20. On the curve  $y = \sqrt{x}$ , we should expect  $dy$  to be closer to  $\Delta y$  for  $\Delta x$  that is \_\_\_\_\_ than  $\Delta x$ . On the curve  $y = x^2$ ,  $x \geq 1$ , we should expect  $dy$  to be \_\_\_\_\_ than  $\Delta y$ .

In Problems 21–24, use differentials to approximate the given number (see Example 2). Compare with calculator values.

21.  $\sqrt{101}$
22.  $\sqrt{24.9}$
23.  $\sqrt[3]{1000}$
24.  $\sqrt[3]{1000}$

25. Approximate the volume of material in a spherical shell of inner radius 5 centimeters and outer radius 5.25 centimeters (see Example 3).

26. All six sides of a cubical metal box are 0.25 inch thick, and the volume of the interior of the box is 40 cubic inches. Use differentials to find the approximate volume of metal when it makes the box.

27. The outside diameter of a thin spherical shell is 12 feet. If the shell is 0.3 inch thick, use differentials to approximate the volume of the region interior to the shell.

28. The interior of an open cylindrical tank is 2 feet in diameter and 8 feet deep. The bottom is copper and the sides are steel. Use differentials to find approximately how many gallons of water (rounding point are needed to apply a 4.44-cubic-inch steel plate of the inside of the tank (1 gallon = 231 cubic inches).

29. Assuming that the equator is a circle whose radius is approximately 4000 miles, how much longer than the equator would a concentric circular circle be if each point on it were 2 feet above the equator? Use differentials.

30. The period of a simple pendulum of length  $L$  feet is given by  $T = 2\pi\sqrt{L/g}$ , where  $g$  is the acceleration due to gravity (at very near the surface of the earth,  $g$  is 32 feet per second squared). If the pendulum is that of a clock that keeps good time when  $L = 4$  feet, how much time will the clock gain in 24 hours if the length of the pendulum is decreased by 0.005 feet?

37. The diameter of a sphere is measured as  $30 \pm 0.1$  centimeters. Calculate the volume and estimate the absolute error and the relative error (see Example 4).

38. A cylindrical roller is exactly 12 inches long and its diameter is measured as  $6 \pm 0.05$  inches. Calculate its volume with an estimate for the absolute error and the relative error.

39. The angle  $\theta$  between the two equal sides of an isosceles triangle measures  $0.55 \pm 0.005$  radians. The two equal sides are exactly 151 centimeters long. Calculate the length of the third side with an estimate for the absolute error and the relative error.

40. Calculate the area of the triangle of Problem 39 with an estimate for the absolute error and the relative error. How much error?

41. It can be shown that if  $|f'(x)| \leq M$  on a closed interval with  $a$  and  $x + \Delta x$  as end points, then

$$|f(x) - f(a)| \leq M|\Delta x|$$

Find, using differentials, the change in  $y = 3x^2 - 2x + 1$  when  $x$  increases from 2 to 2.400 and then give a bound for the error that you have made by using differentials.

42. Suppose that  $f$  is a function satisfying  $f(1) = 10$ , and  $f'(1) = 12$ . Use this information to approximate  $f(1.02)$ .

43. Suppose  $f$  is a function satisfying  $f(1) = 8$  and  $f'(1.05) = \frac{1}{5}$ . Use this information to approximate  $f(1.06)$ .

44. A concrete cup, 9 centimeters high and 5 centimeters wide at the top, is filled with water to a depth of 9 centimeters. An ice cube 3 centimeters on a side is about to be dropped in. Use differentials to decide whether the cup will overflow.

45. A tank has the shape of a cylinder with hemispherical ends. If the cylindrical part is 800 centimeters high and has an inside diameter of 20 centimeters, about how much paint is required to coat the inside of the tank to a thickness of 1 millimeter?

46. Einstein's Special Theory of Relativity says that an object's mass  $m$  is related to its velocity  $v$  by the formula

$$m = \frac{m_0}{\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}}$$

Here  $m_0$  is the rest mass and  $c$  is the speed of light. Use differentials to determine the percent increase in mass of an object whose mass (with momentum  $p$ ) is  $k = 1.01$ .

In Problems 47–48, find the linear approximation to the given function at the specified points. Plot the function and its linear approximation over the indicated region.

47.  $g(x) = x + 2$  at  $a = 1.5$

48.  $g(x) = e^{-x} \cos x$  at  $a = 0$

49.  $h(x) = \sin x$  at  $a = \pi$

50.  $f(x) = 3x^2 - 2$  at  $a = 1$

51.  $f(x) = \sqrt{1-x}$  at  $a = 0.5$

52.  $g(x) = e^x(1-x^2)$  at  $a = 0$

53.  $h(x) = \cos x$  at  $a = 0$

54.  $G(x) = x + \sin 2x$  at  $a = \pi/2$

55. Find the linear approximation to  $f(x) = \sin x + k$  at an arbitrary  $a$ . What is the relationship between  $k$  and  $L(x)$ ?

56. Show that for every  $x > 0$  the linear approximation  $L(x)$  to the function  $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$  at  $a$  satisfies  $f(x) \leq L(x)$  for all  $x > 0$ .

57. Show that for every  $a$  the linear approximation  $L(x)$  to the function  $f(x) = x^2$  at  $a$  satisfies  $f(x) \leq L(x)$  for all

$x > 0$ . 58. Find a linear approximation to  $f(x) = 1 + x^2$  at  $a = 0$ , where  $a$  is any number. For various values of  $a$ , plot  $f(x)$  and its linear approximation  $L(x)$ . For what values of  $a$  does the linear approximation always overestimate  $f(x)$ ? For what values of  $a$  does the linear approximation always underestimate  $f(x)$ ?

59. Suppose  $f$  is differentiable. If we use the approximation  $f(x + h) \approx f(x) + f'(x)h$  the error is  $\Delta f = f(x + h) - f(x) - f'(x)h$ . Show that

(a)  $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \Delta f = 0$  and (b)  $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta f}{h} = 0$

1.  $3x + 5$  at  $a = 1$  2.  $3x + 5$  at  $a = 1$  3.  $3x + 5$  at  $a = 1$  4.  $3x + 5$  at  $a = 1$

## 2.10 Chapter Review

### 2.10.1

Respond with true or false to each of the following assertions. Be prepared to justify your answer.

- The tangent line to a curve at a point cannot cross the curve at that point.
- The tangent line to a curve can touch the curve at only one point.
- The slope of the tangent line to the curve  $y = x^3$  is different at every point on the curve.
- The slope of the tangent line to the curve  $y = \cos x$  is different at every point on the curve.
- It is possible for the velocity of an object to be increasing while its speed is decreasing.

6. Is a smooth curve  $y = f(x)$  on an interval  $I$  increasing when  $f'(x) > 0$  for all  $x$  in  $I$ ?

7. If the tangent line to the graph of  $y = f(x)$  is horizontal at  $a$ , then  $f(a) = 0$ .

8. If  $f'(x) = g'(x)$  for all  $x$ , then  $f(x) = g(x)$  for all  $x$ .

9.  $f(x) = \sin x$  when  $x = \pi/2$ .

10. If  $y = x^2$  then  $D_x y = 2x$ .

11. If  $f'(c)$  exists then  $f$  is continuous at  $c$ .

12. The graph of  $y = \sqrt{x}$  has a tangent line at  $x = 0$  and yet  $D_x y$  does not exist there.

13. The derivative of a product is always the product of the derivatives.

14. If the acceleration of an object is negative, then its velocity is decreasing.
15. If  $x^2$  is a factor of the differentiable function  $f(x)$ , then  $x^2$  is a factor of its derivative.
16. The equation of the line tangent to the graph of  $f = x^3$  at  $(x_0, y_0) = (3, 27)$  is  $y = 9x^2 - 5$ .
17. If  $y = f(x)g(x)$ , then  $D_x y = f'(x)g(x) + f(x)g'(x)$ .
18. If  $y = f(x) + h(x)$ , then  $D^2 y = 0$ .
19. The derivative of a polynomial is a polynomial.
20. The derivative of a rational function is a rational function.
21. If  $f'(x) = g'(x) = 0$  and  $h(x) = f(x)g(x)$ , then  $h'(x) = 0$ .
22. The function  $y = \sin x$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \frac{\pi}{2}} \frac{\sin x}{x}$$

is the derivative of  $y(x) = \sin x$  at  $x = \frac{\pi}{2}$ .

23. The hypotenuse of  $\triangle ABC$  is increasing at 10 in./sec. If  $\angle C = 30^\circ$ , find the rate at which the side opposite  $\angle C$  is increasing when the side adjacent to  $\angle C$  is 6 in.
24. If  $h(x) = f(g(x))$  where both  $f$  and  $g$  are differentiable, then  $g'(x) = 0$  implies that  $h'(x) = 0$ .
25. If  $f'(2) = 3$  and  $g'(2) = 4$ , then  $(f + g)'(2) = 7$ .
26. If  $y$  is differentiable and increasing and if  $dx = \Delta x > 0$ , then  $\Delta y > dy$ .
27. If the radius of a sphere is increasing at 3 feet per second, find its volume is increasing at 37 cubic feet per second.
28. If the radius of a disk is increasing at 4 feet per second, find its circumference is increasing at 8 feet per second.
29.  $D_x^{-1}(\sin x) = D^2 \sin x$  for every positive integer  $n$ .
30.  $D^n(\cos x) = D(\sin x)$  for every positive integer  $n$ .
31.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{1-x} = \frac{1}{2}$ .
32. If  $x = 5t^2$  (in feet) gives the position of an object on a horizontal coordinate line at time  $t$ , then that object is always moving in the right (the direction of increasing  $x$ ).

33. If air is being pumped into a spherical rubber balloon at a constant rate of 4 cubic inches per second, then the radius will increase at a slower and slower rate.

34. If water is being pumped into a spherical tank of fixed radius at a rate of 3 gallons per second, the height of the water in the tank will increase more and more rapidly as the tank nears being full.

35. If an error  $\Delta r$  is made in measuring the radius of a sphere, the corresponding error in the calculated volume will be approximately  $3 \Delta r$  when  $R$  is the surface area of the sphere.

36. If  $y = x^2$  then  $dy = 2x$ .

37. The linear approximation to the function defined by  $f(x) = \cos x$  at  $x = 0$  has positive slope.

### Now do the Problems

2. Use  $f'(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h}$  to find the derivative at each of the following.

- (a)  $f(x) = \frac{1}{3x}$  (d)  $f(x) = \frac{1}{3x^2 + 2}$

- (c)  $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$  (h)  $f(x) = \cos x$

3. Use  $f'(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h}$  to find  $f'(x)$  in each case.

- (a)  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$  (d)  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2}$
- (b)  $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$  (e)  $f(x) = \sin x$
- (c)  $f(x) = \sqrt{x^2 + 1}$  (f)  $f(x) = \cos x$

4. The given limit is a derivative, but of what function? Find at what value.

- (a)  $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(2+h) - f(2)}{h}$  (h)  $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(4+h) - f(4)}{h}$
- (b)  $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(1+h) - f(1)}{h}$  (i)  $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(1+h) - f(1)}{h}$
- (c)  $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(1+h) - f(1)}{h}$  (j)  $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(1+h) - f(1)}{h}$
- (d)  $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(1+h) - f(1)}{h}$  (k)  $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(1+h) - f(1)}{h}$
- (e)  $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(1+h) - f(1)}{h}$  (l)  $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(1+h) - f(1)}{h}$

5. For the function  $f(x) = \sin x$ , find  $f'(x)$  at each of the following.

- (a)  $f'(2)$  (b)  $f'(0)$
- (c)  $f'(3)$  (d)  $f'(1)$
- (e)  $f'(4)$  (e)  $f'(1)$



6. For the function  $f(x) = \cos x$ , find  $f'(x)$  at each of the following.

- (a)  $f'(2)$  (b)  $f'(0)$
- (c)  $f'(3)$  (d)  $f'(1)$
- (e)  $f'(4)$  (e)  $f'(1)$

7. For the function  $f(x) = \tan x$ , find  $f'(x)$  at each of the following.

- (a)  $f'(2)$  (b)  $f'(0)$
- (c)  $f'(3)$  (d)  $f'(1)$
- (e)  $f'(4)$  (e)  $f'(1)$



19.  $\frac{d}{dt}(\sin^2 t \sin(\pi t))$       20.  $\frac{d}{dt}(10\pi^{-1} \cos 4t)$   
 21.  $D_y(\sin 3\theta)$       22.  $\frac{d}{dx}\left(\frac{\sin 3x}{\cos 5x^\circ}\right)$   
 23.  $f'(2)$  if  $f(x) = x^3 - 1)^2(3x^3 - 4x)$   
 24.  $g''(0)$  if  $g(x) = \sin 3x + \sin^2 3x$   
 25.  $\frac{d}{dx}\left(\frac{\cos x}{\sec x}\right)$       26.  $D_t(4t \sin t \cos t - \sin t)$   
 27.  $f'(2)$  if  $f(x) = (x - 1)^2 \sin \pi x - x^2$   
 28.  $h''(0)$  if  $h(t) = (\sin 2t + \cos 3t)^3$   
 29.  $g''(1)$  if  $g(r) = \cos 5r$

In Problems 30–33, assume that all the functions given are differentiable, and find the indicated derivative.

30.  $f'(t)$  if  $f(t) = h(g(t)) + g^4(t)$   
 31.  $G'(x)$  if  $G(x) = F(x(x + x(x))), x + x(x)$   
 32. If  $F(x) = G(R(x))$ ,  $R(x) = \cos x$  and  $G'(R) = R^3$  find  $F'(x)$   
 33. If  $F(x) = r(s(x))$ ,  $r(x) = \sin 3x$  and  $s(t) = 3t^2$  find  $F'(2)$   
 34. Find the coordinates of the point on the curve  $y = (x - 2)^2$  where there is a tangent line that is perpendicular to the line  $2x + y = 3$ .

35. A spherical balloon is expanding from the sun's heat. Find the rate of change of the volume of the balloon with respect to its radius when the radius is 5 meters.

36. If the volume of the balloon of Problem 35 is increasing at a constant rate of 0 cubic meters per hour, how fast is its radius increasing when the radius is 5 meters?

37. A rough 12 feet long has a cross section in the form of an isosceles triangle (with base at the top) 4 feet deep and 6 feet across. If water is filling the rough at the rate of 9 cubic feet per minute, how fast is the water level rising when the water is 3 feet deep?

38. An object is projected directly upward from the ground with an initial velocity of 128 feet per second. Its height  $s$  at the end of  $t$  seconds is  $s = 28t - 6t^2$  feet.

- (a) When does it reach its maximum height and what is this height?  
 (b) When does it hit the ground and with what velocity?

39. An object moves on a horizontal coordinate line. Its directed distance  $s$  from the origin at the end of  $t$  seconds is  $s = t - 6t^2 + 9t^3$  feet.

- (a) When is the object moving to the left?  
 (b) What is its acceleration when its velocity is zero?  
 (c) When is its acceleration positive?

40. Find  $D_x^{20}y$  in each case.

- (a)  $y = x^6 + x^{17} + x^7 + 10$       (b)  $y = x^{20} + x^{18} + x^{16}$   
 (c)  $y = 7x^{21} + 3x^{20}$       (d)  $y = \sin x + \cos x$   
 (e)  $y = \sin^2 x$       (f)  $y = \frac{1}{x}$

41. Find  $dy/dx$  in each case.

- (a)  $x^2 + y^2 = 5$       (b)  $xy^2 + yx = 1$   
 (c)  $x^3 + y^3 = x^2y$       (d)  $x \sin(xy) = x^2 + 1$   
 (e)  $x \cos(xy) = 2$

42. Show that the tangent lines to the curves  $y^2 = 4x^3$  and  $2x^2 + 3y^2 = 14$  at  $(1, 2)$  are perpendicular to each other. *Hint:* Use implicit differentiation.

43. Let  $y = \sin(\pi x) + x^2$ . If  $x$  changes from 2 to 2.01, approximately how much does  $y$  change?

44. Let  $xy^2 + 2y(x + 2)^2 + 2 = 0$ .

- (a) If  $x$  changes from -2.00 to -2.01 and  $y > 0$ , approximately how much does  $y$  change?  
 (b) If  $x$  changes from -2.00 to -2.01 and  $y < 0$ , approximately how much does  $y$  change?

45. Suppose that  $f(2) = 3$ ,  $f'(2) = 4$ ,  $f''(2) = 1$ ,  $g(2) = 2$ , and  $g'(2) = 5$ . Find each value.

- (a)  $\frac{d}{dx}(f^2(x) + g(x))$  at  $x = 2$   
 (b)  $\frac{d}{dx}(f \circ g)(x)$  at  $x = 2$   
 (c)  $\frac{d}{dx}(f \circ g)(x)$  at  $x = 2$       (d)  $D_x(f \circ g)$  at  $x = 2$

46. A 13-foot ladder is leaning against a vertical wall. If the bottom of the ladder is being pulled away from the wall at a constant rate of 2 feet per second, how fast is the top end of the ladder moving down the wall when it is 5 feet above the ground?

47. An airplane is climbing at a  $5^\circ$  angle to the horizontal. How fast is it gaining altitude if its speed is 400 miles per hour?

48. Given that  $D_{x_1}u = \frac{y}{x}$ ,  $x \neq 0$ , find a formula for

- (a)  $D_{x_1}(x^2)$       (b)  $D_{x_1}^2x$   
 (c)  $D_{x_1}^2(x_1)$       (d)  $D_{x_1}^2(x_1^2)$

49. Given that  $D_{x_1}y = \frac{1}{t}$ ,  $t \neq 0$ , find a formula for

- (a)  $D_{x_1}(\sin \theta)$       (b)  $D_{x_1}(\cos \theta)$

50. Find the linear approximation to the following functions at the given points.

- (a)  $\sqrt{x + 1}$  at  $a = 3$       (b)  $x \cos x$  at  $a = \pi$



# REVIEW & PREVIEW PROBLEMS

In Problems 1–6, write the general equation for the line(s).

1.  $x^2 + y^2 = 25$

2.  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$

3.  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$

4.  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$

5.  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$

6.  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$

In Problems 7–14, find the derivative  $f'(x)$  of the given function.

7.  $f(x) = (2x - 1)^3$

8.  $f(x) = \sin \pi x$

9.  $f(x) = \cos \pi x$

10.  $f(x) = \tan \pi x$

11.  $f(x) = \tan^2 3x$

12.  $f(x) = \sqrt{1 - \sin^2 x}$

13.  $f(x) = \sin \sqrt{x}$

14.  $f(x) = \sqrt{\sin 2x}$

15. Find all points on the graph of  $y = \tan^2 x$  where the tangent line is horizontal.
16. Find all points on the graph of  $y = x - \sin x$  where the tangent line is horizontal.
17. Find all points on the graph of  $y = x + \sin x$  where the tangent line is parallel to the line  $y = x - 1$ .
18. A solid paraboloid is to be made from a piece of cardboard 4 inches long and 10 inches wide by cutting out four congruent trapezoids from the corners of the cardboard. In order to maximize the volume of the solid obtained by gluing the pieces together, what must be the volume of the resulting box?



Figure 2

19. Andy wants to cross a river that is 1 kilometer wide and get to a point 4 kilometers down the river. To get to the car, he can swim at 4 km/hr, or he can run at 10 km/hr. He can also walk on the shore, but he cannot swim and he cannot run. He starts at point A, goes downstream to point B, then runs to point C, and finally walks to point D. How long will it take him to reach his destination D?
20. (a) Does the equation  $y = \cos x = 0$  have a solution between  $x = 0$  and  $x = \pi$ ? How do you know?  
(b) Find the equation of the tangent line at  $x = \pi/2$ .  
(c) Where does the tangent line from part (b) intersect the x-axis?
21. Find a function whose derivative is  
(a)  $y' = 5$  (b)  $y' = x^2$  (c)  $y' = x^3$
22. Add 7 to each answer from Problem 21. Are these functions also solutions to Problem 21? Explain.

- 1.1 Maxima and Minima
- 1.2 Monotonicity and Concavity
- 1.3 Local Extrema and Extrema on Open Intervals
- 1.4 Practical Problems
- 1.5 Graphing Functions Using Calculus
- 1.6 The Mean Value Theorem for Derivatives
- 1.7 Solving Equations Numerically
- 1.8 Antiderivatives
- 1.9 Introduction to Differential Equations

## 1.1

## Maxima and Minima

Often in life, we are faced with the problem of finding the *best* way to do something. For example, a farmer wants to choose the mix of crops that will give her the largest profit. A doctor wishes to select the smallest dosage of a drug that will cure a certain disease. A manufacturer would like to minimize the cost of distribution to products. Often such a problem can be mathematized, and it involves maximizing or minimizing a function over a specified set. One of the methods of calculus provides a powerful tool for solving the problem.

Suppose that we are given a function  $f$  and a domain  $S$  as in Figure 1. We now pose three questions:

1. Does  $f(x)$  have a maximum or minimum value on  $S$ ?
2. If it does have a maximum or a minimum, where are they assumed?
3. If they exist, what are the maximum and minimum values?

Answering these questions is the principal goal of this section. We begin by introducing a precise vocabulary.

**Definition**

Let  $S$ , the domain of  $f$ , contain the point  $c$ . We say that

- (1)  $f(c)$  is the **maximum value** of  $f$  on  $S$  if  $f(c) \geq f(x)$  for all  $x$  in  $S$ ;
- (2)  $f(c)$  is the **minimum value** of  $f$  on  $S$  if  $f(c) \leq f(x)$  for all  $x$  in  $S$ ;
- (3)  $f(c)$  is an **extreme value** of  $f$  on  $S$  if it is either the maximum value or the minimum value;
- (4) the highest (or lowest) extreme value of  $f$  on  $S$  is called the **objective function**.

**The Existence Question:** Does  $f$  have a maximum (or minimum) value on  $S$ ?

The answer depends first of all on the set  $S$ . Consider  $f(x) = x^2$  on  $S = (-\infty, \infty)$ .  $f$  has no maximum value, nor minimum value (Figure 1). Let the function  $f$  and the same function on  $S = [1, 4]$  have the maximum value of  $f$  and the minimum value of  $f$  on  $S = [1, 4]$ .  $f$  has no maximum value and the minimum value of  $f$  is  $f(1) = 1$ .

The answer also depends on the type of function  $f$ . Consider the discontinuous function  $g$  (Figure 2) defined by

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} 1-x & \text{if } 0 \leq x \leq 2 \\ 2-x & \text{if } 2 < x \leq 4 \end{cases}$$

On  $S = [1, 4]$ ,  $g$  has no maximum value (it gets arbitrarily close to 2 but never attains it). However,  $g$  has the minimum value  $g(2) = 0$ .

There is a nice theorem that answers the existence question for many of the problems that come up in practice. Though it is intuitively obvious, a rigorous proof is quite difficult; we leave that for more advanced textbooks.

**Theorem 1** Max-Min Existence Theorem

If  $f$  is continuous on a closed interval  $[a, b]$ , then  $f$  attains both a maximum value and a minimum value there.



FIGURE 4

Note the key words in Theorem 3.  $f$  is required to be *continuous* and the set  $S$  is required to be a *closed interval*.

**EXAMPLE 1** Find the absolute maximum and minimum values of  $f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 4x - 5$  on the interval  $I = [0, 3]$ .  
**SOLUTION** We first find the stationary points of  $f$  in the interval  $I$ . The derivative of  $f$  is  $f'(x) = 3x^2 - 6x + 4$ . We solve the equation  $f'(x) = 0$  for  $x$ . The solutions are  $x = 1$  and  $x = 2$ . Both of these points are in the interval  $I$ . We then evaluate  $f$  at the endpoints of  $I$  and at the stationary points. We find that  $f(0) = -5$ ,  $f(1) = 1$ ,  $f(2) = 3$ , and  $f(3) = -5$ . The absolute maximum value of  $f$  on  $I$  is 3, and the absolute minimum value of  $f$  on  $I$  is -5.

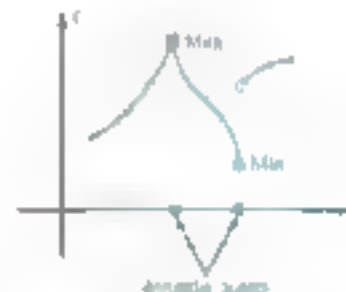


FIGURE 6

If  $f'(c) = 0$  we call  $c$  a **stationary point**. The name derives from the fact that at a stationary point the graph of  $f$  levels off, since the tangent line is horizontal. For the values of  $x$  where  $f'(x) = 0$ , see Figure 7.

If  $f$  has a point  $c$  in  $I$  where  $f'(c)$  does not exist, we call  $c$  a **singular point**. It is a point where the graph of  $f$  has a sharp corner, or where the graph has a vertical tangent line, or where the graph has a cusp. For the values of  $x$  where  $f'(x)$  does not exist, see Figure 8.

Thus, there are three kinds of points where  $f$  has a local maximum or minimum: stationary points, singular points, and endpoints. A point  $c$  in  $I$  where  $f$  has a local maximum or minimum is called a **critical point** of  $f$ .

**EXAMPLE 2** Find the critical points of  $f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 4x - 5$  on the interval  $I = [0, 3]$ .

**SOLUTION** The endpoints are 0 and 3. To find the stationary points, we solve the equation  $f'(x) = 0$  for  $x$ , obtaining  $x = 1$  and  $x = 2$ . There are no singular points. Thus, the critical points are 0, 1, 2, and 3.

### THEOREM 3 Critical Point Theorem

Let  $f$  be defined on an interval  $I$  containing the point  $c$ . If  $f(c)$  is an extreme value, then  $c$  must be a critical point that is either (i) an endpoint of  $I$ , (ii) a stationary point of  $I$  that is a point where  $f'(c) = 0$ , or (iii) a singular point of  $I$  that is a point where  $f'(c)$  does not exist.

- an endpoint of  $I$
- a stationary point of  $I$  that is a point where  $f'(c) = 0$
- a singular point of  $I$  that is a point where  $f'(c)$  does not exist

**Proof** Consider first the case where  $c$  is the maximum value of  $f$  on  $I$ . Suppose that  $c$  is neither an endpoint nor a singular point. We must show that  $c$  is a stationary point.

Now, since  $f(c)$  is the maximum value,  $f(x) \leq f(c)$  for all  $x$  in  $I$ . Thus,

$$f(x) - f(c) \leq 0$$

Thus, if  $x < c$ , so that  $x - c < 0$ , then

$$(1) \quad \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} \geq 0$$

whenever  $x \rightarrow c$  then

1.

$$f'(x) = \frac{1}{x^2} > 0$$

But  $f'(c)$  exists because  $c$  is not a singular point. Consequently, when we let  $x \rightarrow c$  in (1) and  $x \rightarrow c$  in (2), we obtain, respectively,  $f'(c) = 0$  and  $f'(c) = 0$ . We conclude that  $f'(c) = 0$ , as desired.

The case where  $f(c)$  is the minimum value is handled similarly. ■

In the proof just given, we used the fact that the inequality  $y \leq f(x)$  is preserved under the operation of taking limits.

**What Are the Extreme Values?** In view of Theorems A and B, we can now give a very simple procedure for finding the maximum value and minimum value of a continuous function  $f$  on a closed interval  $I$ .

**Step 1** Find the critical points of  $f$  on  $I$ .

**Step 2** Evaluate  $f$  at each of these critical points. The largest of these values is the maximum value; the smallest is the minimum value.

**EXAMPLE 1** Find the maximum and minimum values of  $f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 - 4x + 8$  on  $[-2, 2]$ .

**SOLUTION** The derivative is  $f'(x) = 3x^2 - 6x - 4$ , which is defined on  $[-2, 2]$  and is 0 only when  $x = 0$ . The critical points are therefore 0 and the end points  $x = -2$  and  $x = 2$ . Evaluating  $f$  at the critical points yields  $f(-2) = -8$ ,  $f(0) = 8$ , and  $f(2) = 8$ . Thus the maximum value of  $f$  is 8 (attained at  $x = 2$ ) and the minimum is  $-8$  (attained at  $x = -2$ ). ■

Notice that in Example 1,  $f(0) = 8$ , but  $f$  did not attain a maximum or a minimum at  $x = 0$ . This does not contradict Theorem B, because in any ball  $B_\delta(x)$ ,  $f$  is not equal to 8 on the whole ball, so neither a maximum nor a minimum is 8. If  $f$  is a minimum or a maximum, then  $c$  is a critical point.

**EXAMPLE 2** Find the maximum and minimum values of

$$f(x) = -2x^3 - 3$$

on  $[-1, 2]$ .

**SOLUTION** In Example 1 we identified  $-2$ ,  $0$ , and  $2$  as the critical points. Now  $f'(x) = -6x^2 - 6 = -6(x^2 + 1)$  and  $f'(x) = 0$  if and only if  $x^2 = -1$  (attained at both  $x = i$  and  $x = -i$ ), and the minimum value is  $-4$  (attained at  $x = 2$ ). The graph of  $f$  is shown in Figure 7. ■

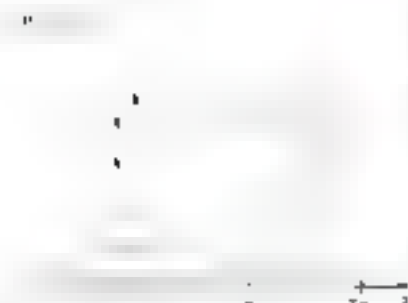
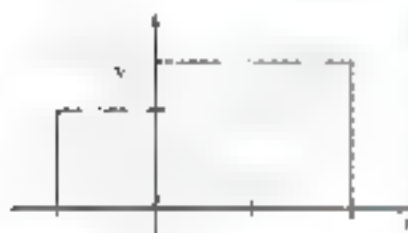
**EXAMPLE 3** Find the maximum and minimum values of  $f(x) = x^2 \cos x$  on  $[-\pi, \pi]$ .

**SOLUTION**  $f'(x) = 2x \cos x - x^2 \sin x$ , which is never 0. However,  $f(0) = 0$  and  $f(\pm\pi) = -\pi^2$  are critical points as are the end points  $-\pi$  and  $\pi$ . Now  $f(0) = 0$ ,  $f(\pm\pi) = -\pi^2 \approx -9.87$ . Thus the maximum value is  $0$ , the minimum value is  $-\pi^2$ . The graph is shown in Figure 8. ■

**EXAMPLE 4** Find the maximum and minimum values of  $f(x) = x + 2 \cos x$  on  $[-\pi, \pi]$ .

**SOLUTION** Figure 9 shows a plot of  $y = f(x)$ . The derivative is  $f'(x) = 1 - 2 \sin x$ , which is defined on  $(-\pi, 2\pi)$  and is zero when  $\sin x = 1/2$ . The only values of  $x$  in the interval  $[-\pi, 2\pi]$  that satisfy  $\sin x = 1/2$  are  $x = \pi/6$  and  $x = 5\pi/6$ . These two numbers, together with the end points  $-\pi$  and  $2\pi$  are the critical points. Now, evaluate  $f$  at each critical point:

Notice the way that terms are used in Example 1. The maximum is which is equal to  $f(-2)$  and  $f(2)$ . We say that the maximum is attained at  $-2$  and at  $2$ . Similarly, the minimum is  $-8$ , which is attained at  $-2$ .



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$$f(-\pi) = 2 - \pi \approx 5.14 \qquad f(\pi) = \sqrt{3} + \frac{\pi}{6} \approx 2.26$$

$$x = \pi \qquad \sqrt{3} + \frac{5\pi}{6} \approx 11.81 \qquad f(2\pi) = 2 + 2\pi \approx 12.28$$

Thus,  $\pi$  is the minimum (attained at  $x = -\pi$ ), and the maximum is  $2 + 2\pi$  (attained at  $x = 2\pi$ ). ■

## Concepts Review

1. A \_\_\_\_\_ function on a \_\_\_\_\_ interval will always have both a maximum value and a minimum value on that interval.

2. The term \_\_\_\_\_ value denotes either a maximum or a minimum value.

3. A function can attain an extreme value only at a critical point. Critical points are of three types: \_\_\_\_\_, \_\_\_\_\_, and \_\_\_\_\_.

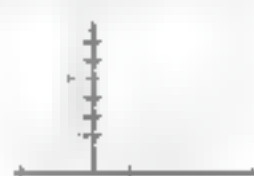
4. A stationary point for  $f$  is a number  $c$  such that \_\_\_\_\_; a singular point for  $f$  is a number  $c$  such that \_\_\_\_\_.

## Problem Set 3.1

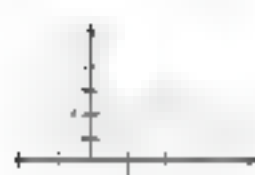
In Problems 1–4, find all critical points and find the minimum and maximum of the function. Each function has domain  $[-\pi, 4]$ .



2.



3.



4.



In Problems 5–20, identify the critical points and find the maximum value and minimum value on the given interval.

5.  $f(x) = x^2 - 4x$ ,  $x \in [-1, 1]$

6.  $f(x) = x^3$

7.  $f(x) = x^2 + 3x$ ,  $x \in [-2, 1]$

8.  $f(x) = \frac{1}{3}2x^2 + 3x^2 - 12x$ ,  $x \in [-3, 3]$

9.  $f(x) = x^2 - 3x - 1$ ,  $x \in [-\pi, 3]$ . *Hint:* Sketch the graph.

10.  $f(x) = x^3 - x^2$

11.  $f(x) = x^3$

12.  $g(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x$ ,  $x \in [-3, 3]$

13.  $f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x$ ,  $x \in [-3, 3]$

14.  $f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x$ ,  $x \in [-3, 3]$

15.  $g(x) = \frac{1}{x^2} + x^2$ ,  $x \in (-\infty, \infty)$ . *Hint:* Sketch the graph.

16.  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2} + x^2$ ,  $x \in [-4, 4]$

17.  $f(x) = \cos x$ ,  $x \in [-\pi, \pi]$

18.  $g(t) = \sin t$ ,  $t \in [0, \pi]$

19.  $h(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x$ ,  $x \in [-1, 1]$

20.  $f(x) = 3x^2 - 2$ ,  $x \in [-1, 1]$

21.  $g(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x$ ,  $x \in [-1, 1]$

22.  $h(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x$ ,  $x \in [-1, 1]$

23.  $h(x) = \cos x$ ,  $x \in [0, \pi]$

24.  $g(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x$ ,  $x \in [-3\pi, 3\pi]$

25.  $f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x$ ,  $x \in [-\frac{\pi}{4}, \frac{\pi}{4}]$

26.  $h(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x$ ,  $x \in [-1, 1]$

27. Identify the critical points and find the extreme values on the interval  $[-1, 5]$  for each function.

(a)  $f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x$ ,  $x \in [-1, 5]$  (b)  $g(x) = f(x)$

28. Identify the critical points and find the extreme values on the interval  $[-1, 5]$  for each function.

(a)  $f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x$ ,  $x \in [-1, 5]$  (b)  $g(x) = f(x)$

In Problems 29–30, sketch the graph of a function with the given properties.

29.  $f$  is differentiable, has domain  $[0, 6]$ , reaches a maximum of 6 (attained when  $x = 1$ ) and a minimum of 0 (attained when  $x = 0$ ). Additionally,  $x = 5$  is a stationary point.

30.  $f$  is differentiable, has domain  $[0, 6]$ , reaches a maximum of 4 (attained when  $x = 1$ ) and a minimum of 0 (attained when  $x = 5$ ). Additionally,  $x = 3$  is a stationary point.

31.  $f$  is continuous, but not necessarily differentiable, has domain  $[0, 6]$ , reaches a maximum of 6 (attained when  $x = 5$ ), and a minimum of 2 (attained when  $x = 3$ ). Additionally,  $x$  and  $x = 5$  are the only stationary points.

32.  $f$  is continuous, but not necessarily differentiable, has domain  $[0, 6]$ , reaches a maximum of 4 (attained when  $x = 4$ ) and a minimum of 2 (attained when  $x = 3$ ). Additionally, has no stationary points.

33.  $f$  is differentiable (its domain is  $\mathbb{R}$ ) reaches its maximum at 4, attains at two different values of  $x$  a number of which is an odd point, and a minimum of  $-1$  attains at the odd number of values of  $x$  exactly one of which is an odd and  $n$  is odd.

34.  $f$  is continuous but not necessarily differentiable, has domain  $[0, 6]$ , reaches a maximum of 6 (attained when  $x = 0$ ) and a minimum of 0 (attained when  $x = 6$ ). Additionally,  $f$  has two stationary points and two singular points in  $(0, 6)$ .

35.  $f$  has domain  $\mathbb{R}$ , but is not necessarily continuous and does not attain a maximum.

36. The domain is  $\mathbb{R}$ , but is not necessarily continuous and  $f$  attains neither a maximum nor a minimum.

4.  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$ .

2.  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and  $f$  attains its maximum and minimum.

4.  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and  $f$  attains its maximum and minimum.

## Monotonicity and Concavity

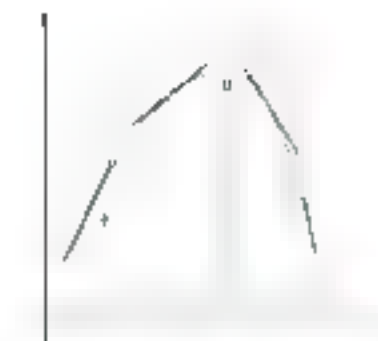
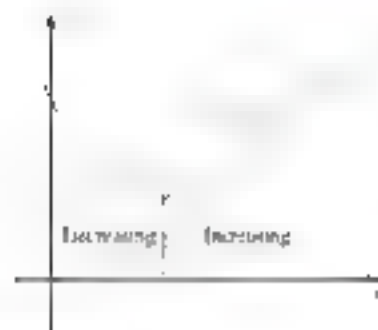


Figure 2

Consider the graph in Figure 1. As we will be advised when we say  $f$  is decreasing to the left of and increasing to the right of 1. But to make sure that we agree on terminology, we give precise definitions.

### Definition

Let  $f$  be defined on an interval  $I$  (open, closed, or neither). We say that

(i)  $f$  is **increasing** on  $I$  if, for every pair of numbers  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  in  $I$

$$x_1 < x_2 \Rightarrow f(x_1) < f(x_2)$$

(ii)  $f$  is **decreasing** on  $I$  if, for every pair of numbers  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  in  $I$ ,

$$x_1 < x_2 \Rightarrow f(x_1) > f(x_2)$$

and  $f$  is **strictly monotonic** on  $I$  if  $f$  is either increasing or decreasing on  $I$ .

How shall we decide where a function is increasing? We could draw a graph and observe it. But a graph is usually drawn by joining a few points and, unless these points are chosen with care, the graph can be deceiving. The graph looks that way because the dotted points between the plotted points have been drawn along straight lines. In a graphing calculator plot by simply connecting points. We need a better procedure.

Consider the function  $f(x) = x^2$  for  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . Recall that the derivative  $f'(x) = 2x$  gives us the slope of the tangent line to the graph at a point  $x$ . Thus, if  $x_1 < x_2$ , then the tangent line is rising to the right, suggesting that  $f$  is increasing. (See Figure 2.) Similarly, if  $f'(x) < 0$  then the tangent line is falling to the right, suggesting that  $f$  is decreasing. We can now work at this in terms of motion along a line. Suppose an object is in motion at time  $t$  and that its velocity is always positive, that is,  $v(t) = ds/dt > 0$ . Then it seems reasonable that the object will continue to move to the right as time goes on, because its velocity is always positive. In other words,  $s$  will be an increasing function of  $t$ . These observations lead us to the Theorem 3.1, which makes the result precise. We postpone a discussion of it until Section 3.3.

### Theorem 3.1 Monotonicity Theorem

Let  $f$  be continuous on an interval  $I$  and differentiable at every interior point of  $I$ .

(i) If  $f'(x) > 0$  for all  $x$  interior to  $I$ , then  $f$  is increasing on  $I$ .

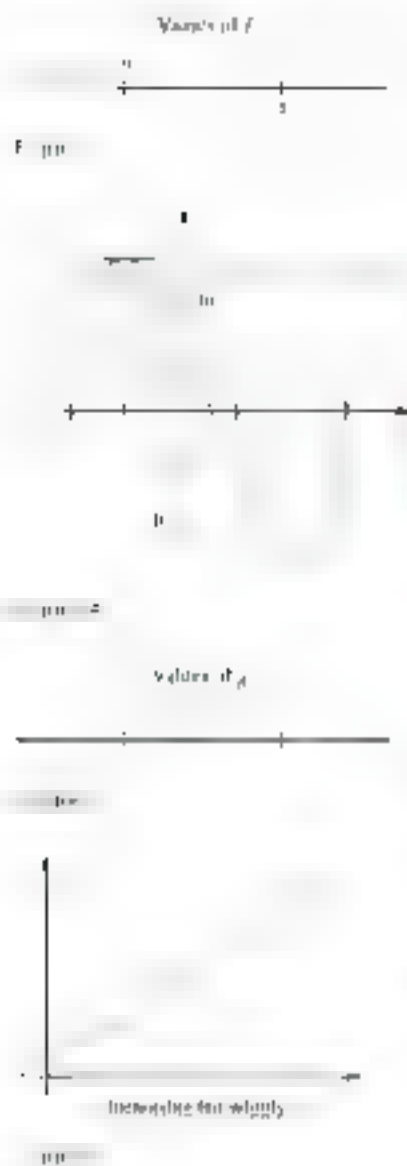
(ii) If  $f'(x) < 0$  for all  $x$  interior to  $I$ , then  $f$  is decreasing on  $I$ .

This theorem usually allows us to determine precisely where a differentiable function increases and where it decreases. We illustrate it by using two examples.

**EXAMPLE 1** Let  $f(x) = 2x^3 - 3x^2 - 12x + 7$ . Find where  $f$  is increasing and where it is decreasing.

**SOLUTION** We begin by finding the derivative of  $f$ .

$$f'(x) = 6x^2 - 6x - 12 = 6(x + 1)(x - 2)$$



We need to determine where

$$(x - 1)(x - 2) > 0$$

and also where

$$(x - 1)(x - 2) < 0$$

This problem was discussed in great detail in Section 6.7, a section worth reviewing now. The split points are 1 and 2; they split the  $x$ -axis into three intervals:  $(-\infty, 1)$ ,  $(1, 2)$ , and  $(2, \infty)$ . Using the test points  $-2$ ,  $1.5$ , and  $3$ , we conclude that  $f'(x) > 0$  on the first and last of these intervals and that  $f'(x) < 0$  on the middle interval (Figure 5). Thus, by Theorem 4,  $f$  is increasing on  $(-\infty, 1)$  and  $(2, \infty)$  and is decreasing on  $(1, 2)$ . Note that the maximum occurs at  $x = 1$  and the minimum at  $x = 2$ , even though  $f'(x) = 0$  at both points. The graph of  $f$  is shown in Figure 4.

**EXAMPLE 1** Determine where  $f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x$  is increasing and where it is decreasing.

### NOTATION

$$f'(x) = \frac{d}{dx} \left( \frac{x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x}{1 + x^2} \right) = \frac{x^2 - 6x + 2}{(1 + x^2)^2}$$

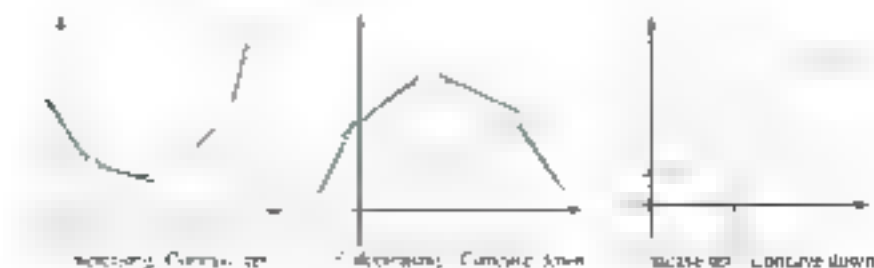
Select the denominator, which is always positive,  $g(x) = 1 + x^2$ , to have the same sign as the numerator,  $-x(1 + x)$ . The split points,  $-1$  and  $1$ , determine the three intervals  $(-\infty, -1)$ ,  $(-1, 1)$ , and  $(1, \infty)$ . When we test them, we find that  $g'(x) < 0$  on the first and last of these intervals and that  $g'(x) > 0$  on the middle one (Figure 6). We conclude from Theorem 4 that  $g$  is decreasing on  $(-\infty, -1)$  and  $(1, \infty)$  and that  $g$  is increasing on  $(-1, 1)$ . We now turn (practicing your skill) to the graph of  $g$ ; see the graph in Figure 7 and Example 4.

So far, we have seen that a function may be increasing and still have a very wiggly graph (Figure 8). Another way we need to study how the tangent line turns as we move along the curve is to be able to tell just how the curve itself turns in the second sense. As we move along the graph, we can see the tangent line turn in the counterclockwise direction, or the clockwise direction. Both directions are better stated in terms of functions and this we will do.

### Definition

Let  $f$  be differentiable on an open interval  $I$ . We say that  $f$  is **concave up** (or **concave upward**) on  $I$  and we say that  $f$  is **concave down** (or **concave downward**) on  $I$  if

The diagrams in Figure 7 will help us clarify these notions. Note that a curve that is concave up is shaped like a cup.





The conditions regarding the derivatives in Theorems A and B are sufficient, but guarantee the concavity/convexity. These conditions are not, however, necessary. It is possible that a function is increasing on some interval even though its derivative is not always positive. For instance, if we consider the function  $f(x) = x^3$  over the interval  $[-4, 4]$  you note that it is increasing but its derivative is not always positive on that interval ( $f'(x) = 0$ ). The function  $g(x) = x^4$  is concave up on the interval  $[-4, 4]$  but the second derivative,  $g''(x) = 2x^2$ , is not always positive on that interval.

In view of Theorem A we have a simpler criterion for deciding where a curve is concave up and where it is concave down. We simply keep track of the second derivative of a function. If the second derivative is positive, the function is increasing if  $f'$  is positive and decreasing if  $f'$  is negative.

### Theorem B Concavity Theorem

Let  $f$  be twice differentiable on the open interval  $I$ .

- (i) If  $f''(x) > 0$  for all  $x$  in  $I$ , then  $f$  is concave up on  $I$ .
- (ii) If  $f''(x) < 0$  for all  $x$  in  $I$ , then  $f$  is concave down on  $I$ .

For most functions, the theorem reduces the problem of determining concavity to the problem of solving inequalities. By now we are experts at this.

**EXAMPLE 3** Where is  $f(x) = -x^3 + x^2 + 3x + 4$  increasing, decreasing, concave up, and concave down?

### SOLUTION

$$f'(x) = -3x^2 + 2x + 3 = -(3x^2 - 2x - 3)$$

$$f''(x) = -2x + 2 = 2(x - 1)$$

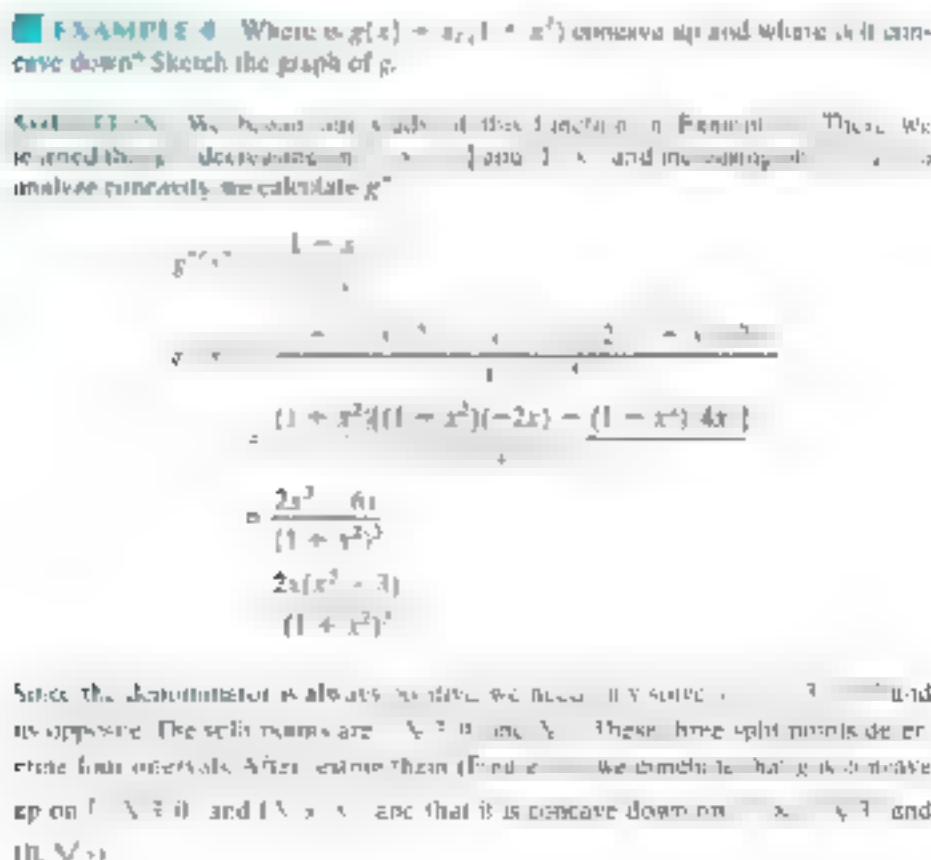
By solving the inequalities  $(x - 1)(x - 3) > 0$  and its opposite,  $(x - 1)(x - 3) < 0$ , we conclude that  $f$  is increasing on  $(-1, 3)$  and decreasing on  $(-\infty, -1) \cup (3, \infty)$  (Figure 8). Similarly, solving  $2(x - 1) > 0$  and  $2(x - 1) < 0$  shows that  $f$  is concave up on  $(1, \infty)$  and concave down on  $(-\infty, 1)$ . The graph of  $f$  is shown in Figure 9.

**EXAMPLE 4** Where is  $g(x) = x/(1 + x^2)$  concave up and where is it concave down? Sketch the graph of  $g$ .

**SOL. (Figure 10)** We know the graph of this function in Figure 10. There we learned that  $g$  is decreasing on  $(-\infty, 1)$  and increasing on  $(1, \infty)$ . To analyze concavity we calculate  $g''$ .

$$\begin{aligned} g'(x) &= \frac{1 - x^2}{1 + x^2} \\ g''(x) &= \frac{(1 - x^2)(-2x) - (1 + x^2)(4x)}{(1 + x^2)^2} \\ &= \frac{2x^3 - 6x}{(1 + x^2)^2} \\ &= \frac{2x(x^2 - 3)}{(1 + x^2)^2} \end{aligned}$$

Since the denominator is always positive, we need only solve  $x^2 - 3 = 0$  and its opposite. The solutions are  $x = \pm\sqrt{3}$  and  $x = 0$ . These three critical points determine four intervals. After testing them (Figure 11) we conclude that  $g$  is concave up on  $(-\infty, -\sqrt{3})$  and  $(\sqrt{3}, \infty)$  and that it is concave down on  $(-\sqrt{3}, 0)$  and  $(0, \sqrt{3})$ .





To sketch the graph of  $z$ , we make use of all the information obtained so far plus the fact that  $z$  is an odd function whose graph is symmetric with respect to the origin (Figure 11).

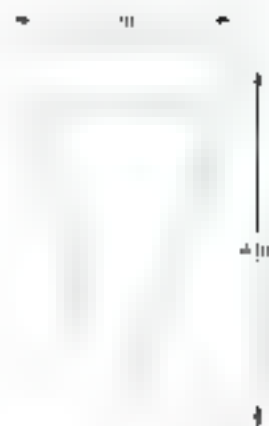
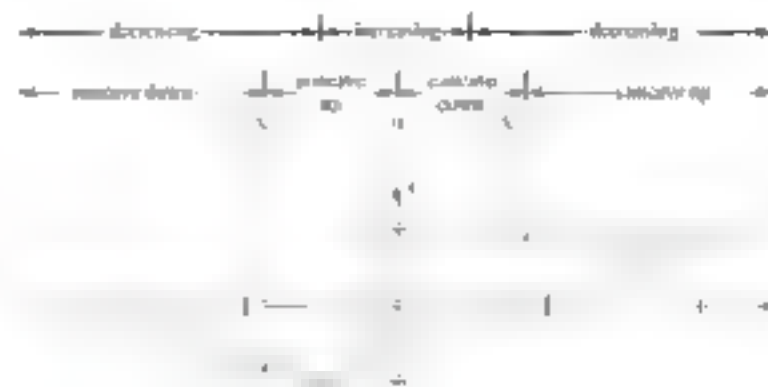


Figure 12

**EXAMPLE 5** Suppose that water is poured into the container shown in Figure 12 at the constant rate of 2 cubic feet per minute. Find the height  $h$  of the water as a function of time and plot  $h$  against time. Assume the container is full.

**SOLUTION** Before we solve the problem, let's think about what the problem will look like. As time the height will increase and, since  $h$  is very close to 4, we can assume that the container is full. As the container fills up, the height will increase rapidly. What can be said to be true about the function  $h(t)$  and its derivative  $h'(t)$  and its second derivative  $h''(t)$ ? Since the water is spreading out as the height will always increase, so  $h'(t)$  will be positive. The height will increase more slowly as the water level rises. Thus the function  $h(t)$  is decreasing so  $h''(t)$  is negative. The graph of  $h(t)$  is therefore increasing because  $h'(t)$  is positive and concave down because  $h''(t)$  is negative.

Now, since we have an idea about what the graph of  $h(t)$  will look like, let's see how we can find  $h(t)$ . The volume of the water in the container is  $V = \frac{1}{2} \pi r^2 h$  where  $r$  is the radius of the container. The functions  $h$  and  $V$  are related by the equation  $V = \frac{1}{2} \pi r^2 h$ . Using properties of similar triangles, we have

$$\frac{r}{h} = \frac{4}{4}$$

Thus  $r = h/4$ . The volume of the water inside the cone is thus

$$V = \frac{1}{2} \pi r^2 h = \frac{1}{2} \pi \left( \frac{h}{4} \right)^2 h = \frac{\pi}{32} h^3$$

On the other hand, since water is flowing into the container at the rate of 2 cubic feet per minute, the volume at time  $t$  is  $V = 2t$  where  $t$  is measured in seconds. Equating these two expressions for  $V$  gives

$$\frac{\pi}{32} h^3 = 2t$$

When  $h = 4$ , we have  $\frac{\pi}{32} 4^3 = 2t$ ,  $t = 8$ . It takes about 8 seconds to fill the container. Now solve for  $h$  in the above equation using  $h$  and  $t$  that we

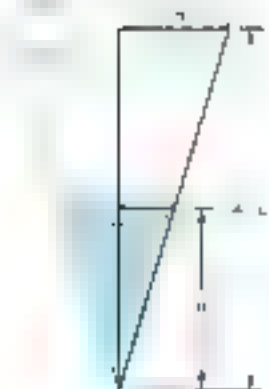
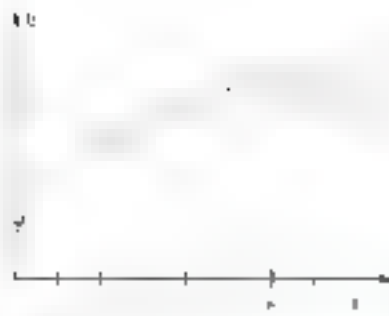


Figure 13

$$h(t) = \sqrt[3]{\frac{64}{\pi} t}$$



The first and second derivatives of  $f$  are

$$f'(x) = D \frac{1}{x+1} = -\frac{1}{(x+1)^2} \quad \text{and} \quad f''(x) = D \frac{-1}{(x+1)^2} = \frac{2}{(x+1)^3}$$

which is positive, and

$$f''(x) = D \frac{2}{(x+1)^3} = -\frac{6}{(x+1)^4}$$

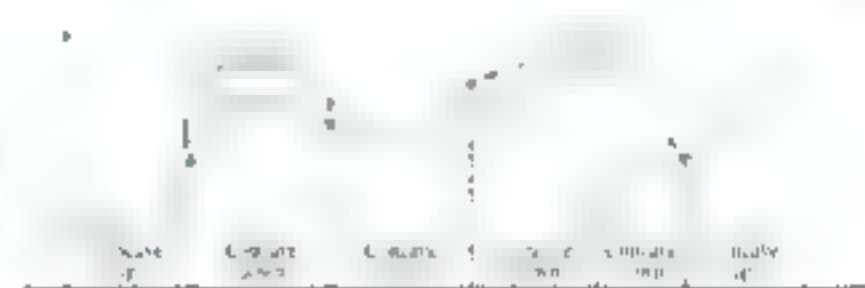
which is negative. The graph of  $f$  is shown in Figure 14. As expected, the graph of  $f$  is increasing and concave down. ■

**EXAMPLE 1** A news agency reported in May 2014 that unemployment in Germany was continuing to increase at an increasing rate. In other words, the price of food was increasing but at a slower rate than before. Discuss these statements in terms of increasing-decreasing functions and concavity.

**SOLUTION** Let  $u = f(t)$  denote the number of people unemployed at time  $t$ . Although  $u$  actually drops by zero amount, we will show standard practice in representing  $u$  by a smooth curve as in Figure 15. To say unemployment is increasing is to say that  $du/dt > 0$ ; to say that  $u$  is increasing at an increasing rate is to say that the second derivative is positive, but this means that the derivative of  $du/dt$  must be positive. That is,  $d^2u/dt^2 > 0$  and  $f''(t) > 0$ . Similarly, to say that the rate of increase decreases as unemployment increases is to say that  $f''(t) < 0$ .

Similarly, if  $p = g(t)$  represents the price of food,  $p$  is increasing if  $dp/dt > 0$ , and  $p$  is decreasing at a decreasing rate if  $d^2p/dt^2 < 0$ . Figure 16 indicates that the slope of the tangent line decreases as  $t$  increases. The price of food is increasing but increasing down. ■

**DEFINITION** Let  $f$  be continuous. We call  $(c, f(c))$  an **inflection point** of the graph of  $f$  if  $f$  changes from concave up to concave down or from concave down to concave up at  $c$ . The graph in Figure 17 indicates a number of possibilities.



As you might guess, points where  $f''(x) = 0$  or where  $f''(x)$  does not exist are the candidates for points of inflection. We use the word *candidate* because, just as a candidate for political office may fail to be elected, so, for example, may a point where  $f''(x) = 0$  fail to be a point of inflection. Consider  $f(x) = x^4$ , which has the graph shown in Figure 18. It is true that  $f''(0) = 0$ , but the origin is not a point of inflection. Therefore, in searching for inflection points, we begin by identifying those points where  $f''(x) = 0$  and where  $f''(x)$  does not exist. Then we check to see if they really are inflection points.

Look back at the graph in Figure 14. You will see that it has three inflection points. They are  $(-\sqrt{3}, \sqrt{3}/4)$ ,  $(0, 0)$ , and  $(\sqrt{3}, \sqrt{3}/4)$ .

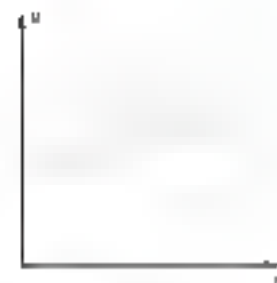
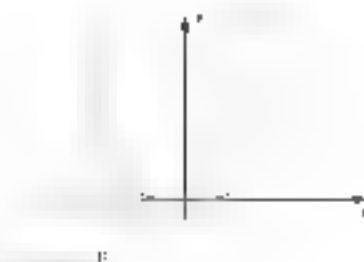


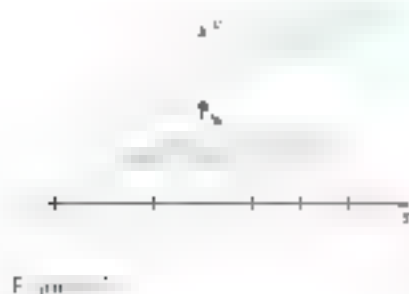
Figure 15



Figure 16

While a function's point might be inflection, it is a *candidate* for inflection point. It is always an ordered pair.





**EXAMPLE 4** Find all points of inflection of  $F(x) = \frac{1}{3x^{2/3}}$ .

**SOLUTION**

$$F(x) = \frac{1}{3x^{2/3}} \quad F'(x) = -\frac{2}{9x^{5/3}}$$

The second derivative,  $F''(x)$ , is never 0; however, it fails to exist at  $x = 0$ . The point  $(0, 2)$  is an inflection point since  $F''(x) > 0$  for  $x < 0$  and  $F''(x) < 0$  for  $x > 0$ . The graph is sketched in Figure 19.

## Concepts Review

1. If  $f'(x) > 0$  everywhere, then  $f$  is \_\_\_\_\_ everywhere. If  $f'(x) < 0$  everywhere, then  $f$  is \_\_\_\_\_ everywhere.

2. If \_\_\_\_\_, then  $f$  is \_\_\_\_\_ at  $x = c$ . If  $f'(c) = 0$  and  $f''(c) > 0$ , then  $f$  has a \_\_\_\_\_ at  $x = c$ . If  $f'(c) = 0$  and  $f''(c) < 0$ , then  $f$  has a \_\_\_\_\_ at  $x = c$ .

3. A point on the graph of a continuous function where the concavity changes is called \_\_\_\_\_.

4. In trying to locate the inflection points for the graph of a function, we should look for values of  $x$  where \_\_\_\_\_.

## Problem Set 3.2

In Problems 1–10, use the first-derivative test to determine where the given function is increasing and where it is decreasing.

1.  $f(x) = 3x - 7$       2.  $g(x) = (x - 1)(x - 3)$

3.  $h(x) = x^2 + 3x - 7$       4.  $f(x) = x^3 - 1$

5.  $f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x$       6.  $g(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x$

7.  $h(x) = \frac{1}{x} + \frac{1}{x^2}$       8.  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$

9.  $f(x) = \sin x$       10.  $f(x) = \cos x$

11.  $h(x) = \cos x$       12.  $f(x) = \sin x$

In Problems 13–18, use the Concavity Theorem to determine where the given function is concave up and where it is concave down. Also find all inflection points.

13.  $f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x$       14.  $f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x$

15.  $g(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x$       16.  $f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x$

17.  $f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x$       18.  $f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x$

In Problems 19–25, determine where the graph of the given function is increasing, decreasing, concave up, and concave down. Then sketch the graph (see Example 4).

19.  $f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x$

20.  $g(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x$

21.  $h(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x$       22.  $f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x$

23.  $g(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x$       24.  $f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x$

25.  $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$       26.  $g(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x$

27.  $f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x$       28.  $f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x$

In Problems 29–34, sketch the graph of a continuous function  $f$  on  $[0, 6]$  that satisfies all the stated conditions.

29.  $f(0) = 1$ ;  $f(6) = 3$ ; increasing and concave down on  $(2, 6)$

30.  $f(0) = 4$ ;  $f(6) = 2$ ; decreasing on  $(4, 6)$ ; inflection point at the ordered pair  $(2, 3)$ ; concave up on  $(2, 6)$

31.  $f(0) = 3$ ;  $f(3) = 0$ ;  $f'(0) = 4$

$$f'(x) < 0 \text{ on } (0, 3); f'(4) > 0 \text{ on } (3, 6)$$

$$f''(x) > 0 \text{ on } (0, 3); f''(4) < 0 \text{ on } (3, 6)$$

32.  $f(0) = 2$ ;  $f(2) = 2$ ;  $f(6) = 0$

$$f'(x) < 0 \text{ on } (0, 2) \cup (2, 4); f'(4) = 0$$

$$f''(x) < 0 \text{ on } (0, 1) \cup (2, 4); f''(4) > 0 \text{ on } (4, 6)$$

33.  $f(0) = f(4) = 1$ ;  $f(2) = 2$ ;  $f'(0) = 0$

$$f'(x) > 0 \text{ on } (0, 2); f'(x) < 0 \text{ on } (2, 4) \cup (4, 6)$$

$$f''(2) = f''(4) = 0; f''(x) > 0 \text{ on } (0, 1) \cup (3, 4);$$

$$f''(x) < 0 \text{ on } (1, 3) \cup (4, 6)$$

34.  $f(0) = f(4) = 3$ ;  $f(2) = 4$ ;  $f(6) = 2$ ;  $f'(0) = 0$

$$f'(x) > 0 \text{ on } (0, 3); f'(x) < 0 \text{ on } (3, 4) \cup (4, 6);$$

$$f''(2) = f''(4) = 0; f''(x) = 1 \text{ on } (3, 4)$$

$$f''(x) < 0 \text{ on } (0, 3) \cup (4, 5); f''(x) > 0 \text{ on } (5, 6)$$

35. Prove that a quadratic function has no point of inflection.

36. Prove that a cubic function has exactly one point of inflection.

37. Prove that, if  $f'''(x)$  exists and is continuous on an interval  $I$  and if  $f''(x) = 0$  at all inflection points of  $f$ , then either  $f$  is

increasing throughout  $I$  or decreasing throughout  $I$ . Must use the Intermediate Value Theorem to show that there cannot be two points  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  of  $I$  where  $f'$  has opposite signs.

38. Suppose that  $f$  is a function whose derivative is  $f'(x) = (x^2 - x + 1)/(x^2 + 1)$ . Use Problem 37 to prove that  $f$  is *always* concave.

39. Use the Monotonicity Theorem to prove each statement.

(a)  $x^2 < y^2$       (b)  $\sqrt{x} < \sqrt{y}$       (c)  $\frac{1}{x} < \frac{1}{y}$

40. What conditions on  $a$ ,  $b$ , and  $c$  will make  $f(x) = ax^2 + bx + c$  always increasing?

41. Determine  $a$  and  $b$  so that  $f(x) = ax^2 + bx$  has the point  $(4, -3)$  as an inflection point.

42. Suppose that the cubic function  $f(x)$  has three real zeros,  $r_1$ ,  $r_2$ , and  $r_3$ . Show that the inflection point has  $x$ -coordinate  $(r_1 + r_2 + r_3)/3$ . Hint:  $f(x) = a(x - r_1)(x - r_2)(x - r_3)$ .

43. Suppose that  $f'(x) > 0$  and  $g'(x) > 0$  for all  $x$ . What simple additional conditions (if any) are needed to guarantee that

- (a)  $f(x) + g(x)$  is increasing for all  $x$ ;  
 (b)  $f(x) - g(x)$  is increasing for all  $x$ ;  
 (c)  $f(x)g(x)$  is increasing for all  $x$ ?

44. Suppose that  $f'(x) > 0$  and  $g'(x) > 0$  for all  $x$ . What simple additional conditions (if any) are needed to guarantee that

- (a)  $f(x) - g(x)$  is concave up for all  $x$ ;  
 (b)  $f(x) - g(x)$  is concave up (or) all  $x$ ;  
 (c)  $f(x)g(x)$  is concave up for all  $x$ ?

45. Use a graphing calculator or a computer to do Problems 45–48.

45. Let  $f(x) = \sin x$ ,  $g(x) = \ln x$ ,  $h(x) = x^2$ , and  $k(x) = 2^{-x}$ .  
 (a) Draw the graph of  $f$  on  $I$ .  
 (b) Use this graph to estimate where  $f'(x) < 0$  on  $I$ .  
 (c) Use this graph to estimate where  $f''(x) < 0$  on  $I$ .  
 (d) Plot the graph of  $f'$  to confirm your answer to part (b).  
 (e) Plot the graph of  $f''$  to confirm your answer to part (c).

46. Repeat Problem 45 for  $f(x) = x \cos(x/3)$  on  $(0, 10)$ .

47. Let  $f'(x) = x^3 - 5x^2 + 2$  on  $I = [-2, 4]$ . Where on  $I$  is  $f$  increasing?

48. Let  $f'(x) = x^3 - 5x^2 + 2$  on  $I = [-2, 3]$ . Where on  $I$  is  $f$  concave down?

49. Translate each of the following into the language of derivatives and sketch a plot of the appropriate function. For each part, sketch a plot of  $f$  on  $I$  to show the position of the inflection point.

- (a) The speed of the car is proportional to the distance it has traveled.  
 (b) The car is accelerating.  
 (c) I claim to say the car was slowing down; I said its rate of increase in speed was slowing down.  
 (d) The car's speed is increasing 10 miles per hour every minute.  
 (e) The car is slowing very gently to a stop.  
 (f) The car always travels the same distance in equal time intervals.

50. Translate each of the following into the language of derivatives, sketch a plot of the appropriate function, and indicate the concavity.

- (a) Water is evaporating from the tank at a constant rate.  
 (b) Water is being poured into the tank at 3 gallons per minute but is also leaking out at 2 gallons per minute.  
 (c) Since water is being poured into the constant tank at a constant rate, the water level is rising at a slower and slower rate.  
 (d) Inflation held steady this year but is expected to rise more and more rapidly in the years ahead.  
 (e) At present the price of oil is dropping, but the trend is expected to slow and then reverse direction in 3 years.  
 (f) David's temperature is still rising, but the physician expects it to level off soon.

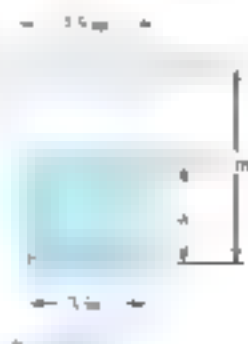
51. Translate each of the following statements into mathematical language, sketch a plot of the appropriate function, and indicate the concavity.

- (a) The cost of a car continues to increase now at a faster and faster rate.  
 (b) During the last 2 years the United States has seen more of an increase in unemployment than it has seen in the last 20 years.  
 (c) World population continues to grow, but at a slower and slower rate.  
 (d) The angle that the Leaning Tower of Pisa makes with the vertical is increasing more and more rapidly.  
 (e) Honda Motor's stock price is going down.  
 (f) The XYZ Company has been losing money, but with some new investments should

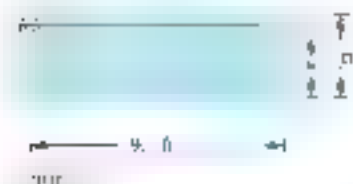
52. Translate each statement into the language of derivatives and sketch a plot of the appropriate function.

- (a) In the United States, the ratio  $R$  of government debt to national income remained unchanged at around 20% up to 1980 but  
 (b) then it began to increase more and more sharply, reaching 50% during 1995.

53. Coffee is poured into the cup shown in Figure 29 at the rate of 2 cubic inches per second. The cup diameter is 3.5 inches, the bottom diameter is 3 inches, and the height of the cup is 5 inches. This cup holds about 23 fluid ounces. Determine the height  $h$  of the coffee at a particular time  $t$  and sketch the graph of  $h(t)$  for time  $t \geq 0$  until the time that the cup is full.



74. Water is being pumped into a cylindrical tank at a constant rate of 5 gallons per minute as shown in Figure 72. The tank has a diameter of 4 feet and a height of 10 feet. The water in the tank is 2 feet deep. How fast is the water level rising? (Hint: Use the formula for the volume of a cylinder,  $V = \pi r^2 h$ , where  $V$  is the volume,  $r$  is the radius, and  $h$  is the height.)



55. A liquid is poured into the container shown in Figure 47 at the rate of 3 cubic inches per second. The container holds liquid 24 cubic inches. Sketch a graph of the height  $h$  of the liquid as a function of time  $t$ . In your graph, pay special attention to the points  $(0, 0)$  and  $(8, 0)$ .

56. A 20-gallon barrel, as shown in Figure 23, leaks at the constant rate of 4 gal/min per day. Select a plot of the height  $h$  of the water as a function of time  $t$ , assuming that the barrel is full at time  $t = 0$ . In your sketch, pay special attention to the accuracy of  $h$ .

Figure 2

Figure 23

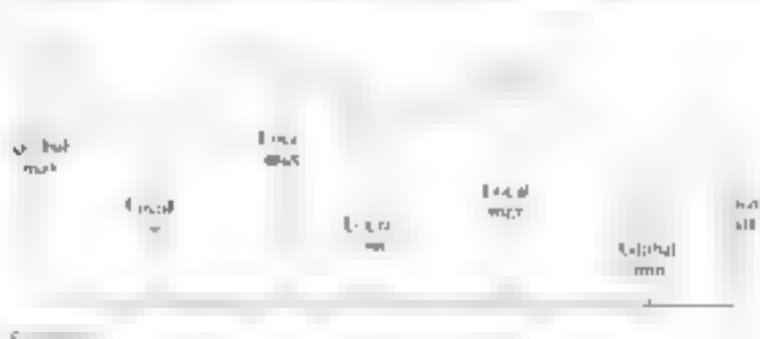
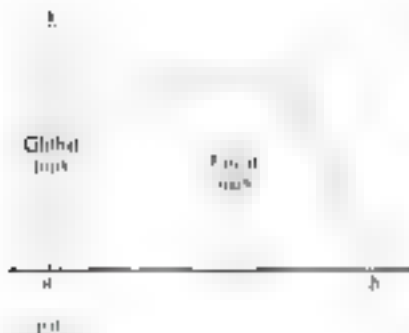
57. What are you able to deduce about the shape of a vessel based on each of the following tables, which give momenta weights of the volume of the water as a function of the depth.

(a)	Depth	1	2	3	4	5	6
	Volume	4	9	16	25	36	49

Deput	1	2	3	4	5	6
Valstoc	4	8	13	14	30	26

2.  $f$  is not differentiable at  $x_0$  if  $f$  has a cusp at  $x_0$ .

### 3.3 Local Extrema and Extrema on Open Intervals

[illegible]

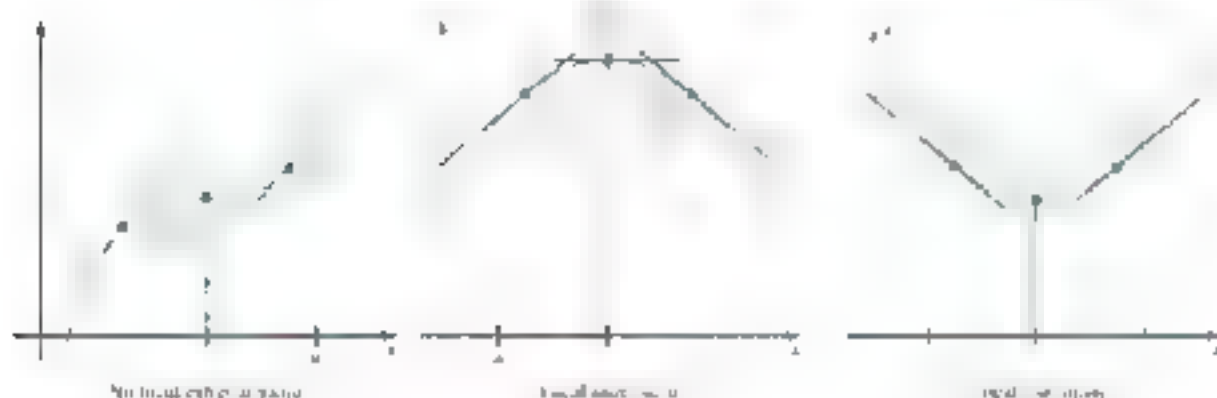
Here is the formal definition of local maxima and local minima. Recall that the symbol  $\cap$  denotes the intersection (common part) of two sets.

### Definition

Let  $S$ , the domain of  $f$ , contain the point  $c$ . We say that

- 9)  $f$  is a local maximum value of  $f$  if there is an interval  $(a, b)$  containing  $c$  such that  $f(c)$  is the maximum value of  $f$  on  $(a, b) \cap S$ .  
 10)  $f$  is a local minimum value of  $f$  if there is an interval  $(a, b)$  containing  $c$  such that  $f(c)$  is the minimum value of  $f$  on  $(a, b) \cap S$ .  
 11)  $f$  is a local extreme value of  $f$  if it is either a local maximum or a local minimum value.

**Where Do Local Extreme Values Occur?** The Critical Point Theorem (Theorem 3.1) begins with the phrase “*candidate*” because the word “*extreme*” and the proof is essentially the same. Thus the critical points (and points stationary points, and singular points) are the candidates for points where local extrema may occur. We say *candidates* because we are not claiming that the  $c$  must be a local maximum at every critical point. The left graph in Figure 3 makes this



clear. However, if the derivative is positive on one side of the critical point  $c$  and negative on the other (and if the function is continuous), then we have a local extremum, as shown in the middle and right graphs of Figure 3.

### Theorem 3.1 First Derivative Test

Let  $f$  be continuous on an open interval  $(a, b)$  and let  $c$  be a critical point.

- If  $f'(x) > 0$  for all  $x$  in  $(a, c)$  and  $f'(x) < 0$  for all  $x$  in  $(c, b)$ , then  $f(c)$  is a local maximum value of  $f$ .
- If  $f'(x) < 0$  for all  $x$  in  $(a, c)$  and  $f'(x) > 0$  for all  $x$  in  $(c, b)$ , then  $f(c)$  is a local minimum value of  $f$ .
- If  $f'(x)$  has the same sign on both sides of  $c$ , then  $f(c)$  is not a local extreme value of  $f$ .

**Proof of (i)** Since  $f'(x) > 0$  for all  $x$  in  $(a, c)$ ,  $f$  is increasing on  $(a, c)$  by the Monotonicity Theorem. Again, since  $f'(x) < 0$  for all  $x$  in  $(c, b)$ ,  $f$  is decreasing on  $(c, b)$ . Thus  $f(c)$  is greater than all values of  $f$  except at  $c$  itself. We conclude that  $f(c)$  is a local maximum.

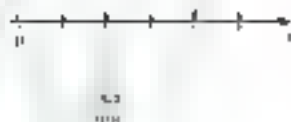
The proofs of (ii) and (iii) are similar. ■

**EXAMPLE 1** Find the local extreme values of  $f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 4x - 5$  on  $(-\infty, \infty)$ .

**SOLUTION** The polynomial function  $f$  is continuous everywhere and its derivative  $f'(x) = 3x^2 - 6x + 4$  exists for all  $x$ . Thus the only critical point is the single solution of  $f'(x) = 0$ , that is,  $x = 3$ .

Since  $f'(x) = 2(x - 3) < 0$  for  $x < 3$ ,  $f$  is decreasing on  $(-\infty, 3)$ ; and because  $2(x - 3) > 0$  for  $x > 3$ ,  $f$  is increasing on  $(3, \infty)$ . Therefore, by the First Derivative Test,  $f(3) = -4$  is a local minimum value of  $f$ . Since 3 is the only critical point, there are no other extreme values. The graph of  $f$  is shown in Figure 4. Note that  $f(3)$  is actually the global minimum value in this case. ■

**EXAMPLE 2** Find the local extreme values of  $f(x) = \sin x$  on  $(-\infty, \infty)$ .



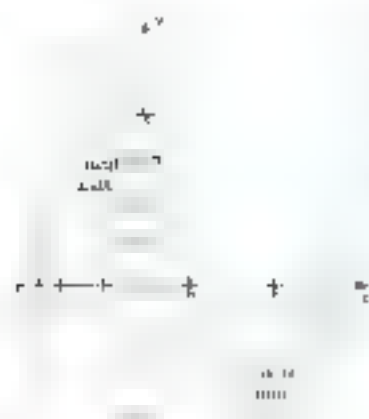


FIGURE 5

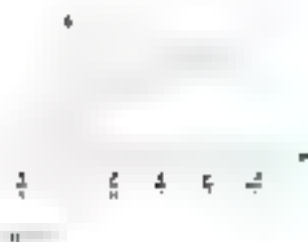


FIGURE 6

**SOLUTION** Since  $f(x) = x^3 - 2x^2 - 3x = (x+1)(x-3)x$ , the only critical points of  $f$  are  $x = -1$  and  $x = 3$ . When we describe the  $x$ -points  $x = -1$  and  $x = 3$ , we can also say  $x + 1(x - 3) > 0$  on  $(-\infty, -1)$  and  $(3, \infty)$  and  $(x + 1)(x - 3) < 0$  on  $(-1, 3)$ . By the First Derivative Test, we conclude that  $x = -1$  is a local maximum value and that  $f(3) = -54$  is a local minimum value (Figure 5). ■

**EXAMPLE 3** Find the local extreme values of  $f(x) = x^3 - 2x^2 - 3x$  on  $[-3, 3]$ .

**SOLUTION**

$$f'(x) = 3x^2 - 4x - 3 = (3x + 2)(x - 1)$$

The points 0 and  $\pi/2$  are critical points, since  $f'(0)$  does not exist and  $f'(\pi/2) = 0$ . Now  $f'(x) < 0$  on  $(-\pi/6, 0)$  and on  $(\pi/2, 2\pi/3)$ , while  $f'(x) > 0$  on  $(0, \pi/2)$ . By the First Derivative Test, we conclude that  $x = 0$  is a local minimum and that  $x = \pi/2$  is a local maximum value. The graph of  $f$  is shown in Figure 6. ■

**The Second Derivative Test** There is another test for local maxima and minima, but it is sometimes easier to apply than the First Derivative Test. It involves evaluating the second derivative at the stationary points, which then applies to all regular points.

### THEOREM 3 Second Derivative Test

Let  $f$  be a function that is continuous on an open interval  $I$  and let  $c$  be a point in  $I$ . Suppose that  $f'(c) = 0$ .

- (i) If  $f''(c) < 0$ , then  $f(c)$  is a local maximum value of  $f$ .
- (ii) If  $f''(c) > 0$ , then  $f(c)$  is a local minimum value of  $f$ .

**Proof of (i)** It is tempting to say that, since  $f''(c) < 0$ , we know that  $f'$  is decreasing at  $c$  and to claim that this proves (i). However, this is not true. It is true that  $f'$  is decreasing at  $c$ , but we need to know that  $f'$  is positive on an interval  $(\alpha, \beta)$  containing  $c$  in order to conclude that  $f(c)$  is a local maximum value. We must use the first derivative test. By definition and hypothesis,

$$f''(c) = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f'(x) - f'(c)}{x - c} = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f'(x)}{x - c} < 0$$

so we can conclude that there is a (possibly small) interval  $(\alpha, \beta)$  around  $c$  where

$$\frac{f'(x)}{x - c} < 0, \quad x \neq c.$$

But this inequality implies that  $f'(x) > 0$  for  $\alpha < x < c$  and  $f'(x) < 0$  for  $c < x < \beta$ . Thus, by the First Derivative Test,  $f(c)$  is a local maximum value. The proof of (ii) is similar. ■

**EXAMPLE 4** For  $f(x) = x^3 - 2x^2 - 3x$ , use the Second Derivative Test to find local extrema.

**SOLUTION** This is the function of Example 3. Note that

$$\begin{aligned} f'(x) &= 3x^2 - 4x - 3 = (3x + 2)(x - 1) \\ f''(x) &= 6x - 4 \end{aligned}$$

Thus,  $f'(0) = 0$  and  $f''(0) = -4$ . Therefore by the Second Derivative Test,  $f(0)$  is a local maximum value.



**EXAMPLE 4** For  $f(x) = x^3 - 3x + 4$ , use the Second Derivative Test to identify local extrema.

**SOLUTION** This is the function of Example 2.

$$\begin{array}{rcccl} f'(x) & = & 3x^2 - 3 & = & 3(x-1)(x+1) \\ x & = & -1, 1 & & \end{array}$$

The critical points are  $-1$  and  $1$ .  $f'(-1) = f'(1) = 0$ . Since  $f''(-1) = -4$  and  $f''(1) = 4$ , we conclude by the Second Derivative Test that  $f(-1)$  is a local maximum value and that  $f(1)$  is a local minimum value.

Unfortunately, the Second Derivative Test sometimes fails, since  $f''(x)$  may be 0 at a stationary point. For both  $f(x) = x^3$  and  $f(x) = x^4$ ,  $f'(0) = 0$  and  $f''(0) = 0$  (see Figure 3). The first does not have a local maximum or minimum value at 0; the second has a local minimum there. This shows that if  $f'(c) = 0$  and if a stationary point  $c$  is a double root, a conclusion about whether  $c$  is a local maximum or minimum cannot be drawn without more information.

**DEFINITION** Let  $f$  be a function defined on a set  $S$ . The problems that we studied in this section and in Section 4.1 then extended that the set  $S$  on which we want to find maximum or minimum values of  $f$  is a closed interval. If we are given a closed interval  $[a, b]$ , we are not about to find out if some maximum or minimum value of  $f$  occurs at one of the endpoints  $a$  or  $b$  or at the other. We can solve these problems if we can first apply the theorems developed in this section. We then turn to a question about  $f$  on  $S$ . We use the qualifying adjective means global maximum (minimum).

**EXAMPLE 5** Find (if any exist) the minimum and maximum values of  $f(x) = x^3 - 4x$  on  $(-\infty, \infty)$ .

**SOLUTION**

$$f'(x) = 3x^2 - 4 = 4(x^2 - 1) = 4(x-1)(x^2 + x + 1)$$

Since  $x^2 + x + 1 = 0$  has no real solutions (quadratic formula), there is only one critical point,  $x = 1$ . For  $x < 1$ ,  $f'(x) < 0$ , whereas for  $x > 1$ ,  $f'(x) > 0$ . We conclude that  $x = 1$  is a local maximum value. As  $x$  approaches  $-\infty$ ,  $f$  approaches  $-\infty$ , and increasing  $x$  gives a greater value of  $f$  until  $x = 1$ , after which the value of  $f$  decreases.

The graph shows above that  $f$  cannot have a maximum value. The graph of  $f$  is shown in Figure 4.

**EXAMPLE 6** Find, if any exist, the maximum and minimum values of

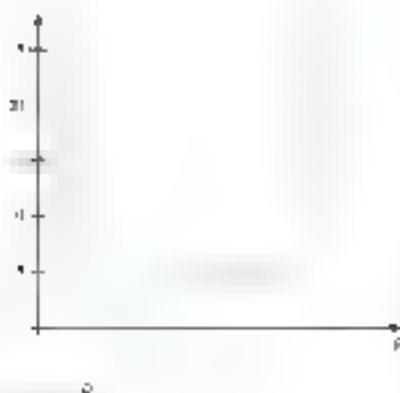
$$f(x, y) = \frac{1}{2}x^2 + y^2$$

on  $(0, 1)$ .

**SOLUTION**

$$\begin{array}{l} f_x(x, y) = x \\ f_y(x, y) = 2y \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{l} x = 0 \\ y = 0 \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{l} x = 1 \\ y = 1 \end{array}$$

The only critical point is  $p = 1/2$ . For every value of  $p$  in the interval  $(0, 1)$ , the discriminant is positive, thus the numerator does not change the sign of  $p$  in the interval  $(0, 1/2)$ ; then the numerator is negative, that is,  $f_x(x, y) < 0$ . Similarly,  $p > 1/2$  in the interval  $(1/2, 1)$ ,  $f_x(x, y) > 0$ . Thus by the First-Derivative Test,  $f$  has a local minimum. Since there are no endpoints or boundary points,  $f$  has no local maximum. There is no maximum. The graph of  $f = f(x, y)$  is shown in Figure 5.





## Concepts Review

1. If  $f$  is continuous at  $c$ ,  $f'(x) > 0$  near  $x=c$  on the left, and  $f'(x) < 0$  near  $x=c$  on the right, then  $f(c)$  is a local \_\_\_\_\_ value for  $f$ .

2. If  $f'(x) = 0$  for  $x < c$  and  $f'(x) > 0$  for  $x > c$ , then  $f(c)$  is a local \_\_\_\_\_ value for  $f$  and  $f(c)$  is a local \_\_\_\_\_ value for  $f$ .

3. If  $f'(c) = 0$  and  $f''(c) < 0$ , we expect to find a local \_\_\_\_\_ value for  $f$  at  $c$ .

4. If  $f(x) = x^3$ , then  $f(0)$  is neither a \_\_\_\_\_ nor a \_\_\_\_\_ even though  $f'(0) = 0$ .

## Problem Set 3.1

In Problems 1–16 identify the critical points. Then use (a) the First Derivative Test and (b) possible (b) the Second Derivative Test to decide which of the critical points give a local maximum and which give a local minimum.

1.  $f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x - 1$

2.  $f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x - 1$

3.  $f(\theta) = \sin 2\theta$ ,  $0 \leq \theta \leq \frac{\pi}{4}$

4.  $f(x) = 3x - \ln x$ ,  $0 < x \leq 2\pi$

5.  $f(x) = \sin x$ ,  $0 \leq x \leq \pi$

6.  $f(x) = \cos x$ ,  $0 \leq x \leq \pi$

7.  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2}$

8.  $f(x) = x^2$

9.  $h(y) = y^2 - 1$

10.  $f(x) = \frac{3x}{x^2 + 1}$

In Problems 17–20 find the critical points and use the test of your choice to decide which critical points give a local maximum value and which give a local minimum value. Which are there local maxima or local minima?

11.  $f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x - 1$

12.  $f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x - 1$

13.  $f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x - 1$

14.  $f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x - 1$

15.  $f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x - 1$

16.  $f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x - 1$

17.  $f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x - 1$

18.  $f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x - 1$

19.  $f(x) = \frac{\cos x}{1 + \sin x}$

20.  $f(x) = \frac{\cos x}{1 + \sin x}$

21.  $f(x) = \frac{\cos x}{1 + \sin x}$

22.  $f(x) = \frac{\cos x}{1 + \sin x}$

23.  $f(x) = \frac{\cos x}{1 + \sin x}$

24.  $f(x) = \frac{\cos x}{1 + \sin x}$

25.  $f(x) = \frac{\cos x}{1 + \sin x}$

26.  $f(x) = \frac{\cos x}{1 + \sin x}$

In Problems 27–30 find, if possible, the global maximum and minimum values of the given function on the indicated interval.

27.  $f(x) = \sin 2x$  on  $[0, 2\pi]$

28.  $f(x) = \sin 2x$  on  $[0, 2\pi]$

29.  $f(x) = \sin 2x$  on  $[0, 2\pi]$

30.  $f(x) = \sin 2x$  on  $[0, 2\pi]$

31.  $f(x) = \sin 2x$  on  $[0, 2\pi]$

32.  $f(x) = \sin 2x$  on  $[0, 2\pi]$

33.  $f(x) = \sin 2x$  on  $[0, 2\pi]$

34.  $f(x) = \sin 2x$  on  $[0, 2\pi]$

35.  $f(x) = \sin 2x$  on  $[0, 2\pi]$

36.  $f(x) = \sin 2x$  on  $[0, 2\pi]$

37.  $f(x) = \sin 2x$  on  $[0, 2\pi]$

38.  $f(x) = \sin 2x$  on  $[0, 2\pi]$

39.  $f(x) = \sin 2x$  on  $[0, 2\pi]$

40.  $f(x) = \sin 2x$  on  $[0, 2\pi]$

In Problems 41–46 the first derivative  $f'$  is given. Find all values of  $x$  that make the function  $f$  a local minimum and (b) a local maximum.

41.  $f'(x) = e^x(x - 3)$

42.  $f'(x) = e^x(x - 3)$

43.  $f'(x) = (x - 1)(x - 2)(x - 3)(x - 4)$

44.  $f'(x) = (x - 1)(x - 2)(x - 3)(x - 4)$

45.  $f'(x) = (x - 1)(x - 2)(x - 3)(x - 4)$

46.  $f'(x) = (x - 1)(x - 2)(x - 3)(x - 4)$

In Problems 47–52 sketch a graph of a function with the given properties. If it is impossible to graph such a function, then indicate this and specify your answer.

47.  $f$  is differentiable, has domain  $[0, 6]$ , and has two local maxima and two local minima on  $(0, 6)$ .

48.  $f$  is differentiable, has domain  $[0, 6]$ , and has three local maxima and two local minima on  $(0, 6)$ .

49.  $f$  is continuous, but not necessarily differentiable, has domain  $[0, 6]$ , and has one local maximum and two local minima on  $(0, 6)$ .

50.  $f$  is continuous, but not necessarily differentiable, has domain  $[0, 6]$ , and has one local minimum and two local maxima on  $(0, 6)$ .

51.  $f$  has domain  $[0, 6]$ , but is not necessarily continuous, and has three local maxima and no local minima on  $(0, 6)$ .

52.  $f$  has domain  $[0, 6]$ , but is not necessarily continuous, and has two local maxima and no local minima on  $(0, 6)$ .

53. Consider  $f(x) = Ax^3 + Bx^2 + C$  with  $A > 0$ . Show that  $f(x) \geq 0$  for all  $x$  if and only if  $B^2 \leq 4AC \leq 0$ .

54. Consider  $f(x) = Ax^3 + Bx^2 + Cx + D$  with  $A > 0$ . Show that  $f$  has one local maximum and one local minimum if and only if  $B^2 > 4AC$ .

55. What conclusions can you draw about  $f$  from the information that  $f'(c) = f''(c) = 0$  and  $f'''(c) > 0$ ?

56. Let  $f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x - 1$ . Find the local maximum and minimum values of  $f$  on  $[0, 2\pi]$ .

### 3.4 Practical Problems

Based on the examples and the theory developed in the first three sections of this chapter, we suggest the following step-by-step method that can be applied to many practical optimization problems. Do not follow it slavishly; common sense may sometimes suggest an alternative approach or omission of some steps.

- Step 1 Draw a picture for the problem and assign appropriate variables to the important quantities.
- Step 2 Write a formula for the objective function  $Q$  to be maximized or minimized in terms of the variables from step 1.
- Step 3 Use the conditions of the problem to eliminate all but one of these variables, and thereby express  $Q$  as a function of a single variable.
- Step 4 Find the critical points and points where boundary points exist.
- Step 5 Either substitute the critical values in the objective function, use the theory from the last section, or use the First and Second Derivatives Tests to determine the maximum or minimum.

Throughout this section, we intend to get you an idea of what is going on. The problem would be for many practical problems, you can get a preliminary idea of the optimal value before you begin to carry out the details.



**EXAMPLE 1** A rectangular box is to be made from a piece of cardboard 24 inches by 9 inches wide by using identical squares from the four corners and attaching up the sides as in Figure 2. Find the dimensions of the box of maximum volume. What is this volume?

**SOLUTION** Let  $x$  be the width of the square to be cut out from the corner of the resulting box. Then

$$V = x(9 - 2x)(24 - 2x) = 240x - 64x^2 + 4x^3$$

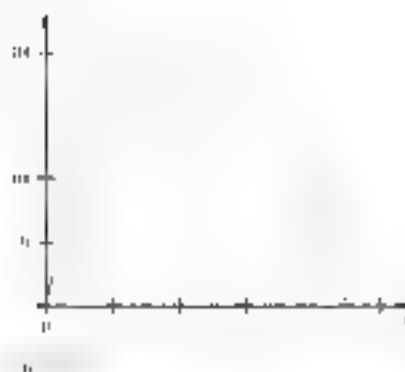
As  $x$  cannot be less than 0 or more than 4.5, this problem is minimize  $x$  in  $[0, 4.5]$ . The stationary points would be given by  $V'(x) = 0$ , which yields the resulting equation.

$$\frac{dV}{dx} = 240 - 128x + 12x^2 = 12(18 - 11x + x^2) = 12(9 - x)(2 - x) = 0$$

This gives  $x = 2$  or  $x = 9$ , but 9 is not in the interval  $[0, 4.5]$ . We see that there are only two critical points,  $x = 2$  and  $x = 9$ . The end points are  $x = 0$  and  $x = 4.5$ .  $V = 0$ . We conclude that the box has a maximum volume of 768 cubic inches if  $x = 2$ , that is, if the box is 20 inches long, 5 inches wide, and 2 inches deep.

It is often helpful to plot the objective function. Plotting functions can be done easily with a graphing calculator or a CAS. Figure 3 shows a plot of the function  $V(x) = 240x - 64x^2 + 4x^3$ . When  $x = 0$ ,  $V$  equals zero, as we expect, for a box that has no size. But when the width of the cutout becomes very large, there is nothing left to fold up to the volume of the box. After all, if  $x = 4.5$ , the cardboard is left in two half-sheets, so there is no base to the box, but it will still have zero volume. Thus,  $V(0) = 0$  and  $V(4.5) = 0$ . The greatest volume must be attained for some value of  $x$  between 0 and 4.5. The graph suggests that the maximum volume occurs when  $x$  is about 2. By using calculus, we can determine that the value of  $x$  that maximizes the volume of the box is  $x = 2$ .

**EXAMPLE 2** A farmer has 100 meters of wire fence with which he plans to build two identical adjacent pens as shown in Figure 4. What are the dimensions of the enclosure that has maximum area?



**SOLUTION** Let  $x$  be the width and  $y$  the length of the total enclosure, both in meters. Because there are 100 meters of fence,  $x + 2y = 100$ . We have

$$50 - x = 2y.$$

The total area  $A$  is given by

$$A = xy = 50x - x^2.$$

Since there must be three sides of length  $x$ , we see that  $0 \leq x \leq 50$ . Thus our problem is to maximize  $A$  on  $[0, \frac{50}{3}]$ . Now

$$\frac{dA}{dx} = 50 - 2x.$$

When we set  $\frac{dA}{dx}$  equal to 0 and solve for  $x$ ,  $x = \frac{50}{2}$  as a stationary point. Thus there are three critical points:  $x = 0$ ,  $x = \frac{50}{2}$ , and  $x = 50$ . The  $x = 0$  and points  $x = 0$  and  $x = 50$  give  $A = 0$ , while  $x = \frac{50}{2}$  yields  $A = 116.67$ . The desired dimensions are  $x = \frac{50}{2}$  and  $y = 25$  meters.

Is our answer sensible? Yes. We should expect some maximum to be given to  $x$  in the problem, so that the  $x$  side can be fenced. As fenced, it is fenced only twice, whereas the latter is fenced three times.

**EXERCISE 3** Find the dimensions of the right circular cylinder of greatest volume that can be inscribed in a given right circular cone.

**SOLUTION** Let  $a$  be the altitude and  $b$  the radius of the base of the given cone (both constants). Denote by  $h$ ,  $r$ , and  $V$  the altitude, radius, and volume, respectively, of an inscribed cylinder (see Figure 4).

How do we proceed? Let's apply some intuition. If the cylinder's radius is the same as the radius of the cone's base, then the cylinder's volume would be close to zero. Now imagine inscribed cylinders with increasing height. As the height increases, the volume will ultimately increase, but then the maximum volume will be reached. In fact, the volume of the cylinder will reach a peak for some cylinder. Since the radius is bounded, it is a function of height, and we would expect  $r = 0$  to be maximum.

The volume of the inscribed cylinder is

$$V = \pi r^2 h.$$

From similar triangles,

$$\frac{a}{b} = \frac{h}{r} = \frac{a}{r}.$$

which gives

$$h = a - \frac{a}{b}r.$$

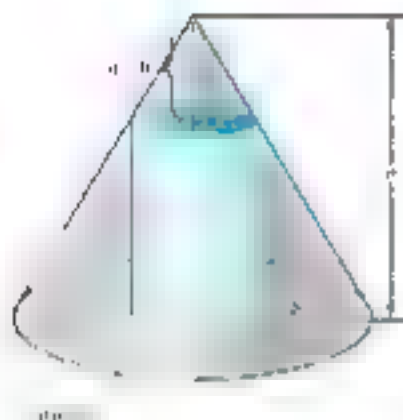
When we substitute this expression for  $h$  in the formula for  $V$ , we obtain

$$V = \pi r^2 \left( a - \frac{a}{b}r \right) = \pi ar^2 - \pi \frac{a^2}{b}r^3.$$

We wish to maximize  $V$  for  $r$  in the interval  $[0, b]$ . Now

$$\frac{dV}{dr} = 2\pi ar - 3\pi \frac{a^2}{b}r^2 = \pi ar \left( 2 - \frac{3}{b}r \right).$$

This yields the stationary points  $r = 0$  and  $r = \frac{2}{3}b$ , giving us three critical points on  $[0, b]$ : 0, consider  $0$ ,  $\frac{2}{3}b$ , and  $b$ . As expected,  $r = 0$  and  $r = b$  both give a volume of 0. Thus,  $r = \frac{2}{3}b$  has to give the maximum volume. When we substitute



Whenever possible, try to view a problem from both a geometric and an algebraic point of view. Example 3 is a good example for which that kind of thinking works straight into the problem.

the values for  $r$  of the equation connecting  $r$  and  $h$  we find that  $h = \frac{2}{3}r$ . In other words, the inscribed cylinder has greatest volume when its radius is two-thirds the radius of the cone's base and its height is one-third the altitude of the cone. ■

**EXAMPLE 4** Suppose that a fish swims upstream with velocity  $v$  relative to the water and that the current of the river has velocity  $-v_0$  (the negative sign indicates that the current's velocity is in the direction opposite that of the fish). The energy expended in traveling a distance  $d$  up the river is directly proportional to the time required to travel the distance  $d$  and the rate at which the fish swims. What velocity minimizes the energy expended in swimming this distance?

**SOLUTION** Figure 1.4.13 illustrates the situation. Since the fish's velocity up the stream (i.e., relative to the banks of the stream) is  $v - v_0$ , we have  $d = (v - v_0)t$ , where  $t$  is the required time. Thus  $t = d/(v - v_0)$ . For a fixed value of  $d$ , the energy required for the fish to travel the distance  $d$  is therefore

$$E(t) = k \frac{d}{t} = k \frac{d}{d/(v - v_0)} = kd \frac{v}{v - v_0}.$$

The domain for the function  $E$  is the open interval  $(v_0, \infty)$ . To find the value of  $t$  that minimizes the required energy we set  $E'(v) = 0$  and solve for  $v$ :

$$E'(v) = kd \frac{(v - v_0)^{-2} - v^{-2}(1)}{(v - v_0)^2} = \frac{kd}{v^2} \frac{v^2 - (v - v_0)^2}{(v - v_0)^2} = 0.$$

The only critical point in the interval  $(v_0, \infty)$  is found by setting  $v^2 - (v - v_0)^2 = 0$ , which leads to  $v = \frac{3}{2}v_0$ . The domain is open so we determine if  $v = \frac{3}{2}v_0$  is a minimum. The sign of  $E'(v)$  depends entirely on the expression  $v^2 - (v - v_0)^2$  since all the other expressions are positive. If  $v < \frac{3}{2}v_0$ , then  $v^2 - (v - v_0)^2 < 0$  so  $E'$  is decreasing to the left of  $\frac{3}{2}v_0$ . If  $v > \frac{3}{2}v_0$ , then  $v^2 - (v - v_0)^2 > 0$  so  $E'$  is increasing to the right of  $\frac{3}{2}v_0$ . Thus by the First Derivative Test,  $v = \frac{3}{2}v_0$  is a local minimum. Since this is the only critical point in the interval  $(v_0, \infty)$ , this must give the minimum. The velocity that minimizes the expended energy is  $\frac{3}{2}$  the current one and it has twice the speed of the current. ■

**EXAMPLE 5** A 6-foot-wide hallway makes a right-angle turn. What is the length of the longest car that can be carried around the corner and then driven out cannot fill the road.

**SOLUTION** The rod that barely fits around the corner will touch the outside walls of the hallway as the rod turns. As suggested in Figure 1.4.14, we can represent the lengths of the segments  $AR$  and  $RC$  and let  $\theta$  denote the angles  $\angle DBA$  and  $\angle ECB$ . Consider the two similar right triangles  $\triangle ADB$  and  $\triangle BDC$ . These are the hypotenuses  $a$  and  $b$ , respectively. A little trigonometry applied to these angles gives

$$a = \frac{6}{\cos \theta} = 6 \sec \theta \quad \text{and} \quad b = \frac{6}{\sin \theta} = 6 \csc \theta.$$

Notice that the angle  $\theta$  determines the position of the rod. The total length of the rod in Figure 1.4.14 is thus

$$L(\theta) = a + b = 6 \sec \theta + 6 \csc \theta.$$

The domain for  $\theta$  is the open interval  $(0, \pi/2)$ . The derivative of  $L$  is

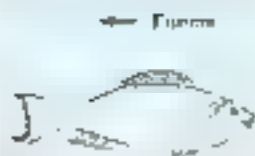


FIGURE 1.4.13



FIGURE 1.4.14

$$L(\theta) = 6 \sec \theta \tan \theta - 6 \csc \theta \cot \theta$$

$$\begin{aligned} L'(\theta) &= 6 \sec \theta \tan \theta \\ &= 6 \sec^2 \theta - 6 \cot^2 \theta \\ &= 6 \sec^2 \theta - 6 \cos^2 \theta \\ &= 6 \tan^2 \theta \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $L'(\theta) = 0$  provided  $\tan \theta = 0$  (b), leads to  $\tan \theta = 0$  and the only angle in  $(0, \pi/2)$  for which  $\tan \theta = 0$  is the angle  $\theta = 0$  (see Figure 7).

We again apply the First Derivative Test. If  $0 < \theta < \pi/4$ , then  $\tan \theta < \cot \theta$ , so  $L'(\theta) < 0$  and  $L$  is decreasing. If  $\pi/4 < \theta < \pi/2$ , then  $\tan \theta > \cot \theta$ , so  $L'(\theta) > 0$  and  $L$  is increasing.

By the First Derivative Test,  $L$  has a maximum at  $\theta = \pi/4$ . However, this is the longest rod that can go around the corner. As the rod is longer and as we are actually finding the angle  $\theta$  it has to make as the rod goes around the corner, we are finding the angles  $\theta$  to get around it at the corner. Therefore, the longest rod that does fit around the corner is  $L(\pi/4) = 6 \sec \pi/4 + 6 \csc \pi/4 = 12\sqrt{2} \approx 16.97$  feet.



Figure 8  
Very long rod  
( $\theta = 0$ )

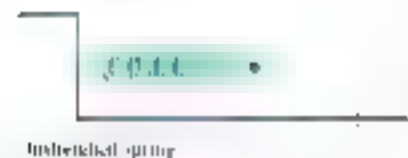


Figure 9  
The rod of  
length L

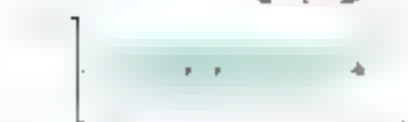


Figure 10  
Very long rod  
( $\theta = \pi/2$ )

Figure 11



Unstretched spring



Spring stretched by amount x

Figure 12

Distance stretched, x meters	Force exerted by spring, newtons
0.05	1.1
0.10	2.2
0.15	3.3
0.20	4.4
0.25	5.5

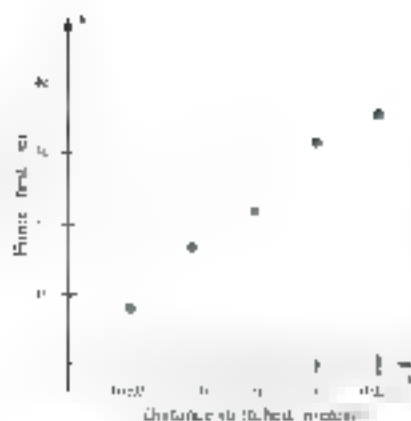
Figure 13

There are many other physical quantities that are proportional to each other. For example, Newton's second law says that the force  $F$  on an object of mass  $m$  is proportional to its acceleration  $a$  ( $F = ma$ ). Hooke's law says that the force exerted by a spring is proportional to the distance it is stretched:  $F = kx$ . Hooke's law is often given as  $F = -kx$ , with the negative sign indicating that the force is in the opposite direction to the stretch. For example, if a spring is stretched by 0.1 m, the force exerted by the spring is 1.1 N. If the spring is compressed by 0.1 m, the force exerted by the spring is 1.1 N. The force exerted by a spring is proportional to the distance it is stretched or compressed. There are many other physical quantities that are proportional to each other. For example, the force exerted by a spring is proportional to the distance it is stretched or compressed.

Suppose that we observe the force exerted by a spring when it is stretched by  $x$  centimeters. Figure 13 shows a table of the data. For example, when we stretch the spring by 0.05 centimeters, it exerts a force of 1.1 newtons. When we stretch the spring by 0.10 centimeters, it exerts a force of 2.2 newtons. Figure 14 shows a graph of the data. The data points are ordered pairs  $(x, F)$ , where  $x$  is the distance stretched and  $F$  is the force exerted by the spring. A plot of ordered pairs like this is called a **scatter plot**.

Let's generalize the problem to one in which we are given  $n$  points  $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$ . Our goal is to find a line through the origin that best fits these points. Before proceeding, we must introduce sigma notation.

The symbol  $\sum_{i=1}^n a_i$  means the sum of the numbers  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n$ . For example,



$$\sum_{i=1}^n x_i = x_1 + x_2 + \cdots + x_n \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i = x_1 y_1 + x_2 y_2 + \cdots + x_n y_n.$$

In the second case, we multiply  $x_i$  and  $y_i$  first and then sum.

To find the line that best fits these  $n$  points, we must be specific about how we measure the fit. Our goal is to find a line through the origin  $(0, 0)$  that best fits the data by minimizing the sum of the squared vertical deviations between  $(x_i, y_i)$  and the line  $y = bx$ . If  $(x_i, y_i)$  is a point in the data set, then  $(x_i, bx_i)$  is the point on the line  $y = bx$  that is directly above or below  $(x_i, y_i)$ . The vertical deviation between  $(x_i, y_i)$  and  $(x_i, bx_i)$  is therefore  $y_i - bx_i$ . (See Figure 12.) The squared deviation is thus  $(y_i - bx_i)^2$ . The problem is to find the value of  $b$  that minimizes the sum of these squared deviations. If we define

$$S = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - bx_i)^2$$

then we must find the value of  $b$  that minimizes  $S$ . This is a minimization problem. For the reasons discussed before, keep in mind: **DO NOT** flip the ordered pairs  $(x_i, y_i)$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ , are fixed, the variable in this problem is  $b$ .

We proceed as before to find  $dS/db$ , set  $dS/db$  equal to 0, and solve for  $b$ . Since the derivative is a linear operator, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dS}{db} &= \frac{d}{db} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - bx_i)^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{d}{db} (y_i - bx_i)^2 \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n 2(y_i - bx_i) \left( \frac{d}{db} (y_i - bx_i) \right) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n -2x_i(y_i - bx_i) = -2 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i + 2b \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2. \end{aligned}$$

Setting this result equal to zero and solving yields

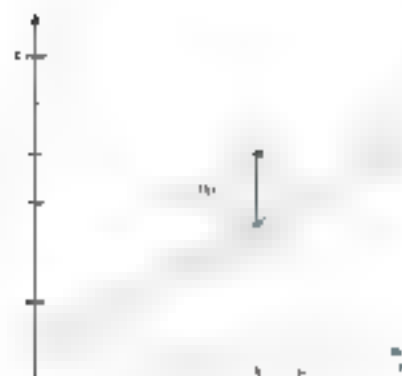
$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= -2 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i + 2b \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 \\ 0 &= -\sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i + b \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 \\ b &= \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}. \end{aligned}$$

To see that this value is a minimum value (p. 5), we find  $d^2S/db^2$ :

$$\frac{d^2S}{db^2} = 2 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2$$

which is always positive. There are no end points to check. Thus, by the Second Derivative Test, we conclude that the line  $y = bx$  with  $b = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}$  is the best-fit line in the sense of minimizing  $S$ . The line  $y = bx$  is called the **least-squares line through the origin**.

**EXAMPLE 1** Find the least-squares line through the origin for the spring data in Figure 10.







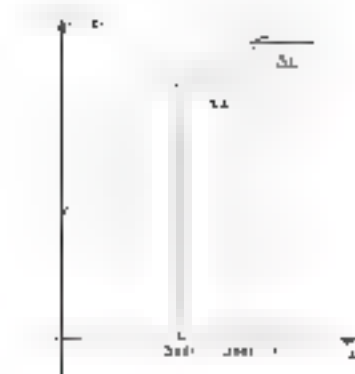


Figure 17

study of the history of the firm will suggest reasonable choices. Sometimes we must simply make intelligent guesses.

**EXAMPLE 17** Suppose that ABC knows its cost function  $C(x)$  and that it has planned to produce 1000 units this year. We would like to determine the additional cost per unit if ABC increased production slightly. Would it, for example, be wise to say the additional revenue per unit "as  $x \rightarrow 1000$ " would make good economic sense to increase production?

If the cost function is the one shown in Figure 17, we are asking for the value of  $\Delta C / \Delta x$  when  $\Delta x \rightarrow 0$ . But we expect that this will be very close to the value

$$\lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta C}{\Delta x}$$

when  $x = 1000$ . This limit is called the **marginal cost**. We mathematically recognize it as  $dC/dx$ , the derivative of  $C$  with respect to  $x$ .

In a similar vein, we define **marginal price** as  $dR/dx$ , **marginal revenue** as  $dR/dx$ , and **marginal profit** as  $dP/dx$ .

We now illustrate how to solve a wide variety of economic problems.

### Economic Vocabulary

Because economics tends to be a study of average phenomena, your economics professor may define marginal cost at  $x$  as the cost of producing the additional unit that is, as

$$C(x + 1) - C(x)$$

It is not too difficult to see that a function will be very close to  $dC/dx$ , etc., whenever the interval  $\Delta x$  is small. In fact, in calculus we choose to take it as the definition of margin as one similar statement holds for marginal revenue and marginal profit.

**EXAMPLE 18** Suppose that  $C(x) = 8000 + 3.25x + 40\sqrt{x}$  dollars. Find the average cost per unit and the marginal cost when  $x = 1000$ .

**SOLUTION**

$$\text{Average cost: } \frac{C(x)}{x} = \frac{8000 + 3.25x + 40\sqrt{x}}{x}$$

$$\text{Marginal cost: } \frac{dC}{dx} = 3.25 + \frac{40}{\sqrt{x}}$$

At  $x = 1000$ , we have the values 11.35 and 3.25, respectively. This means that when the company produces 1000 units, the cost of an additional unit is about \$11.35. The marginal cost when 1000 units are produced is about \$3.25.

**EXAMPLE 19** In manufacturing, and so on, a unit of a certain commodity, the price function  $p$  and the cost function  $C$  (in dollars) are given by

$$p(x) = 5 - 0.002x^2$$

$$C(x) = 240x + 0.001x^3$$

Find expressions for the marginal revenue, marginal cost, and the marginal profit. Determine the production level that will produce the maximum total profit.

**SOLUTION**

$$R(x) = xp(x) = 5.00x - 0.002x^3$$

$$P(x) = R(x) - C(x) = 5.00x - 3.40x - 0.002x^3$$

Thus, we have the following derivatives:

$$\text{Marginal revenue: } \frac{dR}{dx} = 5 - 0.006x^2$$

$$\text{Marginal cost: } \frac{dC}{dx} = 2.40 + 0.003x^2$$

$$\text{Marginal profit: } \frac{dP}{dx} = \frac{dR}{dx} - \frac{dC}{dx} = 9 - 0.009x^2$$



To maximize profit, we set  $dP/dx = 0$  and solve. This gives  $x = 975$  as the only critical point to consider. It does provide a maximum, as may be checked by the First Derivative Test. The maximum profit is  $P(975) = \$1,968.25$ . ■

Note that at  $x = 975$  both the marginal revenue and the marginal cost are  $\$4.10$ . In general, a company should expect to be at a maximum profit level when the cost of producing an additional unit equals the revenue on that unit.

## Concepts Review

1. If a rectangle of area 100 has length  $x$  and width  $y$ , then the allowable values for  $x$  are \_\_\_\_\_.
2. The perimeter of the rectangle in Question 1, expressed in terms of  $x$ , only is \_\_\_\_\_.

3. The least squares line through the origin minimizes \_\_\_\_\_.

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{y_i}{x_i}$$

4. In estimating  $\frac{dy}{dx}$ ,  $\frac{y-h}{h}$  is called \_\_\_\_\_ and  $\frac{h}{y}$  is called \_\_\_\_\_.

## Problem Set 3.4

1. Find two numbers whose product is 16 and the sum of whose squares is a minimum.
2. For what number does the principal square root exceed eight times the number by the largest amount?
3. For what number does the principal fourth root exceed twice the number by the largest amount?
4. Find two numbers whose product is 12 and the sum of whose squares is a minimum.
5. Find the points on the parabola  $y = x^2$  that are closest to the point  $(0, 5)$ . *Hint:* Minimize the square of the distance between  $(x, y)$  and  $(0, 5)$ .
6. Find the points on the parabola  $x = 2y^2$  that are closest to the point  $(4, 0)$ . *Hint:* Minimize the square of the distance between  $(x, y)$  and  $(4, 0)$ .
7. What number succeeds its square by the maximum amount? Begin by convincing yourself that this number is on the interval  $[-1, 1]$ .
8. Show that for a rectangle of given perimeter  $P$  the one with maximum area is a square.
9. Find the volume of the largest open box that can be made from a piece of cardboard 24 inches square by cutting equal squares from the corners and turning up the sides (see Example).
10. A farmer has 300 feet of fence with which he plans to enclose a rectangular pen along one side of his 100-foot barn, as shown in Figure 20. The side along the barn needs no fence. What are the dimensions of the pen that has maximum area?



Figure 20

11. The farmer of Problem 10 decides to make three identical pens with his 300 feet of fence, as shown in Figure 19. What

dimensions for the total enclosure make the area of the pens as large as possible?



12. Suppose that the farmer of Problem 10 has 180 feet of fence and wants the pen to adjoin to the whole side of the 100-foot barn as shown in Figure 20. What should be the dimensions for maximum area? Note that  $0 \leq x \leq 100$  in this case.



Figure 20

13. A farmer wishes to fence off two identical adjoining rectangular pens, each with 900 square feet of area, as shown in Figure 21. What are  $x$  and  $y$  so that the least amount of fence is required?



14. A farmer wishes to fence off three identical adjoining rectangular pens (see Figure 22), each with 300 square feet of area. What should the width and length of each pen be so that the least amount of fence is required?

15. Suppose that the outer boundary of the pens in Problem 14 equals heavy fence that costs \$3 per foot but that the two

interval partitions require fence costing only \$2 per foot. What dimensions  $x$  and  $y$  will produce the least expensive cost for the pens?

16. Solve Problem 14 assuming that the area of each pen is 400 square feet. Study the solution to this problem and to Problem 4 and make a conjecture about the ratio of  $x$  to  $y$  in all problems of this type. Try to prove your conjecture.

17. Find the points  $P$  and  $Q$  on the curve  $y = x^2 + 1$  such that  $P$  and  $Q$  are closest to and farthest from the point  $(0, 3)$ . *Hint:* The algebra is simpler if you consider the square of the required distance rather than the distance itself.

18. A right circular cone is to be inscribed in another right circular cone of given volume, with the same axis and with the vertex of the inner cone touching the base of the outer cone. What must be the ratio of the radii of the two cones to have maximum volume?

19. A small island is 2 miles from the nearest point  $P$  on the straight shoreline of a large lake. If a woman on the island can row a boat 4 miles per hour and can walk 4 miles per hour, where should she land the boat in order to arrive at a house 10 miles down the shore from  $P$  in the least time?

20. In Problem 19, suppose that the woman will be picked up by a car that will average 50 miles per hour when she gets to the shore. How far should she land?

21. In Problem 19, suppose that the woman uses a motorboat that goes 20 miles per hour. Where should she land?

22. A powerhouse is located on one bank of a straight river that is 6 feet wide. A factory is situated on the opposite bank of the river, 2 feet downstream from the point  $A$  directly opposite the powerhouse. What is the most economical path for a cable connecting the powerhouse to the factory if it costs a dollar per foot to lay the cable under water and 6 dollars per foot on land ( $0 < b < 1$ )?

23. At 1:00 A.M. one ship was 60 miles due east from a second ship. At this time the ships were at 20 miles per hour and the second ship sailed southeast at 30 miles per hour. When were they closest together?

24. Find the equation of the line that is tangent to the ellipse  $x^2 + a^2y^2 = a^2b^2$  in the first quadrant and forms with the coordinate axes the triangle with smallest possible area ( $a$  and  $b$  are positive constants).

25. Find the greatest volume that a right circular cylinder can have if it is inscribed in a sphere of radius  $r$ .

26. Show that the rectangle with maximum perimeter that can be inscribed in a circle is a square.

27. What are the dimensions of the right circular cylinder with greatest curved surface area that can be inscribed in a sphere of radius  $r$ ?

28. The illumination at a point is inversely proportional to the square of the distance of the point from the light source and directly proportional to the intensity of the light source. If two light sources are 6 feet apart and their intensities are  $I_1$  and  $I_2$ , respectively, at what point between them will the sum of their illuminations be a minimum?

29. A wire of length 100 centimeters is cut into two pieces; one is bent to form a square, and the other is bent to form an equilateral triangle. Where should the cut be made if (a) the sum of the two areas is to be a minimum; (b) a maximum? (Allow the possibility of no cut.)

30. A closed box in the form of a rectangular parallelepiped with a square base is to have a given volume. If the material used in the bottom costs 10% more per square inch than the material in the sides, and the material on the top costs 50% more per square inch than that of the sides, find the most economical proportions for the box.

31. An observatory is to be in the form of a right circular cylinder surmounted by a hemispherical dome. If the hemispherical dome costs twice as much per square foot as the cylindrical wall, what are the most economical proportions for a given volume?

32. A weight connected to a spring moves along the  $x$ -axis so that its  $x$ -coordinate at time  $t$  is

$$x = 5 \cos t + 3 \sin t.$$

What is the farthest that the weight goes from the origin?

33. A flower bed will be in the shape of a sector of a circle (a pie-shaped region) of radius  $r$  and sector angle  $\theta$ . Find  $r$  and  $\theta$  if its area is a constant  $A$  and the perimeter is a minimum.

34. A fence 4 feet high runs parallel to a tall building and is 10 feet from it (Figure 23). Find the length of the shortest ladder that will reach from the ground across the top of the fence to the wall of the building.



FIGURE 23

35. A rectangle has two corners on the  $x$ -axis and the other two on the parabola  $y = 12 - x^2$  with  $y \geq 0$  (Figure 24). What are the dimensions of the rectangle of this type with maximum area?



36. A rectangle is to be inscribed in a semicircle of radius  $r$  as shown in Figure 25. What are the dimensions of the rectangle of maximum area?

37. Of all right circular cylinders with a given surface area, find the one with the maximum volume. *Note:* The ends of the cylinders are closed.

38. Find the dimensions of the rectangle of greatest area that can be inscribed in a circle of radius  $r$ .

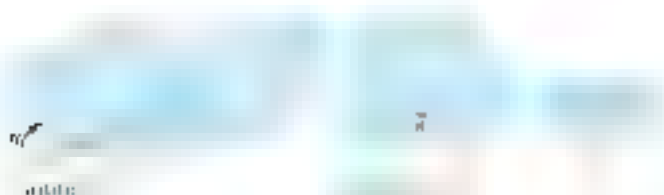
39. Of all rectangles with a given diagonal and the sum of the two minimum sides

40. A humidifier uses a rotating disk of radius  $r$ , which is partially submerged in water. The most evaporation occurs when the exposed wetted region (shown as the upper shaded region in Figure 26) is maximized. Show that this happens when  $h$  (the distance from the center to the water) is equal to  $r_0 \sqrt{1 - \frac{r_0^2}{r^2}}$ .



Figure 26

41. A metal rain gutter is to have 5-inch sides and a 5-inch horizontal bottom, the sides making an external angle  $\theta$  with the bottom (Figure 27). What should  $\theta$  be in order to maximize the carrying capacity of the gutter? Note:  $0 < \theta < \pi/2$ .



42. A huge spherical tank is to be made from a circular piece of sheet metal of radius  $R$  meters by cutting out a sector with vertex angle  $\theta$  and then welding together the straight edges of the remaining piece (Figure 28). Find  $\theta$  so that the resulting cone has the largest possible volume.

43. A covered hot tub is to be made from a rectangular sheet of cardboard measuring 3 feet by 8 feet. This is done by cutting out the shaded regions of Figure 29 and then folding on the dotted lines. What are the dimensions  $x$ ,  $y$ , and  $z$  that maximize the volume?

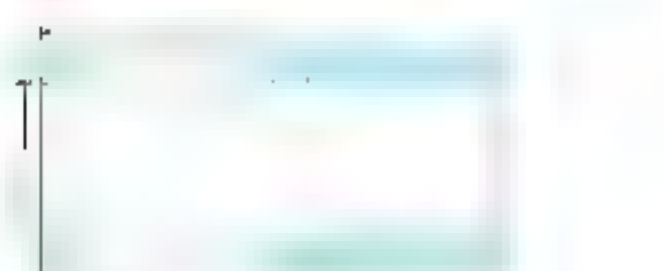


Figure 29

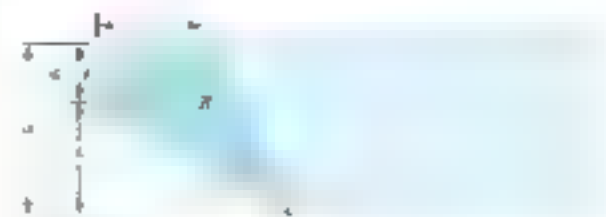
44. I have enough pure silver to make 1 square meter of surface area. I plan to cast a sphere and a cube. What dimensions should they be if the total volume of the silver solids is to be a maximum? A hint: omit the possibility of all the silver going into one solid.

45. One corner of a long narrow strip of paper is folded over so that it just touches the opposite side, as shown in Figure 30. With points labeled as indicated, determine  $x$  in order to

- (a) maximize the area of triangle  $ABC$ ;

(b) minimize the area of triangle  $DEF$ .

46. maximize the area of triangle  $DEF$ .



47. Determine  $\theta$  so that the area of the symmetric cross shown in Figure 31 is maximized. Then find the maximum area.



48. A clock is made from circular plates of different radii  $r$  (in feet), with  $h = \pi r$ . We wish to study the clock at times  $t$  in hours (0.01 and 12.96). Let  $\theta = \phi$  and  $L$  be the height (in feet) and note that  $\theta$  increases at a constant rate. By the Law of Cosines,  $L = 2.01 = (h + \pi)^2 - 2h \cos(\theta)^2$  and so

$$L(\theta) = h \sin^2 \theta + \pi^2 = 2h \sin^2(\theta/2) + \pi^2$$

- (a) For  $h = 1$  and  $\pi = 3$ , determine  $L'$ ,  $L$ , and  $\phi$  at the instant when  $t = 1$  or  $t = 12.96$ .
- (b) Repeat part (a) when  $h = 5$  and  $\pi = 13$ .
- (c) Based on parts (a) and (b), make conjectures about the values of  $L$ ,  $L'$ , and  $\phi$  at the instant when the tips of the hands are separating most rapidly.
- (d) Try to prove your conjectures.

49. An object thrown from the edge of a 100-foot cliff follows the path  $y = -16t^2 + 64t + 100$ . An observer stands 7 feet from the bottom of the cliff.

- (a) Find the position of the object when it is closest to the observer.
- (b) Find the position of the object when it is farthest from the observer.

50. The earth's position in the solar system at time  $t$  can be modeled approximately as  $(\cos t, \sin t)$  in units where the sun is at the origin and distances are measured in millions of miles. Suppose that an asteroid has position  $(2 \cos t \sin^2 \pi t, 5t - 1)$ ,  $t \in [0, 20]$  (i.e., over the next 20 years, does the asteroid come closer to the earth. How close does it come?

50. An advertising flyer is to contain 50 square inches of printed matter with 2-inch margins at the top and bottom and 1-inch margins on each side. What dimensions for the flyer would use the least paper?

51. One end of a 16-foot ladder rests on the ground and the other end rests on the top of an 8-foot wall. As the bottom end is pushed along the ground toward the wall the top end extends beyond the wall. Find the maximum horizontal overhang of the top end.

52. Brass is produced in long rolls of a thin sheet. To monitor the quality, inspectors select at random a piece of the sheet, measuring its area, and count the number of surface imperfections on that piece. The area varies from piece to piece. The following table gives data on the area (in square feet) of the selected piece and the number of surface imperfections found on that piece.

Piece	Area in Square Feet	Number of Surface Imperfections
2	0.0	12
3	3.6	4
4	1.5	7
5	0.0	6

- Make a scatter plot with area on the horizontal axis and number of surface imperfections on the vertical axis.
- Does it look like a line through the points would be a good model for these data? Explain.
- Find the equation of the least-squares line through the points.
- Use the result of part (c) to predict how many surface imperfections there would be on a sheet with area 2.0 square feet.

53. Suppose that every customer order taken by the XYZ Store, Inc. requires an extra 5 hours of paper in handling the paperwork. This length of time is fixed and does not vary with the order. The total number of hours  $y$  required to manufacture and sell a list of size  $x$  would then be

$$y = \text{Number of hours to produce a list of size } x + 5$$

Some data on XYZ's bookcases are given in the following table.

Order	List Size $x$	Total Hours $y$
1	11	30
2	16	32
3	8	24
4	7	22
5	10	36

- Fit the description of the problem, the least-squares line should have 5 on its y-intercept. Find a formula for the value of the slope  $b$  that minimizes the sum of squares.

$$S = \sum_{i=1}^n (5 + bx_i)^2$$

- Use this formula to estimate the slope  $b$ .
- Use your least-squares line to predict the total number of labor hours to produce a list consisting of 15 bookcases.

54. The fixed monthly cost of operating a plant that makes Zbars is \$7000, while the cost of manufacturing each unit is \$10. Write an expression for  $C(x)$ , the total cost of making  $x$  Zbars in a month.

55. The manufacturer of Zbars estimates that 10 units per month can be sold if the unit price is \$250 and that sales will increase by 10 units for each \$5 decrease in price. Write an expression for the price  $p(x)$  and the revenue  $R(x)$  if  $x$  units are sold in one month,  $x \leq 100$ .

56. Use the information in Problems 54 and 55 to write an expression for the total monthly profit  $P(x)$ ,  $x \leq 100$ .

57. Sketch the graph of  $P(x)$  of Problem 56 and from it estimate the value of  $x$  that maximizes  $P$ . Find this  $x$  exactly by the methods of calculus.

58. The total cost of producing and selling  $x$  units of Xbars per month is  $C(x) = (100 - 3.02x + 0.0001x^2)$ . If the production level is 1000 units per month, find the average cost  $\bar{C}(x)$  and the marginal cost.

59. The total cost of producing and selling  $x$  units of a certain commodity per week is  $C(x) = 1000 + x^2 - 30x$ . Find the average cost  $\bar{C}(x)$  of each unit and the minimum cost in a production level of 100 units per week.

60. The total cost of producing and selling  $x$  units of a particular commodity per week is

$$C(x) = (100 - 35x + 9x^2 + x^3)$$

Find (a) the level of production at which the marginal cost is a maximum, and (b) the minimum marginal cost.

61. A price function,  $p$ , is defined by

$$p(x) = 24 - x + x_1 = \frac{x_1}{x}$$

where  $x > 0$  is the number of units.

(a) Find the total revenue function and the marginal revenue function.

(b) On what interval is the total revenue increasing?

(c) For what number  $x$  is the marginal revenue a maximum?

62. For the price function defined by

$$p(x) = 100 - x_1 \log_2 x$$

find the number of units  $x_1$  that makes the total revenue a maximum and state the maximum possible revenue. What is the marginal revenue when the optimum number of units,  $x_1$ , is sold?

63. For the price function given by

$$p(x) = 80(1 - x + x_1) - 1$$

find the number of units  $x_1$  that makes the total revenue a maximum and state the maximum possible revenue. What is the marginal revenue when the optimum number of units,  $x_1$ , is sold?

64. A riverboat company offers a fraternal organization a Fourth of July excursion with the understanding that there will be at least 100 passengers. The price of each ticket will be \$20.00 and the company agrees to discount the price by \$0.20 for each 10 passengers in excess of 400. Write an expression for the price function  $p(x)$  and find the number  $x_0$  of passengers that makes the total revenue a maximum.

65. The XYZ Company manufactures wicker chairs. With its present machines, it has a maximum yearly output of 500 units. It is making a chair a day and a price of  $p(x) = 500 - 0.15x$  dollars each and will have a total yearly cost of  $C(x) = 5000 + 0.001x^2$  dollars. The company has the opportunity to buy a new machine for \$400 with which the company can make up to an additional 250 chairs per year. The cost function for values of  $x$  between 500 and 750 is thus  $C(x) = 5400 + 0.001x^2$ . Based on your analysis in the problem for the next year answer the following questions.

- (a) Should the company purchase the additional machine?  
 (b) What should be the level of production?

66. Repeat Problem 65, assuming that the additional machine costs \$4000.

67. The ZFF Company makes zippers which it markets at a price of  $p(x) = 16 - 0.001x$  dollars, where  $x$  is the number of units each month. Its total monthly cost is  $C(x) = 4x + 0.01x^2$ . At peak production, it can make 160 units. What is its maximum monthly profit and what level of production gives this profit?

68. If the company of Problem 67 expands its facilities so that it can produce up to 450 units each month, its monthly cost function takes the form  $C(x) = 400 + 0.01x^2$  for  $300 \leq x \leq 450$ . Find the production level that maximizes monthly profit and evaluate that profit. Sketch the graph of the monthly profit function  $P(x)$  on  $0 \leq x \leq 450$ .

69. The arithmetic mean of the numbers  $a$  and  $b$  is  $\frac{a+b}{2}$  and the geometric mean of two positive numbers  $a$  and  $b$  is  $\sqrt{ab}$ . Suppose that  $a > 0$  and  $b > 0$ .

- (a) Show that  $\sqrt{ab} \leq (a+b)/2$  holds by squaring both sides and simplifying.  
 (b) Use calculus to show that  $\sqrt{ab} \leq (a+b)/2$ . (Hint: Consider  $a$  to be fixed. Square both sides of the inequality and divide through by  $b$ . Define the function  $F(b) = \frac{a+b}{2} - \sqrt{ab}$ . Show that  $F$  has its minimum at  $b$ .  
 (c) The geometric mean of three positive numbers  $a$ ,  $b$ , and  $c$  is  $(abc)^{1/3}$ . Show that the analogous inequality holds.

$$\text{with } (a^3 + b^3 + c^3)^{1/3} \geq \frac{a+b+c}{3}$$

*Hint:* Consider  $a$  and  $c$  to be fixed and define  $F(b) = (a+b+c)/3 - (abc)^{1/3}$ . Show that  $F$  has a minimum at  $b = (a+c)/2$  and that this minimum is  $[(a+c)/2]^3 - abc$ . Then use the result from (b).

70. 71. Show that of all three-dimensional boxes with a given surface area, the cube has the greatest volume. *Hint:* The surface area is  $S = 2(ab + bc + ac)$  and the volume is  $V = abc$ . Let  $a = b$  for  $b = bc$  and  $c = bc/a$ . Use the previous problem to show that  $(V)^{1/3} \leq S/6$ . When does equality hold?

$$1. 2x + 20, x \geq 0; \quad 2. 3x - 4x^2, 0 \leq x \leq 4; \quad 3. \text{marginal revenue; marginal cost}$$

## 3.4 Graphing Functions Using Calculus

Our treatment of graphing in Section 0.4 was elementary. We proposed plotting enough points so that the essential features of the graph were clear. We mentioned that *calculus* is the graphing tool that is now involved. We suggested that one should be able to provide *symbolic* descriptions of a function if the graph is complicated or if we want a very accurate graph. So this piece of background is inadequate.

Calculus provides a powerful tool for studying the one-variable function graph. It enables us to identify those points where the curve changes its path abruptly. We can find local maximum and minimum values and other important features by determining precisely where the graph is increasing or where it is increasing at its fastest rate. These ideas are an important part of calculus. We return to this section.

Consider the function  $f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x$ . A polynomial function of degree 3 is easy to graph by hand and it is not difficult to see that the graph is impossible if a degree is of modest size such as 1000. We can use the tools of calculus to great advantage.

**EXAMPLE 1** Sketch the graph of  $f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x$ .

**SOLUTION** Since  $f(-x) = -x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x$  is not the same as  $f(x)$ , the graph is not symmetric with respect to the origin. Set  $f'(x) = 0$  to find the  $x$ -coordinates to be 0 and  $x = 1$  or  $x = 2$ . We can go this far without calculus.

When we differentiate  $f$  we obtain

$$f'(x) = 3x^2 - 6x + 2 = \frac{15x^2 - 2}{3} = \frac{15x^2 - 2}{3}$$



Thus, the critical points are  $x = 0$  and  $x = 2$  we quickly discover. Figure 2 shows that  $f'(x) > 0$  on  $(-\infty, -2)$  and  $(2, \infty)$  and that  $f'(x) < 0$  on  $(-2, 0)$  and  $(0, 2)$ . This tells us when  $x$  is increasing and when it is decreasing. We also confirm that  $f(-2) = 7$  is a local maximum value and that  $f(2) = -7$  is a local minimum value.

Differentiating again, we get

$$f''(x) = \frac{60x^2 - 120x}{32} = \frac{15}{8}x^2 - \frac{15}{4}x$$

By studying the sign of  $f''(x)$  (Figure 2), we deduce that  $f$  is concave upward on  $(-\infty, -2)$  and  $(2, \infty)$  and concave downward on  $(-2, 0)$  and  $(0, 2)$ . Thus, there are three points of inflection  $(-\sqrt{2}, 5\sqrt{2}/8)$ ,  $(0, 0)$ , and  $(\sqrt{2}, -5\sqrt{2}/8) \approx (1.4, -1.2)$ .

All of the information is collected at the top of Figure 3, which we use to sketch the graph directly below it.

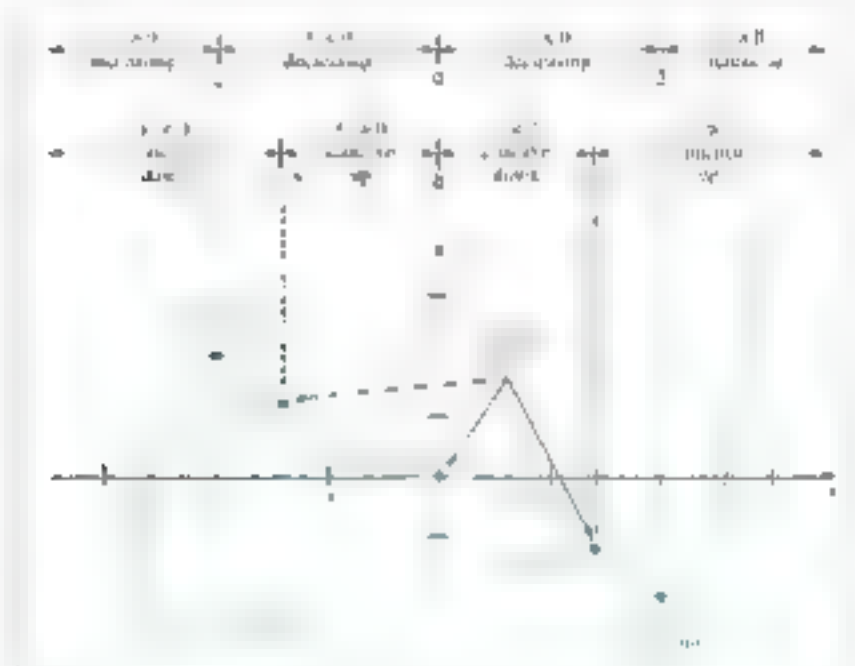


Figure 3

If  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$ , a rational function being the quotient of two polynomials, we find that all functions of this type have a vertical asymptote at  $x = 0$  and a horizontal asymptote at  $y = 0$ . In particular, we can expect dramatic behavior near where the denominator would be zero.

**EXAMPLE 3** Sketch the graph of  $f(x) = \frac{x^2 - 2x + 4}{x}$ .

**SOLUTION** The function is neither even nor odd, so we do not have any of the usual symmetries. There are no  $y$ -intercepts, since the only way for  $x^2 - 2x + 4 = 0$  are not real numbers. The  $x$ -intercept is  $x = 2$ . We anticipate a vertical asymptote at  $x = 0$ . In fact,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{x^2 - 2x + 4}{x} = \infty \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} \frac{x^2 - 2x + 4}{x} = -\infty$$



Differentiation twice gives

$$f'(x) = \frac{x-4}{x^2-2} \quad \text{and} \quad f''(x) = \frac{6}{x^3}.$$

The stationary points are therefore  $x = 0$  and  $x = 4$ .

Thus,  $f'(x) > 0$  on  $(-\infty, 0) \cup (4, \infty)$  and  $f'(x) < 0$  on  $(0, 2) \cup (2, 4)$ . (Remember,  $f'(x)$  does not exist when  $x = 2$ .) Also,  $f''(x) > 0$  on  $(2, \infty)$  and  $f''(x) < 0$  on  $(-\infty, 2)$ . Since  $f''(x)$  is never 0, there are no inflection points. On the other hand,  $f(0) = 2$  and  $f(4) = 0$  give local maximum and minimum values, respectively.

It is a good idea to check on the behavior of  $f(x)$  for large  $|x|$ . Since

$$f(x) = \frac{x^2 - 4}{x^3 - 2} = \frac{1}{x} - \frac{4}{x^3 - 2},$$

it graphed,  $f(x)$  gets closer and closer to the line  $y = 1/x$  as  $|x|$  gets larger and larger. We can be sure that this line is an **oblique asymptote** for the graph (see Problem 19 of Section 1.5).

With all this information, we are able to sketch a rather accurate graph (Figure 4).

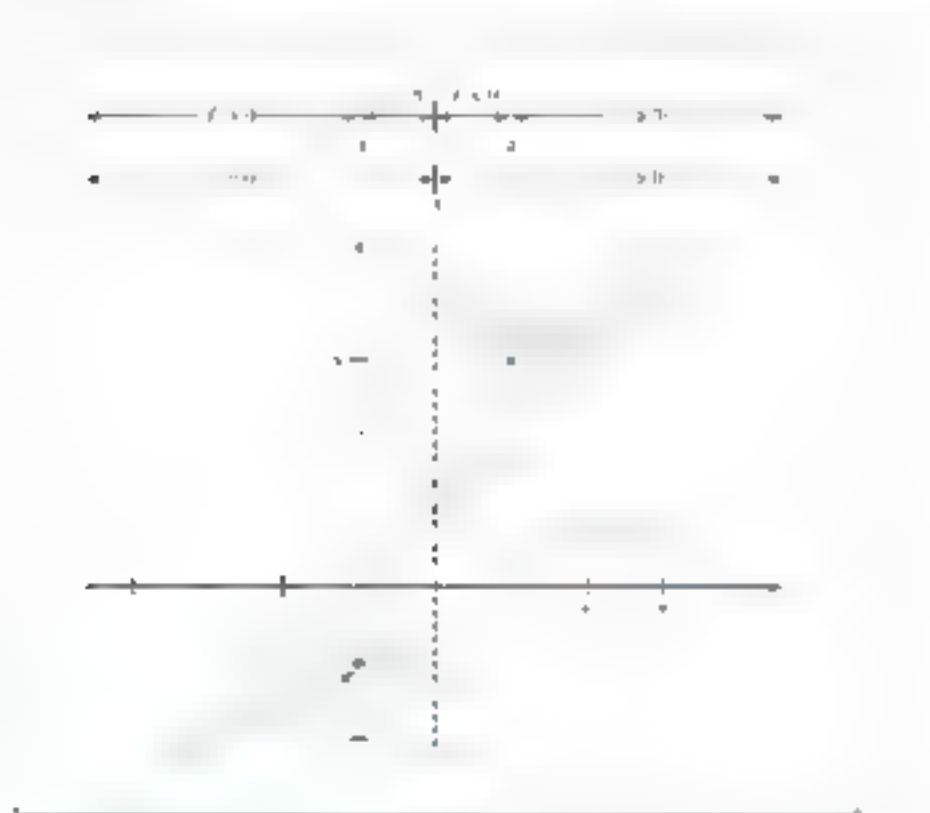


Figure 4

There is an endless variety of functions involving roots. Here is one example.

**EXAMPLE 3** Analyze the function

$$F(x) = \sqrt[3]{4(x-5)}$$

and sketch its graph.

**STEP 1: AN** The domain of  $F$  is  $(0, \infty)$  and the range is  $(-\infty, \infty)$ , so the graph of  $F$  is confined to the first quadrant and the positive coordinate axes. The  $x$ -intercepts are 0 and 5; the  $y$ -intercept is 0. From

$$F'(x) = \frac{5(4 - 1)(x - 5)}{8\sqrt{x}}$$

we find the stationary points at 1 and 5. Since  $F'(x) > 0$  on  $(1, 5)$  and  $F'(x) < 0$  on  $(5, \infty)$ , we conclude that  $F(1) = 4$  is a local maximum value and  $F(5) = 0$  is a local minimum value.

So far, it has been clear sailing. But in calculating the second derivative we obtain

$$F''(x) = \frac{5(3x^2 - 4)}{(8x)^{3/2}}, \quad x > 0$$

which is quite complicated. However,  $F''(x) = 0$  when the numerator is 0, that is, when  $3x^2 - 4 = 0$ , so  $x = 2\sqrt{3}/3$ .

Using the stationary points 1 and 5 we conclude that  $F$  has an inflection point at  $x = 2\sqrt{3}/3$  and  $F(1) = 4$  on  $(1, 2\sqrt{3}/3)$  and  $F(5) = 0$  on  $(2\sqrt{3}/3, 5)$ . It then follows that the point  $(2\sqrt{3}/3, 4)$  is an inflection point, which is approximately  $(1.155, 4)$ . This is an inflection point.

As  $x$  grows large,  $F(x)$  grows without bound and much faster than any linear function. There are no asymptotes. The graph is sketched in Figure 3.5.1.

**STEP 2: AN** In graphing functions, one must always substitute for common sense. However, the following rules can be helpful in many cases.

#### STEP 3: Calculus analysis

(a) Check the domain and range of the function. (Are there any values of  $x$  or  $y$  that are excluded?)

(b) Test for symmetry with respect to the  $y$ -axis and the origin (is the function even or odd?)

(c) Find the intercepts.

#### STEP 4: Calculus analysis

(a) Use the first derivative to find the critical values and find out where the graph is increasing and decreasing.

(b) Test the critical points for local maxima and minima.

(c) Use the second derivative to find out where the graph is concave upward and concave downward and to locate inflection points.

(d) Find the asymptotes.

Plot a few points (including all critical points and inflection points).

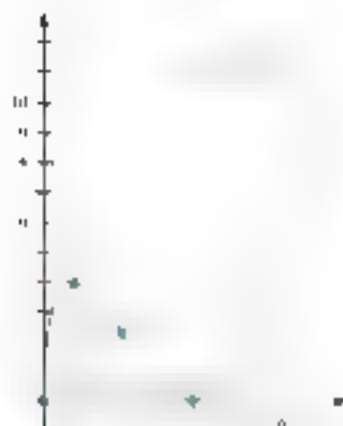
#### STEP 5: Sketch the graph.

**EXAMPLE 1** Sketch the graphs of  $f(x) = x^3$  and  $g(x) = x^2$  and just describe them.

**SOLUTION** The domain for both functions is  $(-\infty, \infty)$ . Remember, the cube root exists for every real number. The range of  $f$  is  $(-\infty, \infty)$  since every real number is the cube root of some other number. Writing  $x = y$  as  $x = y^{1/3}$ , we see that  $f$  must be nonnegative on a range of  $y$ . Since  $f(-x) = (-x)^3 = -x^3 = -f(x)$ , we see that  $f$  is an odd function. Similarly, since  $x^2 = (-x)^2 = x^2 = g(x)$ , we see that  $g$  is an even function. The first derivatives are

$$f'(x) = \frac{1}{3}x^{-2/3} = \frac{1}{3\sqrt[3]{x}}$$

and









28. Sketch the graph of a function  $f$  that has the following properties:

- a)  $f$  is everywhere continuous; (b)  $f(0) = 0$ ,  $f(1) = 2$ ;  
 c)  $f$  is an even function; (d)  $f'(x) > 0$  for  $x < 0$ ;  
 e)  $f'(x) > 0$  for  $x > 0$ .

29. Sketch the graph of a function  $f$  that has the following properties:

- a)  $f$  is everywhere continuous; (b)  $f(2) = -3$ ,  $f(6) = 9$ ;  
 c)  $f'(2) = 0$ ,  $f'(x) > 0$  for  $x \neq 2$ ,  $f'(6) = 3$ ;  
 d)  $f''(6) = 0$ ,  $f''(x) > 0$  for  $2 < x < 6$ ,  $f''(x) < 0$  for  $x > 6$ .

30. Sketch the graph of a function  $g$  that has the following properties:

- a)  $g$  is everywhere smooth, continuous with a continuous first derivative;  
 b)  $g(0) = 0$ ; (c)  $g'(x) < 0$  for all  $x$ ;  
 d)  $g''(x) < 0$  for  $x < 0$  and  $g''(x) > 0$  for  $x > 0$ .

31. Sketch the graph of a function  $f$  that has the following properties:


- a)  $f$  is everywhere continuous;  
 b)  $f(-3) = 1$ ;  
 c)  $f'(x) < 0$  for  $x < -3$ ,  $f'(x) > 0$  for  $x > -3$ ,  $f''(x) < 0$  for  $x \neq -3$ .

32. Sketch the graph of a function  $f$  that has the following properties:

- a)  $f$  is everywhere continuous;  
 b)  $f(-4) = -3$ ,  $f(0) = 0$ ,  $f(3) = 2$ ;  
 c)  $f'(-4) = 0$ ,  $f'(3) = 0$ ,  $f'(x) > 0$  for  $x < -4$ ,  $f'(x) > 0$  for  $-4 < x < 3$ ,  $f'(x) < 0$  for  $x > 3$ ;  
 d)  $f''(-4) = 0$ ,  $f''(0) = 0$ ,  $f''(x) < 0$  for  $x < -4$ ,  $f''(x) > 0$  for  $-4 < x < 0$ ,  $f''(x) < 0$  for  $x > 0$ .

33. Sketch the graph of a function  $f$  that:

- a) has a continuous first derivative;  
 b) is decreasing and concave up for  $x < 3$ ;  
 c) has an extremum at  $(3, 1)$ ;  
 d) is increasing and concave up for  $3 < x < 5$ ;  
 e) has an inflection point at  $(5, 4)$ ;  
 f) is increasing and concave down for  $5 < x < 6$ ;  
 g) has an extremum at  $(6, 7)$ ;  
 h) is decreasing and concave down for  $x > 6$ .

 **Linear approximations provide particularly good approximations near points of inflection. Using a graphing calculator, investigate this behavior in Problems 34–36.**

34. Graph  $y = \sin x$  and its linear approximation  $L(x) = x$  at  $x = 0$ .

35. Graph  $y = \cos x$  and its linear approximation  $L(x) = 1 + \pi/2(x - \pi/2)$ .

36. Find the linear approximation to the curve  $y = x^3 + 3$  at its point of inflection. Graph both the function and its linear approximation in the neighborhood of the inflection point.

37. Suppose  $f'(x) = (x - 2)(x - 3)(x - 4)$  and  $f(2) = 7$ . Sketch a graph of  $y = f(x)$ .



38. Suppose  $f'(x) = (x - 3)(x - 2)^2(x - 1)$  and  $f(2) = 0$ . Sketch a graph of  $y = f(x)$ .

39. Suppose  $h'(x) = x^2(x - 2)^2$  and  $h(0) = 0$ . Sketch a graph of  $y = h(x)$ .

40. Consider a general quadratic curve  $y = ax^2 + bx + c$ . Show that such a curve has no inflection points.

41. Show that the curve  $y = ax^3 + bx^2 + cx + d$  where  $a \neq 0$ , has exactly one inflection point.

42. Consider a general quartic curve  $y = ax^4 + bx^3 + cx^2 + dx + e$ , where  $a \neq 0$ . What is the maximum number of inflection points that such a curve can have?

  In Problems 43–47 the graph of  $y = f(x)$  depends on a parameter  $c$ . Using a CAS, investigate how the extremum and inflection points depend on the value of  $c$ . Identify the values of  $c$  at which the basic shape of the curve changes.

43.  $f(x) = x^2 + x^2 - c^2$  44.  $f(x) = \frac{c^2}{1 + c + c^2}$

45.  $f(x) = \frac{x}{x^2 + 4x + 4}$  46.  $f(x) = \frac{c^2}{x^2 + 4x + c}$

47.  $f(x) = c + \sin cx$

48. What conclusions can you draw about  $f$  from the information that  $F(c) = f'(c) = 0$  and  $F''(c) > 0$ ?

49. Let  $g(x)$  be a function that has two derivatives and satisfies the following properties:


- (a)  $g(1) = 0$ ;  
 (b)  $g'(x) > 0$  for all  $x \neq 1$ ;  
 (c)  $g$  is concave down for all  $x < 1$  and concave up for all  $x > 1$ ;  
 d)  $f(x) = g(x^2)$ .

Sketch a possible graph of  $f(x)$  and justify your answer.

50. Let  $H(x)$  have three continuous derivatives, and be such that  $H'(1) = H''(1) = H'''(1) = 0$ , but  $H'''(1) \neq 0$ . Does  $H(x)$  have a local maximum, local minimum, or a point of inflection at  $x = 1$ ? Justify your answer.

51. In each case, is it possible for a function  $F$  with two continuous derivatives to satisfy the following properties? If so, sketch such a function. If not, justify your answer.

- (a)  $F'(x) > 0$ ,  $F''(x) > 0$ , while  $F(x) < 0$  for all  $x$ ;  
 (b)  $F''(x) < 0$ , while  $F(x) = 0$ ;  
 (c)  $F'(x) < 0$  while  $F'(x) > 0$ .


 **52. Use a graphing calculator or a CAS to plot the graphs of each of the following functions on the indicated interval. Determine the coordinates of any of the global extrema and any inflection points. You should be able to give answers that are accurate to at least one decimal place. Restrict the  $y$ -axis window to  $-9 \leq y \leq 5$ .**

a)  $f(x) = x \sin x$   $\left[ \frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2} \right]$

b)  $f(x) = x^2 \sin x$   $\left[ \frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2} \right]$

c)  $f(x) = 2x + \sin x$   $[\pi, \pi]$

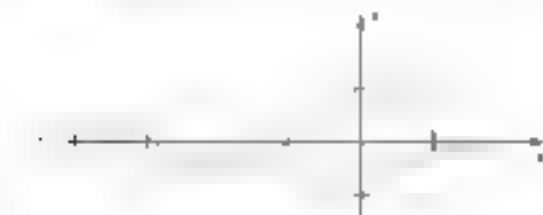
d)  $f(x) = x \sin \frac{x}{2}$   $[\pi, \pi]$

 **53. Each of the following functions is periodic. Use a graphing calculator or a CAS to plot the graph of each of the following functions over one full period with the center of the interval located at the origin. Determine the coordinates of any of the**

global extrema and any inflection points. You should be able to give answers that are accurate to at least one decimal place.

- (a)  $f(x) = 3 \sin x + 30x^2$  (b)  $f(x) = 7 \sin x + \sin^2 x$   
 (c)  $f(x) = \cos 2x - 7 \cos x$  (d)  $f(x) = \sin x - 10x$   
 (e)  $f(x) = \sin 2x - \cos 3x$

84. Let  $f$  be a continuous function on  $[0, \pi]$  with the graph  $y = f(x)$  as shown in Figure 13. Sketch a possible graph for  $f'$  on  $[0, \pi]$ .



85. Let  $f$  be a continuous function and let  $f'$  have the graph shown in Figure 2. Sketch a possible graph for  $f$  and answer the following questions.

- (a) Where is  $f$  increasing? Decreasing?  
 (b) Where is  $f$  concave up? Concave down?  
 (c) Where does  $f$  attain a local maximum? A local minimum?  
 (d) Where are there inflection points for  $f$ ?

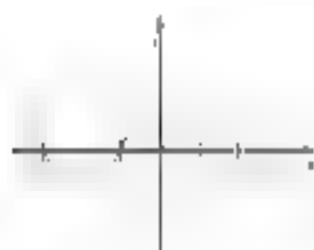


Figure 12

Figure 13

86. Repeat Problem 85 for Figure 13.

87. Let  $f$  be a continuous function with  $f'(0) = f'(2) = 0$ . If the graph of  $y = f'(x)$  is as shown in Figure 14, sketch a possible graph for  $y = f(x)$ .



Figure 14

88. Suppose that  $f'(x) = (x - 1)(x - 2)(x + 3)$  and  $f(1) = 2$ . Sketch a possible graph of  $f$ .

89. Use a graphing calculator or a CAS to plot the graph of each of the following functions on  $[-1, 1]$ . Determine the coordinates of any global extrema and any inflection points. You should be able to give answers that are accurate to at least one decimal place.

- (a)  $f(x) = \sqrt{x^2 + 1}$   
 (b)  $f(x) = \sqrt{x^2 + 1} - 6x + 45$   
 (c)  $f(x) = \sqrt{x^2 + 1} - 6x + 45$ ,  $x \geq 2$   
 (d)  $f(x) = \sin(x - \pi/4)$ ,  $x \in [0, \pi]$

90. Repeat Problem 89 for the following functions.

- (a)  $f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 - 9x + 4$   
 (b)  $f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 - 5x + 4$   
 (c)  $f(x) = (x^2 - 3x + 5)^2 - 4x(x - 1)$   
 (d)  $f(x) = (x^2 - 3x + 5)^2 - 4x(x^2 + 1)$

Answers to 1–4 are given in Review 1.  $f(x) = f(x)$   
 2.  $y = \sin x$ ,  $m = 1$ ,  $x = 0$ ,  $y = 0$   
 4.  $y = \sin x$ ,  $m = 1$ ,  $x = 0$ ,  $y = 0$

## 3.6 The Mean Value Theorem for Derivatives

To remember, imagine the Mean Value Theorem is easy to understand if you think of the graph of a continuous function  $y = f(x)$  on the interval  $[a, b]$ . If  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and differentiable on  $(a, b)$ , then there is a point  $c$  in  $(a, b)$  such that the tangent line to the graph of  $f$  at  $c$  is parallel to the secant line passing through the points  $(a, f(a))$  and  $(b, f(b))$ . In other words, the slope of the tangent line at  $c$  is equal to the slope of the secant line. If we write this theorem in the language of functions, then we prove it.



**Theorem 3.1** Mean Value Theorem for Derivatives

If  $f$  is continuous on a closed interval  $[a, b]$  and differentiable on its interior  $(a, b)$ , then there is at least one number  $c$  in  $(a, b)$  where

$$\frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a} = f'(c)$$

or equivalently where

$$f(b) - f(a) = f'(c)(b - a)$$

**Proof** Our model curve is a function  $y = g(x)$  of the form  $y = f(x) + g'(x)$  introduced in Figure 3. Here  $y = g'(x)$  is the equation of the secant through  $(a, f(a))$  and  $(b, f(b))$ . Since this line has slope  $\frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}$ ,  $b > a$ , and goes through  $(a, f(a))$ , the point-slope form for its equation is

$$g(x) - f(a) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}(x - a)$$

This, in turn, yields a formula for  $g(x)$ :

$$g(x) = f(a) + g(x) - f(a) = f(a) + \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}(x - a)$$

Note immediately that  $g(b) = g(a) = 0$  and that, if  $a < x < b$ ,

$$g'(x) = f'(x) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}$$

Now we make a crucial observation. If we knew that there was a number  $c$  in  $(a, b)$  satisfying  $f'(c) = 0$ , we would be done, for then  $g'(c) = 0$  would imply that

$$0 = f'(c) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}$$

which is equivalent to the conclusion of the theorem.

To see that  $g'(c) = 0$  for some  $c$  in  $(a, b)$ , reason as follows. Clearly,  $g$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$ . It is the difference of two continuous functions. This is so by the Mean Value Theorem (Theorem 3.1). A continuous function has a maximum and a minimum on  $[a, b]$ . If both of these values happen to be 0, then  $g(x) = 0$  on  $[a, b]$  and consequently  $f'(x) = 0$  for  $a < x < b$ . In any event, we have

If either the maximum value or the minimum value is different from 0, then that value is attained at some point  $c$  in  $(a, b)$ . Now  $g$  has a derivative at each point of  $(a, b)$  and so  $g'(c) = 0$  at  $c$ . From the previous paragraph,  $f'(c) = 0$ . That is all we needed to know. ■

**The Theorem Illustrated**

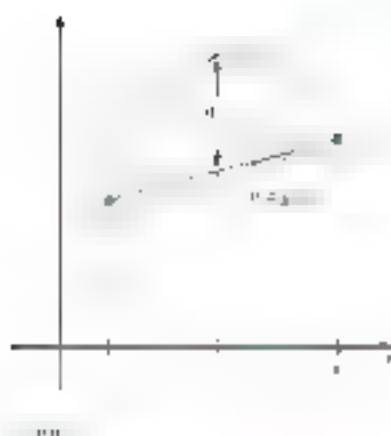
**EXAMPLE** Find the number  $c$  guaranteed by the Mean Value Theorem for  $f(x) = 2\sqrt{x}$  on  $[1, 4]$ .

**SOLUTION**

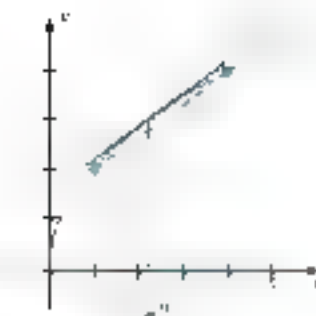
$$f(4) - f(1) = 2\sqrt{4} - 2\sqrt{1} = \frac{4}{\sqrt{4}}$$

and

$$\frac{f(4) - f(1)}{4 - 1} = \frac{4 - 2}{3} = \frac{2}{3}$$



To see that  $g'(c) = 0$  for some  $c$  in  $(a, b)$ , reason as follows. Clearly,  $g$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$ . It is the difference of two continuous functions. This is so by the Mean Value Theorem (Theorem 3.1). A continuous function has a maximum and a minimum on  $[a, b]$ . If both of these values happen to be 0, then  $g(x) = 0$  on  $[a, b]$  and consequently  $f'(x) = 0$  for  $a < x < b$ . In any event, we have



Thus, we must solve

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{x}} = \frac{1}{3}$$

The single solution is  $x = 9$  (Figure 4). ■

**EXAMPLE 2** Let  $f(x) = x^3 - x^2 - x + 1$  on  $[-2, 2]$ . Find all numbers  $c$  satisfying the conclusion to the Mean Value Theorem.

**SOLUTION** Figure 5 shows a graph of the function. From the graph it appears that there are two numbers  $c_1$  and  $c_2$  with the required property. We now find

$$f'(x) = 3x^2 - 2x - 1$$

and

$$\frac{f(2) - f(-2)}{2 - (-2)} = \frac{2 - 10}{4} = -\frac{3}{2}.$$

Therefore we must solve

$$3x^2 - 2x - 1 = -\frac{3}{2}.$$

It is equivalent to

$$3x^2 - 2x - \frac{1}{2} = 0.$$

By the Quadratic Formula (Equation 3.5.10), we solve  $3x^2 - 2x - \frac{1}{2} = 0$ , which corresponds to  $a = 3$ ,  $b = -2$ , and  $c = -\frac{1}{2}$ . Both numbers lie in the interval  $(-2, 2)$ . ■

**EXAMPLE 3** Let  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$  on  $[-8, 27]$ . Show that the MVT does not hold. Does the Mean Value Theorem fail, and figure out why.

**SOLUTION**

$$f'(x) = -\frac{1}{x^2}, \quad x \neq 0.$$

and

$$\frac{f(27) - f(-8)}{27 - (-8)} = \frac{-\frac{1}{27} - \frac{1}{8}}{35} = -\frac{11}{2520}.$$

We must solve

$$-\frac{1}{x^2} = -\frac{11}{2520}$$

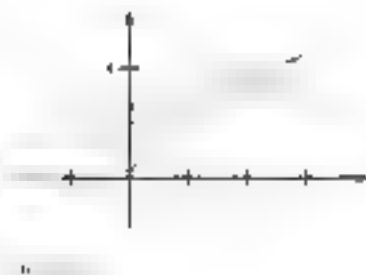
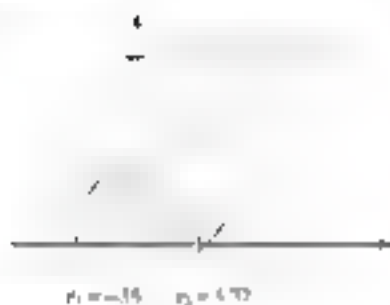
which gives

$$x = \pm\sqrt{\frac{2520}{11}} \approx \pm 15.17.$$

But  $x = 15.17$  is not in the interval  $(-8, 27)$  as required. As the graph of  $y = f(x)$  suggests (Figure 6), the fact that no  $c$  exists so the problem is not that  $f$  is not even, or that  $f$  is not differentiable on  $(-8, 27)$ . ■

If the function  $s(t)$  represents the position of an object at time  $t$ , then the Mean Value Theorem means that on a given interval of time, there is some time for which the instantaneous velocity equals the average velocity.

**EXAMPLE 4** Suppose that an object has position function  $s(t) = t^3 - t^2 - 2$ . Find the average velocity over the interval  $[1, 6]$  and find the time at which the instantaneous velocity equals the average velocity.



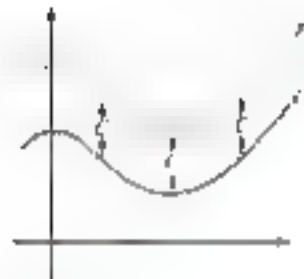


Figure 7

As with many results in this book, you should try to see things from an algebraic and a geometrical point of view. Geometrically, Theorem 3 says that if  $F$  and  $G$  have the same derivative then the graph of  $G$  is a vertical translation of the graph of  $F$ .

**SOLUTION** The average velocity over the interval  $[3, 6]$  is equal to  $\frac{f(6) - f(3)}{6 - 3} = 8$ . The instantaneous velocity is  $v'(t) = 2t - 1$ . To find the point where average velocity equals instantaneous velocity, we equate  $8 = 2t - 1$  and solve to get  $t = 9/2$ . ■

**Monotonicity Theorem** In Section 2.4 we promised a rigorous proof of the Monotonicity Theorem (Theorem 2.4.4). This section has reached the stage of the derivative of a function, so whether that function is increasing or decreasing

**Proof of the Monotonicity Theorem** We suppose that  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and that  $f'(x) > 0$  at each point  $x$  in the interior of  $[a, b]$  (inside  $[a, b]$ ). We fix  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  of  $I$  with  $x_1 < x_2$ . By the Mean Value Theorem applied to the interval  $[x_1, x_2]$ , there is a number  $c$  in  $(x_1, x_2)$  satisfying

$$f(x_2) - f(x_1) = f'(c)(x_2 - x_1).$$

Since  $f'(c) > 0$ , we see that  $f(x_2) - f(x_1) > 0$ ; that is,  $f(x_2) > f(x_1)$ . This is what we mean when we say that  $f$  is increasing on  $I$ .

The case where  $f'(x) < 0$  on  $I$  is handled similarly. ■

Our next theorem will be used repeatedly in this and the next chapter. In words, it says that the derivative of a function with one variable is 0 if and only if the function is constant (see Figure 7).

### Theorem 4

If  $F'(x) = 0$  for all  $x$  in  $(a, b)$ , then there is a constant  $C$  such that

$$F(x) = C \text{ for all } x \text{ in } (a, b).$$

for all  $x$  in  $(a, b)$ .

**Proof** Let  $H(x) = F(x) - C$ . Then

$$H'(x) = F'(x) - 0 = 0$$

for all  $x$  in  $(a, b)$ . Choose  $x_1$  as some fixed number in  $(a, b)$  and let  $x$  be any other point here. Theorem 3 says that  $H(x) = H(x_1)$  for every choice of  $x$ . Here  $H(x_1) = F(x_1) - C$ , so  $F(x) = C$  for every  $x$  in  $(a, b)$ . ■

$$H(x) = H(x_1) = F(x_1) - C.$$

But  $H'(x) = 0$  by hypothesis. Therefore,  $H(x) = H(x_1) = 0$  or, equivalently,  $F(x) = C$  for all  $x$  in  $(a, b)$ . Since  $H(x) = F(x) - C$ , we conclude that  $F(x) = C$  for all  $x$  in  $(a, b)$ . Now let  $C = F(x_1)$ , and we have the conclusion  $F(x) = C$  for all  $x$  in  $(a, b)$ . ■

## Concepts Review

1. The Mean Value Theorem on  $F(x)$  says that, with  $f$  and  $g$  on  $[a, b]$  and differentiable on  $(a, b)$ , then there is a point  $c$  in  $(a, b)$  such that

2. The function  $f(x) = \sin x$  satisfies all the hypotheses of the Mean Value Theorem on the interval  $[0, \pi]$  but would not satisfy them on the interval  $[-\pi, \pi]$ . Because

3. If a function  $f$  has a local maximum at  $c$  in the interval  $(a, b)$ , then there is a constant  $C$  such that

4. Since  $D_x(x^2) = 2x$ , it follows that every function  $F$  that satisfies  $F'(x) = 4x^2$  has the form  $F(x) =$

## Problem Set 1.6

In each of the Problems 1–27 a function is defined and a closed interval is given. Decide whether the Mean Value Theorem applies to the given function on the given interval. If it does, find all possible values of  $c$ . If not, state the reason. In each problem sketch the graph of the given function on the given interval.

1.  $f(x) = \ln [x - 2]$

2.  $g(x) = [x] \cdot [x^2]$

3.  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2} + \frac{1}{x^3}$

4.  $g(x) = (x + 1)^{2/3} - 1$

5.  $h(x) = \frac{1}{x^2} - \frac{1}{x}$

6.  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2} + \frac{1}{x}$

7.  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2} + \frac{1}{x}$

8.  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2} + \frac{1}{x}$

9.  $h(x) = \frac{1}{x^2} + \frac{1}{x}$

10.  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2} + \frac{1}{x}$

11.  $h(x) = \frac{1}{x^2} + \frac{1}{x}$

12.  $h(x) = \frac{1}{x^2} + \frac{1}{x}$

13.  $g(x) = \frac{1}{x^2} + \frac{1}{x}$

14.  $g(x) = \frac{1}{x^2} + \frac{1}{x}$

15.  $h(x) = \frac{1}{x^2} + \frac{1}{x}$

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43.  $h(x) = \frac{1}{x^2} + \frac{1}{x}$

44.  $h(x) = \frac{1}{x^2} + \frac{1}{x}$

45.  $h(x) = \frac{1}{x^2} + \frac{1}{x}$

46.  $h(x) = \frac{1}{x^2} + \frac{1}{x}$

47.  $h(x) = \frac{1}{x^2} + \frac{1}{x}$

48.  $h(x) = \frac{1}{x^2} + \frac{1}{x}$

49.  $h(x) = \frac{1}{x^2} + \frac{1}{x}$

50.  $h(x) = \frac{1}{x^2} + \frac{1}{x}$

27. Use the Mean Value Theorem to show that  $x = \sqrt{x}$  decreases on any interval over which it is defined.

28. Use the Mean Value Theorem to show that  $x = \sqrt{x}$  decreases on any interval to the right of the origin.

29. Prove that if  $F'(x) = 0$  for all  $x$  in  $(a, b)$  then there is a constant  $C$  such that  $F(x) = C$  for all  $x$  in  $[a, b]$ . Hint: let  $G(x) = 0$  and apply Theorem B.

30. Suppose that you know that  $\cos(0) = 1$ ,  $\sin(0) = 0$ ,  $D_x \cos x = -\sin x$ , and  $D_x \sin x = \cos x$ , but nothing else about the sine and cosine functions. Show that  $\cos^2 x + \sin^2 x = 1$  for  $x$  or  $F(x) = \cos^2 x + \sin^2 x$  and use Problem 29.

31. Prove that if  $F'(x) = 0$  for all  $x$  in  $(a, b)$  then there is a constant  $C$  such that  $F(x) = C$  for all  $x$  in  $[a, b]$ . Hint: let  $G(x) = F(x)$  and apply Theorem B.

32. Suppose that  $F'(a) = 3$  and  $F'(b) = 4$ . Find a formula for  $F(x)$ . Hint: See Problem 31.

33. Prove that  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and differentiable on  $(a, b)$ . If  $f(a)$  and  $f(b)$  have opposite signs and if  $f'(x) \neq 0$  for all  $x$  in  $(a, b)$ , then the equation  $f(x) = 0$  has one and only one solution between  $a$  and  $b$ . Hint: Use the Intermediate Value Theorem and Rolle's Theorem (Problem 22).

34. Show that  $f(x) = 2x^2 - 4x + 1 = 0$  has exactly one solution on each of the intervals  $(-1, 0)$ ,  $(0, 1)$ , and  $(1, 2)$ . Hint: Apply Problem 33.

35. Let  $f$  have a derivative on  $[a, b]$ . Prove the following: If  $f(a) = f(b)$  then there is at least one value of  $c$  in  $(a, b)$  such that  $f'(c) = 0$ . Hint: Use the Mean Value Theorem (Problem 22).

36. Let  $g$  be continuous on  $[a, b]$  and suppose that  $g'(x) \neq 0$  for all  $x$  in  $(a, b)$ . Prove that there are two values of  $x$  in  $(a, b)$  for which  $g(x) = 0$  if and only if there is at least one value of  $x$  in  $(a, b)$  such that  $g'(x) = 0$ .

37. Let  $f(x) = (x - 1)^2(x - 2)^2(x - 3)^2$ . Prove by using Problem 36 that there is at least one value in the interval  $[0, 4]$  where  $f'(x) = 0$  and two values in the same interval where  $f(x) = 0$ .

38. Prove that if  $f'(x) \geq M$  for all  $x$  in  $(a, b)$  and if  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  are any two points in  $(a, b)$  then

$$f(x_2) - f(x_1) \geq M(x_2 - x_1)$$

Note: A function satisfying the above inequality is said to satisfy a Lipschitz condition with constant  $M$  (Lipschitz's inequality).  $C = 0$  is a Lipschitz condition with constant 0.

39. Show that  $f(x) = \sin x$  satisfies a Lipschitz condition with constant 2 on the interval  $[-\pi, \pi]$ . See Problem 38.

40. A function  $f$  is said to be nondecreasing in an interval if  $x_1 < x_2 \Rightarrow f(x_1) \leq f(x_2)$  for  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  in  $I$ . Similarly,  $f$  is nonincreasing in  $I$  if  $x_1 < x_2 \Rightarrow f(x_1) \geq f(x_2)$  for  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  in  $I$ .

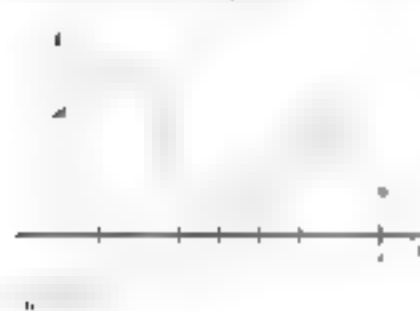
41. Sketch the graph of a function that is nondecreasing but not increasing.

42. Sketch the graph of a function that is nonincreasing but not decreasing.

43. Prove that if  $f$  is continuous on  $I$  and if  $f'(x)$  exists and is not 0 for  $x$  in  $I$ , then  $f$  is nondecreasing in  $I$  if and only if  $f'(x) \geq 0$  for all  $x$  in  $I$ .

23. (Mean Value Theorem) If  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and differentiable on  $(a, b)$ , then there is a point  $c$  in  $(a, b)$  such that  $f'(c) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}$ . Show that Rolle's Theorem is a special case of the Mean Value Theorem. Hint: Let  $g(x) = f(x) - \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}(x - a)$ .

24. For the function graphed in Figure 1, find approximate values for all points  $c$  that satisfy the conclusion to the Mean Value Theorem for the interval  $[0, 4]$ .



25. Show that if  $f$  is the quadratic function defined by  $f(x) = ax^2 + bx + c$ ,  $a \neq 0$ , then the number  $c$  of the Mean Value Theorem is always the midpoint of the given interval  $[a, b]$ .

26. Prove that if  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and if  $f'(x)$  exists and satisfies  $f'(x) \geq 0$  except at one point  $a_0$  in  $(a, b)$ , then  $f$  is increasing on  $[a, b]$ . Hint: Consider  $f$  on each of the intervals  $[a, a_0]$  and  $[a_0, b]$  separately.

27. Use Problem 26 to show that each of the following is increasing on  $I = (-\infty, \infty)$ :

(a)  $f(x) = x^3$

(b)  $f(x) = x^2$

(c)  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$

(d)  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2}$

(e)  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^3}$

(f)  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^4}$

(g)  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^5}$

(h)  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^6}$



42. Prove that if  $f'(x) \geq 0$  and  $f'(x) = 0$  on  $I$  then  $f$  is nondecreasing on  $I$ .

43. Prove that if  $g'(x) \leq h'(x)$  for all  $x$  in  $(a, b)$  then

$$g(x_2) - g(x_1) \leq h(x_2) - h(x_1)$$

for all  $a < x_1 < x_2 < b$ . *Hint:* Apply Problem 41 with  $f(x) = h(x) - g(x)$ .

44. Use the Mean Value Theorem to prove that

$$\ln x \leq x - 1 \quad x > 0$$

45. Use the Mean Value Theorem to prove that

$$\sin x \leq x \quad x \geq 0$$

46. Suppose that on a race track horse  $A$  and horse  $B$  begin at the same point and finish at a fixed time. Prove that their speeds were identical at some instant of the race.

47. In Problem 46, suppose that the two horses crossed the finish line together at the same speed. Show that they had the same acceleration at some instant.

48. Use the Mean Value Theorem to show that the graph of a concave up function  $f$  is always above its tangent line; that is, show that

$$f(x) \geq f(a) + f'(a)(x - a) \quad x \geq a$$

49. Prove that if  $f'(x) = f'(x)$  for all  $x$  and  $f$  is a constant function.

50. Give an example of a function  $f$  that is continuous on  $[0, 1]$ , differentiable on  $(0, 1)$ , and not differentiable on  $[0, 1]$ , and has a tangent line at every point of  $[0, 1]$ .

51. John traveled 112 miles in 2 hours and claims that he never exceeded 55 miles per hour. Use the Mean Value Theorem to disprove John's claim. *Hint:* Let  $f(x)$  be the distance traveled in  $x$  hr.

52. A car is stationary at a toll booth. Twenty minutes after it is at a point 30 miles down the road the car is clocked at 60 miles per hour. Sketch a possible graph of  $x$  versus  $t$ . Sketch a possible graph of the distance traveled  $x$  against  $t$  using the Mean Value Theorem to show that the car must have exceeded the 60 mile per hour speed limit at some time after leaving the toll booth, but before the car was clocked at 60 miles per hour.

53. A car is stationary at a toll booth. Twenty minutes after it is at a point 30 miles down the road the car is clocked at 60 miles per hour. Explain why the car must have exceeded 60 miles per hour at some time after leaving the toll booth, but before the car was clocked at 60 miles per hour.

54. Show that if an object's position function is given by  $s(t) = at^3 + bt^2 + ct + d$  then the average velocity over the interval  $[a, b]$  is equal to the instantaneous velocity at the midpoint of  $[a, b]$ .

Review 1. continuous, 2. 0

1.  $f(b) - f(a) = f'(c)(b - a)$  2.  $f'(a)$  does not exist

3.  $f(x) = x^2$ ,  $x = 1$ ,  $f'(1) = 2$

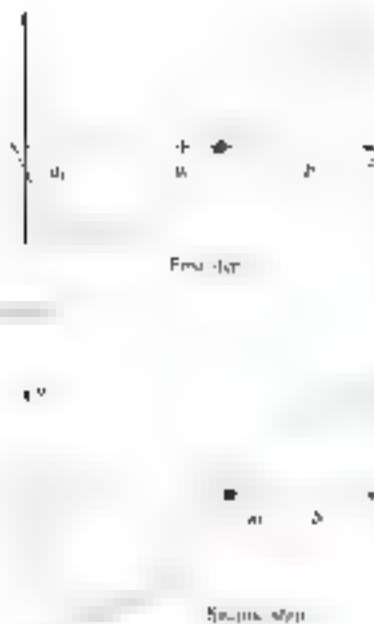
## 4.7 Solving Equations Numerically

In mathematics and science we often need to find the roots of an equation  $f(x) = 0$ . In this section we will discuss some of the methods for finding roots of equations and certain inequalities. We will also discuss the method of successive approximations, or the method of iteration.

There is a general method of solving problems known as the method of successive approximations. We will discuss this method in a later section. For now we will discuss the method of successive approximations, or the method of iteration.

In this section we present three such methods for solving equations: the Bisection Method, Newton's Method, and the Fixed-Point Method. All are designed to approximate the real root of  $f(x) = 0$  and they all require many computations. You will want to keep your calculator handy.

The Bisection Method is the simplest of the three. It is based on the Intermediate Value Theorem to approximate a solution of  $f(x) = 0$  by successively bisecting an interval known to contain a solution. This Bisection Method has two great virtues: simplicity and reliability. It also has a major vice: the large number of steps needed to achieve the desired accuracy (otherwise known as slowness of convergence).



Begin the process by sketching the graph of  $f$  which is assumed to be a continuous function (see Figure 1). A real root  $r$  of  $f(x) = 0$  is a point  $(r, 0)$  where the graph crosses the  $x$ -axis. As a first step in narrowing down the points, locate two points  $a < b$  such that you are sure that  $f$  has opposite signs, if  $f$  has opposite signs at  $a_1$  and  $b_1$ , then the product  $f(a_1) \cdot f(b_1)$  will be negative. (Try choosing  $a$  and  $b$  as opposite sides of your best guess of the intermediate value. The theorem guarantees the existence of a root between  $a$  and  $b$ .) Now evaluate  $f$  at the midpoint  $m_1 = (a_1 + b_1)/2$  of  $[a_1, b_1]$ . The number  $m_1$  is our first approximation to  $r$ .

Either  $f(m_1) = 0$ , in which case we are done, or  $f(m_1)$  differs in sign from  $f(a_1)$  or  $f(b_1)$ . Denote the one of the subintervals  $[a_1, m_1]$  or  $[m_1, b_1]$  in which the sign change occurs by the symbol  $[a_2, b_2]$  and evaluate  $f$  at its midpoint  $m_2 = (a_2 + b_2)/2$  (Figure 2). The number  $m_2$  is our second approximation to  $r$ .

Repeat the process thus obtaining a sequence of approximations  $m_1, m_2, m_3, \dots$  and subintervals  $[a_1, b_1], [a_2, b_2], [a_3, b_3], \dots$  each subinterval containing the root  $r$  and each half the length of its predecessor. Stop when  $r$  is within error of the desired accuracy (that is, when  $|r - m_n| < \epsilon$ ), which we will denote by  $E$ .

### Algorithm Bisection Method

Let  $f$  be a continuous function and let  $a$  and  $b$  be numbers satisfying  $a < b$  and  $f(a) \cdot f(b) < 0$ . Let  $E$  denote the desired bound for the error  $|r - m_n|$ . Repeat steps 1 to 5 for  $n = 1, 2, \dots$  until  $E_n < E$ .

- 1 Calculate  $m_n = (a_n + b_n)/2$ .
- 2 Calculate  $f(m_n)$ , and if  $f(m_n) = 0$ , then STOP.
- 3 Calculate  $E_n = (b_n - a_n)/2$ .
- 4 If  $f(a_n) \cdot f(m_n) < 0$ , set  $a_{n+1} = a_n$  and  $b_{n+1} = m_n$ .
- 5 If  $f(m_n) \cdot f(b_n) < 0$ , then set  $a_{n+1} = m_n$  and  $b_{n+1} = b_n$ .

**EXAMPLE 3** Determine the real root of  $f(x) = x^3 - 3x - 5 = 0$  to accuracy within 0.00001.

**SOLUTION** We first sketch the graph of  $y = x^3 - 3x - 5$  (Figure 3) and, finding that it crosses the  $x$ -axis between 2 and 3, we begin with  $a_1 = 2$  and  $b_1 = 3$ .

$$\text{Step 1: } m_1 = (a_1 + b_1)/2 = (2 + 3)/2 = 2.5$$

$$\text{Step 2: } f(m_1) = f(2.5) = 2.5^3 - 3 \cdot 2.5 - 5 = 3.375$$

$$\text{Step 3: } E_1 = (b_1 - a_1)/2 = (3 - 2)/2 = 0.5$$

Step 4: Since

$$f(a_1) \cdot f(m_1) = (2)f(2.5) = (-9.375) < 0$$

we set  $a_2 = a_1 = 2$  and  $b_2 = m_1 = 2.5$ .

Step 5: The condition  $f(a_n) \cdot f(m_n) < 0$  is false

Next we increment  $n$  so that it has the value 2 and repeat these steps. We can continue this process to obtain the entries in the following table.

$x$	$f(x)$	$f'(x)$	$E_n$
0	0	1	0
0.1	0.0950	0.99	0.0050
0.2	0.1872	0.96	0.0128
0.3	0.2763	0.91	0.0237
0.4	0.3624	0.84	0.0376
0.5	0.4357	0.75	0.0543
0.6	0.4964	0.64	0.0736
0.7	0.5447	0.51	0.0953
0.8	0.5809	0.36	0.1191
0.9	0.6052	0.20	0.1448
1.0	0.6187	0.03	0.1723
1.1	0.6216	-0.14	0.2014
1.2	0.6142	-0.30	0.2322
1.3	0.5968	-0.44	0.2648
1.4	0.5698	-0.56	0.3002
1.5	0.5336	-0.66	0.3384
1.6	0.4887	-0.74	0.3795
1.7	0.4357	-0.80	0.4236
1.8	0.3752	-0.84	0.4707
1.9	0.3079	-0.86	0.5208
2.0	0.2354	-0.86	0.5739
2.1	0.1593	-0.84	0.6300
2.2	0.0814	-0.80	0.6891
2.3	0.0033	-0.74	0.7512
2.4	-0.0742	-0.66	0.8173

We conclude that  $f(x) \approx 2.2000$  with an error of at most 0.0001.

**Example 3** Illustrates the short-cutting method based on  $M_2$  and Theorem 3.1 that shows  $m_1, m_2, m_3, \dots$  converge very slowly to  $\sqrt{2}$  if  $x_0$  is the average of  $m_1$  and  $m_2$ . The method works and we have at  $x_0$  a good approximation to the error  $E_n = f - m_n$ , namely,  $|E_n| \leq h_n$ .

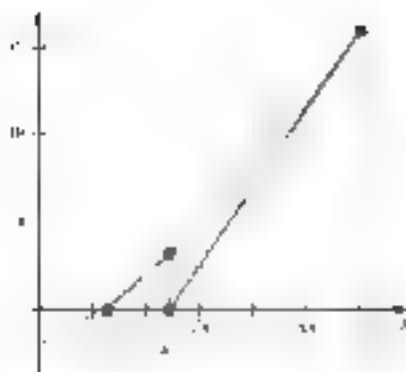


FIGURE 4

**Example 4** We are still considering the problem of solving the equation  $x = f(x)$  for a root  $x$  by using the tangent line to the graph with a tangent line at each point. If we are told a  $\epsilon$  (given  $\epsilon$  is not a function graphed or any other means see Figure 4), then the next approximation  $x_2$  will be the intersection of the tangent at  $x_1$  with the axis. Using a single approximation we can then find a better approximation  $x_3$  and so on.

The process can be mechanized so that it is easy to write a program. The equation of the tangent line at  $(x_1, f(x_1))$  is

$$y - f(x_1) = f'(x_1)(x - x_1)$$

and its  $y$ -intercept  $x_2$  is found by setting  $y = 0$  and solving for  $x$ . The result is

$$x_2 = x_1 - \frac{f(x_1)}{f'(x_1)}$$

More generally we have the following algorithm also called a *Newton formula* or *iteration scheme*.

**Algorithm** Newton's Method

Let  $f(x)$  be a differentiable function and let  $x_0$  be an initial approximation to the root  $r$  of  $f(x) = 0$ . Let  $E$  denote a bound for the error ( $r - x_n$ ).

Repeat the following step for  $n = 1, 2, \dots$  until  $|x_{n+1} - x_n| < E$ .

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - \frac{f(x_n)}{f'(x_n)}$$

**EXAMPLE 7** Use Newton's Method to find the real root  $r$  of  $f(x) = x^5 - 3x + 5 = 0$  (to seven decimal places).

**SOLUTION** This is the same equation considered in Example 1. Let's use  $x_0 = 1$  as our first approximation to  $r$  as we did before. Since  $f(x) = x^5 - 3x + 5$  and  $f'(x) = 5x^4 - 3$ , the algorithm is

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - \frac{x_n^5 - 3x_n + 5}{5x_n^4 - 3} \quad n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

We obtain the following table.

$n$	$x_n$
0	1
1	0.6329114
2	0.5703184
3	0.5664099

After just four steps we get a root accurate to the first eight digits. We will now stop reporting this.  $r \approx 2.5511960$  (to eight digits). The question arises: How do we know?

**EXAMPLE 8** Use Newton's Method to find the positive root  $r$  of  $f(x) = x^3 - 2x + 1 = 0$ .

**SOLUTION** The graph of  $y = x^3 - 2x + 1$  is shown in Figure 5. We will use the starting value  $x_1 = 2$ . Since  $f(x) = x^3 - 2x + 1$ , each iteration becomes

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - \frac{x_n^3 - 2x_n + 1}{3x_n^2 - 2} \quad n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

which leads to the following table.

$n$	$x_n$
1	2.0000000
2	1.6180340
3	1.6180339
4	1.6180339
5	1.6180339

After just five steps we get a repetition of the last eight digits after the decimal point. We conclude that  $r \approx 2.5511960$ .

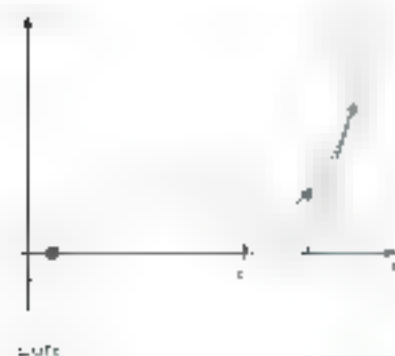
Algorithm is a word of mathematics since people first learned to do long division, but it is computer science that has given algorithmic thinking its present popularity. What is an algorithm? Donald Knuth, dean of computer scientists, responds,

"An algorithm is a precisely defined sequence of rules telling how to produce specified output information from given input information in a finite number of steps."

What is a computer scientist? According to Knuth,

is the science of algorithms.





**Newton's Method** creates a sequence of successive approximations to the root (We mentioned sequences briefly in Section 2.7). The sequence given by Newton's Method produces a sequence  $\{x_n\}$  that converges to the root of  $f'(x) = 0$ . In this case,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = r$ . This is not always the case, however. Figure 9 illustrates what can go wrong (see also Problem 7). For the function in Figure 9, the first iteration produces an approximation that is not close enough to  $r$  to get a meaningful value for  $f'(x)$  at  $x_1$ , even though  $f(x_1)$  is a zero of  $f$  or undefined at or near  $x$ . When Newton's Method fails to produce approximations that converge to the solution, then you can retry Newton's Method with a different starting point or use a different technique such as the Bisection Method.

**EXAMPLE 1** The Fixed-Point Algorithm is simple and straightforward, but it often works.

Suppose that an equation can be written in the form  $x = g(x)$ . To solve this equation is to find a number  $r$  that is unchanged by the function  $g$ . We call such a number a **fixed point** of  $g$ . The number we propose to find with the algorithm. Make a first guess  $x_1$ . Then let  $x_1 = g(x_1)$ ,  $x_2 = g(x_2)$ , and so on. If we are lucky,  $x_n$  will converge to the root  $r$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

### Fixed-Point Algorithm

Let  $g(x)$  be a continuous function and let  $x_1$  be an initial approximation to the root  $r$  of  $x = g(x)$ . Let  $E$  denote a bound for the error  $|r - x_n|$ .

Repeat the following step for  $n = 1, 2, \dots$  until  $|x_{n+1} - x_n| < E$ .

$$x_{n+1} = g(x_n)$$

**EXAMPLE 2** Solve  $x^2 - 2\sqrt{x-1} = 0$  by fixed-point iteration. Rewrite the equation as  $f(x) = x^2 - 2\sqrt{x-1} = 0$ .

**SOLUTION** We write  $x = 2\sqrt{x-1}$ , which leads to  $x = 2\sqrt{x-1}$ . Since we know the solution is positive, we take the positive square root and write the iteration as

$$x_{n+1} = \sqrt{x_n + 1}^2 = \sqrt{x_n + 1}^2$$

Figure 7 suggests that the point of intersection of the curves  $y = x$  and  $y = 2\sqrt{x-1}$  occurs between 1 and 2, so we take  $x_1 = 2$  as our starting point. This leads to the following table. The solution is approximately 1.635067.

$n$	$x_n$	$n$	$x_n$
1	2.000000	6	1.635067
2	1.632993	7	1.635067
3	1.635067	8	1.635067
4	1.635067	9	1.635067
5	1.635067	10	1.635067
6	1.635067	11	1.635067
7	1.635067	12	1.635067

**EXAMPLE 3** Solve  $x = 2 \cos x$  using the Fixed-Point Algorithm.

**SOLUTION** More first, find values that solve this equation. We equivalent to solving the pair of equations  $x = 1$  and  $x = 2 \cos x$ . Thus, to get an initial value we graph these two equations (Figure 8). Observe that the two curves intersect at approximately  $x = 1$ . Taking  $x_1 = 1$  and applying the algorithm  $x_{n+1} = 2 \cos x_n$ , we obtain the results in the following table.

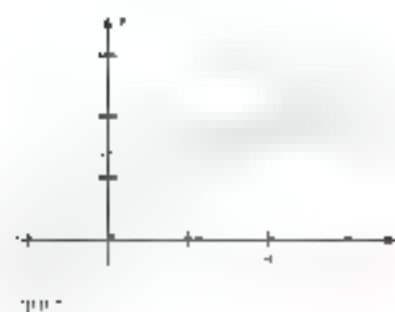


Figure 9

$\mathcal{H}$	$\mathcal{H}_\Psi$	$\mathcal{H}_\Phi$
		$\Phi$
		$\Psi = \{ \psi_1, \psi_2, \dots, \psi_n \}$
	$\Psi = \{ \psi_1, \psi_2, \dots, \psi_n \}$	$\Phi = \{ \phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_m \}$
$\mathcal{H}$	$\Psi = \{ \psi_1, \psi_2, \dots, \psi_n \}$	$\Phi = \{ \phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_m \}$
$\mathcal{H}$	$\Psi = \{ \psi_1, \psi_2, \dots, \psi_n \}$	$\Phi = \{ \phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_m \}$
$\mathcal{H}$	$\Psi = \{ \psi_1, \psi_2, \dots, \psi_n \}$	$\Phi = \{ \phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_m \}$

Question: Is the process sustainable? (yes) (2, small, no) (0, big guess is very close to the data point)

Let's take a different tack. Rewrite the expression  $x = 2 \cos t$  as  $x = 2 \cos^2 t - 2 \sin^2 t$  and use the identity

2. 4. 1. 1. 2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9. 10. 11. 12. 13. 14. 15. 16. 17. 18. 19. 20. 21. 22. 23. 24. 25. 26. 27. 28. 29. 30. 31. 32. 33. 34. 35. 36. 37. 38. 39. 40. 41. 42. 43. 44. 45. 46. 47. 48. 49. 50. 51. 52. 53. 54. 55. 56. 57. 58. 59. 60. 61. 62. 63. 64. 65. 66. 67. 68. 69. 70. 71. 72. 73. 74. 75. 76. 77. 78. 79. 80. 81. 82. 83. 84. 85. 86. 87. 88. 89. 90. 91. 92. 93. 94. 95. 96. 97. 98. 99. 100. 101. 102. 103. 104. 105. 106. 107. 108. 109. 110. 111. 112. 113. 114. 115. 116. 117. 118. 119. 120. 121. 122. 123. 124. 125. 126. 127. 128. 129. 130. 131. 132. 133. 134. 135. 136. 137. 138. 139. 140. 141. 142. 143. 144. 145. 146. 147. 148. 149. 150. 151. 152. 153. 154. 155. 156. 157. 158. 159. 160. 161. 162. 163. 164. 165. 166. 167. 168. 169. 170. 171. 172. 173. 174. 175. 176. 177. 178. 179. 180. 181. 182. 183. 184. 185. 186. 187. 188. 189. 190. 191. 192. 193. 194. 195. 196. 197. 198. 199. 200. 201. 202. 203. 204. 205. 206. 207. 208. 209. 210. 211. 212. 213. 214. 215. 216. 217. 218. 219. 220. 221. 222. 223. 224. 225. 226. 227. 228. 229. 230. 231. 232. 233. 234. 235. 236. 237. 238. 239. 240. 241. 242. 243. 244. 245. 246. 247. 248. 249. 250. 251. 252. 253. 254. 255. 256. 257. 258. 259. 260. 261. 262. 263. 264. 265. 266. 267. 268. 269. 270. 271. 272. 273. 274. 275. 276. 277. 278. 279. 280. 281. 282. 283. 284. 285. 286. 287. 288. 289. 290. 291. 292. 293. 294. 295. 296. 297. 298. 299. 300. 301. 302. 303. 304. 305. 306. 307. 308. 309. 310. 311. 312. 313. 314. 315. 316. 317. 318. 319. 320. 321. 322. 323. 324. 325. 326. 327. 328. 329. 330. 331. 332. 333. 334. 335. 336. 337. 338. 339. 340. 341. 342. 343. 344. 345. 346. 347. 348. 349. 350. 351. 352. 353. 354. 355. 356. 357. 358. 359. 360. 361. 362. 363. 364. 365. 366. 367. 368. 369. 370. 371. 372. 373. 374. 375. 376. 377. 378. 379. 380. 381. 382. 383. 384. 385. 386. 387. 388. 389. 390. 391. 392. 393. 394. 395. 396. 397. 398. 399. 400. 401. 402. 403. 404. 405. 406. 407. 408. 409. 410. 411. 412. 413. 414. 415. 416. 417. 418. 419. 420. 421. 422. 423. 424. 425. 426. 427. 428. 429. 430. 431. 432. 433. 434. 435. 436. 437. 438. 439. 440. 441. 442. 443. 444. 445. 446. 447. 448. 449. 450. 451. 452. 453. 454. 455. 456. 457. 458. 459. 460. 461. 462. 463. 464. 465. 466. 467. 468. 469. 470. 471. 472. 473. 474. 475. 476. 477. 478. 479. 480. 481. 482. 483. 484. 485. 486. 487. 488. 489. 490. 491. 492. 493. 494. 495. 496. 497. 498. 499. 500. 501. 502. 503. 504. 505. 506. 507. 508. 509. 510. 511. 512. 513. 514. 515. 516. 517. 518. 519. 520. 521. 522. 523. 524. 525. 526. 527. 528. 529. 530. 531. 532. 533. 534. 535. 536. 537. 538. 539. 540. 541. 542. 543. 544. 545. 546. 547. 548. 549. 550. 551. 552. 553. 554. 555. 556. 557. 558. 559. 560. 561. 562. 563. 564. 565. 566. 567. 568. 569. 570. 571. 572. 573. 574. 575. 576. 577. 578. 579. 580. 581. 582. 583. 584. 585. 586. 587. 588. 589. 590. 591. 592. 593. 594. 595. 596. 597. 598. 599. 600. 601. 602. 603. 604. 605. 606. 607. 608. 609. 610. 611. 612. 613. 614. 615. 616. 617. 618. 619. 620. 621. 622. 623. 624. 625. 626. 627. 628. 629. 630. 631. 632. 633. 634. 635. 636. 637. 638. 639. 640. 641. 642. 643. 644. 645. 646. 647. 648. 649. 650. 651. 652. 653. 654. 655. 656. 657. 658. 659. 660. 661. 662. 663. 664. 665. 666. 667. 668. 669. 670. 671. 672. 673. 674. 675. 676. 677. 678. 679. 680. 681. 682. 683. 684. 685. 686. 687. 688. 689. 690. 691. 692. 693. 694. 695. 696. 697. 698. 699. 700. 701. 702. 703. 704. 705. 706. 707. 708. 709. 710. 711. 712. 713. 714. 715. 716. 717. 718. 719. 720. 721. 722. 723. 724. 725. 726. 727. 728. 729. 730. 731. 732. 733. 734. 735. 736. 737. 738. 739. 740. 741. 742. 743. 744. 745. 746. 747. 748. 749. 750. 751. 752. 753. 754. 755. 756. 757. 758. 759. 760. 761. 762. 763. 764. 765. 766. 767. 768. 769. 770. 771. 772. 773. 774. 775. 776. 777. 778. 779. 780. 781. 782. 783. 784. 785. 786. 787. 788. 789. 790. 791. 792. 793. 794. 795. 796. 797. 798. 799. 800. 801. 802. 803. 804. 805. 806. 807. 808. 809. 810. 811. 812. 813. 814. 815. 816. 817. 818. 819. 820. 821. 822. 823. 824. 825. 826. 827. 828. 829. 830. 831. 832. 833. 834. 835. 836. 837. 838. 839

This process produces a convergent sequence shown in the following plot. The oscillation in the last digit is probably due to round off errors.)

| $n$ | $\lambda_n$ | $\mu_n$ | $\lambda_n$ | $\mu_n$ | $x_n$    |
|-----|-------------|---------|-------------|---------|----------|
| 1   | 1           | 7       | 1.0294054   | 13      | 12.94054 |
| 2   | 1.0464225   | 8       | 1.0294054   | 14      | 13.94054 |
| 3   | 1.076107    | 9       | 1.0294054   | 15      | 14.94054 |
| 4   | 1.114145    |         | 1.0294054   | 16      | 15.94054 |
| 5   | 1.157521    | 11      | 1.0294054   |         |          |
| 6   | 1.1961574   | 12      | 1.0294054   |         |          |

[illegible]

## accepts keys as

1. The solutions of the Blaschke Problem are isomorphic and rational if and only if \_\_\_\_\_.
2. \_\_\_\_\_ is a polynomial in  $x$  and  $y$  and  $f(x, y)$  has no singularities, then there is a \_\_\_\_\_ of  $f(x, y) = 0$  between  $a$  and  $b$ . This follows from the \_\_\_\_\_ theorem.
3. The Blaschke Problem remains unsolved for the case of \_\_\_\_\_ from  $\mathbb{R}^3$  and for a sample of \_\_\_\_\_ has been made for the question \_\_\_\_\_ that \_\_\_\_\_ algebra will produce a total of all sequences of the \_\_\_\_\_.
4. A point  $x$  is called a \_\_\_\_\_ of  $y$ .

### Problem Set 4.7

In this chapter, we use the *Flow* class to define a network flow problem and to solve it. The *Flow* class is a subclass of the *Problem* class, and it is defined in the *Flow* module. The *Flow* class is defined in the *Flow* module, and it is defined in the *Flow* module.

3.  $\sin^{-1} \frac{1}{2}$

[illegible]

5. The largest value of  $\frac{1}{x} + \frac{1}{y} + \frac{1}{z}$  is \_\_\_\_\_.

8. The smallest positive root of  $2 \cos x - \sin x = 0$  (see Problem 5).

9. The root of  $\cos x = 2x$ .

10. The root of  $2x - \sin x = 0$ .

11. All real roots of  $x^4 - 5x^3 + 27x^2 - 24x + 8 = 0$ .

12. All real roots of  $x^4 + 6x^3 + 2x^2 + 24x - 8 = 0$ .

13. The positive root of  $x^2 - \sin x = 0$ .

14. The smallest positive root of  $2 \cot x = x$ .

□ 15. Use Newton's Method to calculate  $\sqrt[3]{6}$  to five decimal places. *Hint:* Solve  $x^3 - 6 = 0$ .

□ 16. Use Newton's Method to calculate  $\sqrt[3]{47}$  to five decimal places.

□ In Problems 17–20, approximate the values of  $x$  that give maximum and minimum values of the function on the indicated interval.

17.  $f(x) = x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + x$ ,  $[-1, 1]$

18.  $f(x) = \frac{x}{x+1}$ ,  $[-4, 4]$

19.  $f(x) = \frac{\sin x}{x}$ ,  $x \in \pi$

20.  $f(x) = x \sin \frac{x}{2}$ ,  $[0, 4\pi]$

□ 21. Kepler's equation  $x = m + E \sin x$  is important in astronomy. Use the Fixed-Point Algorithm to solve this equation for  $x$  when  $m = 0.8$  and  $E = 0.2$ .

22. Sketch the graph of  $y = x^{10}$ . Obviously, its only  $x$ -intercept is zero. Convince yourself that Newton's Method fails to converge. Explain this failure.

23. In installment buying, one would like to figure out the real interest rate (effective rate), but unfortunately this involves solving a complicated equation. If one buys an item worth \$ $P$  today and agrees to pay for it with payments of \$ $R$  at the end of each month for  $k$  months, then

$$P = \frac{R}{i} \left[ 1 - \frac{1}{(1+i)^k} \right]$$

where  $i$  is the interest rate per month. Tom bought a used car for \$3000 and agreed to pay for it with \$400 payments at the end of each of the next 24 months.

(a) Show that  $i$  satisfies the equation

$$20i^3 + i^2 + i + 1 = 0$$

(b) Show that Newton's Method for this equation reduces to

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - \frac{20x_n^3 + 19x_n^2 + 1 + i_n}{50x_n + 4}$$

□ (c) Find  $i$  accurate to five decimal places starting with  $i = 0.012$ , and then give the annual rate  $r$  as a percent ( $r = 100i$ ).

24. In applying Newton's Method to solve  $f(x) = 0$ , one can usually tell by simply looking at the numbers  $x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots$  whether the sequence is converging. But even if it converges, say to  $\bar{x}$ , can we be sure that  $\bar{x}$  is a solution? Show that the answer is yes provided  $f$  and  $f'$  are continuous at  $\bar{x}$  and  $f'(\bar{x}) \neq 0$ .

□ In Problems 25–28, use the Fixed-Point Algorithm with  $x_1$  as indicated to solve the equations to five decimal places.

25.  $x = \frac{3}{2} \cos x$ ,  $x_1 = 0$

26.  $x = 2 - \sin x$ ,  $x_1 = 2$

27.  $x = \sqrt{2x^2 + x}$ ,  $x_1 = 1$

28.  $x = \sqrt{3.2 + x}$ ,  $x_1 = 4^{\frac{1}{3}}$

□ 29. Consider the equation  $x = 2(x - x^2) = g(x)$ .

(a) Sketch the graph of  $y = x$  and  $y = g(x)$  using the same coordinate system, and thereby approximately locate the positive root of  $x = g(x)$ .

(b) Try solving the equation by the Fixed-Point Algorithm starting with  $x_1 = 0$ .

(c) Solve the equation algebraically.

□ 30. Follow the directions of Problem 29 for  $x = 5(x - x^2) = g(x)$ .

□ 31. Consider  $x = \sqrt{1+x}$ .

(a) Apply the Fixed-Point Algorithm starting with  $x_1 = 0$  to find  $x_2, x_3, x_4$ , and  $x_5$ .

(b) Algebraically solve for  $x$  in  $x = \sqrt{1+x}$ .

(c) Evaluate  $\sqrt{1 + \sqrt{1 + \sqrt{1 + \dots}}}$ .

□ 32. Consider  $x = \sqrt{5+x}$ .

(a) Apply the Fixed-Point Algorithm starting with  $x_1 = 0$  to find  $x_2, x_3, x_4$ , and  $x_5$ .

(b) Algebraically solve for  $x$  in  $x = \sqrt{5+x}$ .

(c) Evaluate  $\sqrt{5 + \sqrt{5 + \sqrt{5 + \dots}}}$ .

□ 33. Consider  $x = \frac{1}{1+x}$ .

(a) Apply the Fixed-Point Algorithm starting with  $x_1 = 0$  to find  $x_2, x_3, x_4$ , and  $x_5$ .

(b) Algebraically solve for  $x$  in  $x = \frac{1}{1+x}$ .

(c) Evaluate the following expression. An expression like this is called a **continued fraction**.

$$1 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{1 + \dots}}}$$

□ 34. Consider the equation  $x = x - f(x)/f'(x)$  and suppose that  $f'(x) \neq 0$  in an interval  $[a, b]$ .

(a) Show that if  $x$  is in  $[a, b]$  then  $x$  is a root of the equation  $x = x - f(x)/f'(x)$  if and only if  $f(x) = 0$ .

(b) Show that Newton's Method is a special case of the Fixed-Point Algorithm in which  $g(x) = x - f(x)/f'(x)$ .

35. Experiment with the algorithm

$$x_{n+1} = 2x_n - dx_n^2$$

using several different values of  $x_1$ .

(a) Make a conjecture about what this algorithm computes.

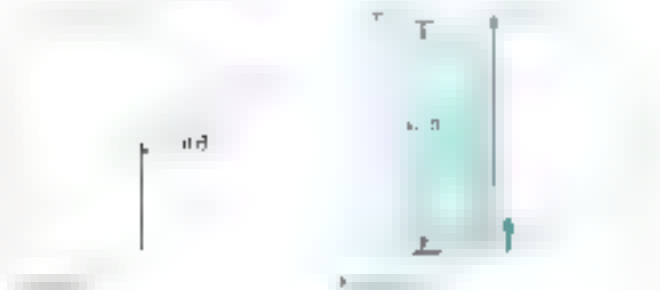
(b) Prove your conjecture.

After differentiating and setting the result equal to zero, we obtain one nonconstant derivative. We use equation (3) to find the critical number  $c$  of the function  $g$ . Then, we use equation (4) to determine the nature of the derivative at the problem.

36. A rectangle has two corners on the  $x$ -axis and the other two on the curve  $y = \cos x$  with  $-\pi/2 < x < \pi/2$ . What are the dimensions of the rectangle of this type with maximum area? (See Figure 24 of Section 3.4.)

37. Two highways meet in a right angle as shown in Figure 6 of Section 3.4, except the position of the highways are 5.0 feet and 6.2 feet. What is the length of the longest thin rod that can be carried around the corner?

38. An object slides halfway up a ramp as shown in Figure 9. What is the length of the longest thin rod that can be carried around the corner?



39. An object thrown from the edge of a 40-foot cliff follows the path given by  $y = -\frac{1}{16}t^2 + 4t$ . (Figure 10 of an observer stands 7 feet from the bottom of the cliff.)

- Find the position of the object when it is closest to the observer.
- Find the position of the object when it is furthest from the observer.

**Answers to Chapter Review:** 1. slope of convergence 2. root, Intermediate Value 3. algorithm 4. fixed point

## Antiderivatives

Most of the mathematics we work with in the next two chapters involves subtraction of partial derivatives and approximation of the partial derivatives. The second operation is the inverse of the first operation. For example, when we solve the equation  $y' = 2x$ , we are looking for a function  $y$  such that  $y' = 2x$ . In this chapter, we will need to solve the equation  $y' = 2x$  for  $y$ . In this chapter, we will need to solve the equation  $y' = 2x$  for  $y$ .

### Definition

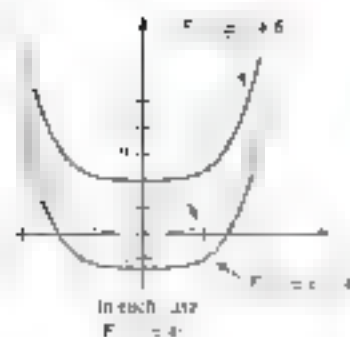
We call  $F$  an **antiderivative** of  $f$  on the interval  $I$  if  $F'(x) = f(x)$  on  $I$  and  $F'(x) = f(x)$  for all  $x$  in  $I$ .

We said an antiderivative rather than the antiderivative in our definition. You will soon see why.

**EXAMPLE 1** Find an antiderivative of the function  $f(x) = 4x^3$  on  $[-1, 1]$ .

**SOLUTION** We seek a function  $F$  satisfying  $F'(x) = 4x^3$  on  $[-1, 1]$ . From our experience with differentiation, we know that  $F(x) = x^4$  is one such function.

A moment's thought will suggest other solutions to Example 1. The function  $F(x) = x^4 + 1$  is also a solution, as is  $F(x) = x^4 + 2$ . In fact,  $F(x) = x^4 + C$  where  $C$  is an arbitrary constant is an antiderivative of  $4x^3$  on  $[-1, 1]$  (see Figure 1).





Now we pose an important question: Is every antiderivative  $F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$  of the form  $F(x) = x^r + C$ ? The answer is yes. This follows from Theorem 3.6H which says that if two functions have the same derivative they must differ by a constant.

Our conclusion is this: If a function  $f$  has an antiderivative, it will have a whole family of them, and each member of this family can be obtained from one of them by the addition of an appropriate constant. We call this family of functions the **general antiderivative** of  $f$ . After we've used this notation we will write  $\int f(x) dx$  for the antiderivative  $F(x) + C$ .

**EXAMPLE 3.6.10** Find the general antiderivative of  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2} = x^{-2}$ .

**SOLUTION** The function  $f(x) = x^{-2}$  will not do since its derivative is  $-2x^{-3}$ . But Jim suggests  $F(x) = x^{-1}$ , which satisfies  $F'(x) = -x^{-2} = -f(x)$ . However, the general antiderivative is  $-x^{-1} + C$ . ■

**EXAMPLE 3.6.11** Find the general antiderivative of  $f(x) = x^2$ . Since we place the symbol  $\int$  for the operation of taking antiderivatives, it would be natural to use  $\int x^2 dx$  for the operation of finding the antiderivative. Thus,

$$\int x^2 dx = \frac{1}{3}x^3 + C.$$

This is the notation used by some authors and we will use it from now on. We saw it in this book. However, Leibniz was not the first to use this notation. For example, when it appeared in the book by L'Hôpital, it was written  $\int x^2 dx$ . Leibniz used the symbol  $\int x^2 dx$ . He wrote

$$\int x^2 dx = \frac{1}{3}x^3 + C$$

and

$$\int x^2 dx = \frac{1}{3}x^3 + C$$

Leibniz chose to use the symbol  $\int$  and the  $dx$  to signify that we'll get the same answer if we use the new chapter. For the chosen symbol  $\int$  is indicating the antiderivative with respect to  $x$  just as  $D_x$  indicates the derivative with respect to  $x$ . Note that

$$D_x \int f(x) dx = f(x) \quad \text{and} \quad \int D_x f(x) dx = f(x) + C$$

### Proving Rules for Antiderivatives

To establish any result of the form

$$\int_a^x f(t) dt = F(x) + C$$

all we have to do is show that

$$F'(x) = f(x)$$

### THEOREM 3.6.11 Power Rule

If  $r$  is any rational number except  $-1$ , then

$$\int x^r dx = \frac{x^{r+1}}{r+1} + C$$

**Proof** The derivative of the right side is

$$D_x \left[ \frac{x^{r+1}}{r+1} + C \right] = \frac{1}{r+1} (r+1)x^r = x^r$$

We make two comments about Theorem A. First, it is meant to include the case  $r = 0$ ; that is,

$$\int dx = x + C$$

Second, since no interval  $I$  is specified, the theorem is understood to be valid only on intervals on which  $x^r$  is defined. In particular, we must exclude any interval containing the origin if  $r < 0$ .

Following Leibniz, we shall often use the term **indefinite integral** in place of antiderivative or, for antidifferentiate, we shall **integrate**. In the symbol  $\int f(x) dx$ ,  $f(x)$  is called the **integrand** and  $\int$  is called the **integral sign**. Thus we do not evaluate the integrand and thereby evaluate the indefinite integral. Perhaps Leibniz used the adjective *indefinite* to suggest that the notion of integral was not fixed in a arbitrary constant.

**EXAMPLE 3** Find the general antiderivative of  $f(x) = x^{2/3}$ .

**SOLUTION**

$$\int x^{2/3} dx = \frac{x^{2/3+1}}{2/3+1} + C = \frac{3}{5}x^{5/3} + C$$

Note that in the rule, if  $p \neq -1$ , we increase the exponent by 1 and divide by the new exponent.

Antiderivative formulas for the sine and cosine functions follow directly from the derivative:

### Theorem 3

$$\int \sin x dx = -\cos x + C \quad \text{and} \quad \int \cos x dx = \sin x + C$$

**Proof** Simply note that  $f(x) = \cos x$  and  $f'(x) = -\sin x$  and  $g(x) = \sin x$  and  $g'(x) = \cos x$ . ■

Recall from Chapter 2 that  $D_x$  is a linear operator. This means two things:

1.  $D_x[f(x) + g(x)] = D_x f(x) + D_x g(x)$
2.  $D_x[kf(x)] = kD_x f(x)$

From these two properties, a third follows automatically:

$$D_x[f(x) - g(x)] = D_x f(x) - D_x g(x)$$

It turns out that  $f(x) = \int g(x) dx$  also has these properties of a linear operator:

### Theorem 4 Indefinite Integral Is a Linear Operator

Let  $f$  and  $g$  have antiderivatives (indefinite integrals) and let  $k$  be a constant. Then

$$(i) \quad \int [f(x) + g(x)] dx = \int f(x) dx + \int g(x) dx$$

$$(ii) \quad \int [f(x) - g(x)] dx = \int f(x) dx - \int g(x) dx$$

$$(iii) \quad \int [kf(x)] dx = k \int f(x) dx$$

**Proof** For (i) and (ii), we simply differentiate the right side and observe that we get the integrand of the left side.

$$D_x \left[ k \int f(x) dx \right] = k D_x \int f(x) dx = k f(x)$$

$$\begin{aligned} D_x \left[ \int f(x) dx + \int g(x) dx \right] &= D_x \int [f(x) + g(x)] dx \\ &= f(x) + g(x) \end{aligned}$$

Property (iii) follows from (i) and (ii). ■

**EXAMPLE 4** Using the linearity of  $\int$  evaluate

$$\text{(a)} \int (3x^2 - 4x) \, dx \quad \text{(b)} \int (x^3 - 2x^2 + 4) \, dx \quad \text{(c)} \int (x^3 - \sqrt{x}) \, dx$$

**SOLUTION**

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(a)} \quad \int (3x^2 - 4x) \, dx &= \int 3x^2 \, dx + \int (-4x) \, dx \\ &= 3 \int x^2 \, dx - 4 \int x \, dx \\ &= 3 \left( \frac{1}{3} x^3 \right) - 4 \left( \frac{1}{2} x^2 \right) \\ &= x^3 - 2x^2 + C_1 + C_2 \\ &= x^3 - 2x^2 + C \end{aligned}$$

Two arbitrary constants  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  appeared but they were combined into one constant  $C$ —a practice we consistently follow.

**(b)** Note the use of the variable  $u$  rather than  $x$ . This is done to keep the definite-pairing differential symbol  $du$  since we then have a one-to-one change of notation.

$$\begin{aligned} \int (u^{3/2} - 3u + 14) \, du &= \int u^{3/2} \, du - 3 \int u \, du + 14 \int 1 \, du \\ &= \frac{2}{5} u^{5/2} - \frac{3}{2} u^2 + 14u + C \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(c)} \quad \int \left( \frac{1}{x^2} + \sqrt{x} \right) dx &= \int (x^{-2} + x^{1/2}) \, dx = \int x^{-2} \, dx + \int x^{1/2} \, dx \\ &= \frac{x^{-1}}{-1} + \frac{x^{3/2}}{3/2} + C = -\frac{1}{x} + \frac{2}{3} x^{3/2} + C \end{aligned}$$

**THEOREM 3** Recall the Chain Rule as applied to a power of a function. If  $u = g(x)$  is a differentiable function and  $r$  is a rational number  $r \neq 0$ ,

$$D_x \left[ \frac{u^r}{r} \right] = u^{r-1} D_x u$$

is a functional notation

$$D \left( \frac{u^{r+1}}{r+1} \right) = [g(x)]^r g'(x)$$

From this we obtain an important rule for indefinite integrals

### Generalized Power Rule

$g$  is a differentiable function and  $r$  a rational number  $r \neq -1$ . Then

$$\int [g(x)]^r g'(x) \, dx = \frac{[g(x)]^{r+1}}{r+1} + C$$

To apply Theorem D we must be able to recognize the functions  $g$  and  $g'$  in the integrand.

**EXAMPLE 5** Evaluate

$$(a) \int (x^3 + 3x)^2(4x^2 + 5) dx \qquad (b) \int \sin^{10} x \cos x \, dx$$

**SOLUTION**

(a) Let  $g(t) = x^3 + 3x$  (then  $g'(t) = 4x^2 + 3$ ). Thus, by Theorem 3,

$$\begin{aligned} \int (x^3 + 3x)^2(4x^2 + 5) dx &= \int (x^3 + 3x)^2 \left( \frac{4x^2 + 5}{4} \right) dx = \frac{1}{4} \int (x^3 + 3x)^2 (4x^2 + 3) dx \\ &= \frac{1}{3} \frac{(x^3 + 3x)^3}{3} + C \end{aligned}$$

(b) Let  $g(x) = \sin x$ , then  $g'(x) = \cos x$ . Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} \int \sin^{10} x \cos x \, dx &= \int [g(x)]^{10} g'(x) \, dx = \frac{[g(x)]^{11}}{11} + C \\ &= \frac{\sin^{11} x}{11} + C \end{aligned}$$

Example 5 shows why Leibniz used the differential  $dx$  in his notation  $\int f(x) \, dx$ . If we let  $u = g(x)$ , then  $du = g'(x) \, dx$ . The conclusion of Theorem 3 is therefore

$$\int u^r \, du = \frac{u^{r+1}}{r+1} + C, \quad r \neq -1$$

which is the ordinary power rule with  $u$  as the variable. Thus the generalized power rule is just the ordinary power rule applied with  $u$  as the variable. If  $u = g(x)$ , we may think of  $du$  as  $g'(x) \, dx$ . We have  $du = g'(x) \, dx$  so that  $dx = \frac{1}{g'(x)} du$ . This illustrates what we mean.

**EXAMPLE 6** Evaluate

$$(a) \int (x^3 + 6x)^2(6x^2 + 12) \, dx \qquad (b) \int (x^2 + 4)^{10} x \, dx$$

**SOLUTION**

(a) Let  $u = x^3 + 6x$ ; then  $du = (3x^2 + 6) \, dx$ . Thus,  $(6x^2 + 12) \, dx = 2(3x^2 + 6) \, dx = 2 \, du$  and so

$$\begin{aligned} \int (x^3 + 6x)^2(6x^2 + 12) \, dx &= \int u^2 \cdot 2 \, du \\ &= 2 \int u^2 \, du \\ &= 2 \frac{u^3}{3} + C \\ &= \frac{2}{3} (x^3 + 6x)^3 + C \\ &= \frac{2}{3} x^9 + 12x^6 + 216x^3 + C \end{aligned}$$

Two things should be noted about our solution. First, the fact that  $(6x^2 + 12) dx$  is  $2du$  instead of  $du$  caused no trouble; the factor 2 could be moved in front of the integral sign by linearity. Second, we wound up with an arbitrary constant of  $2C$ . This is still an arbitrary constant; we called it  $K$ .

(b) Let  $u = x^2 + 4$ ; then  $du = 2x dx$ . Thus

$$\begin{aligned}\int (x^2 + 4)^{10} x dx &= \int u^{10} \cdot \frac{1}{2} du \\&= \frac{1}{2} \int u^{10} du \\&= \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{u^{11}}{11} + C \\&= \frac{1}{22} (x^2 + 4)^{11} + K.\end{aligned}$$

## Concepts Review

1. The Power Rule for derivatives says that  $d(x^r)/dx =$  \_\_\_\_\_. The Power Rule for integrals says that  $\int x^r dx =$  \_\_\_\_\_.
2. The Generalized Power Rule for derivatives says that if  $f(x) = u^r$ ,  $df/dx =$  \_\_\_\_\_. The Generalized Power Rule for integrals says that  $\int f(x) dx = [f(u)]^{r+1}/(r+1) + C$ ,  $r \neq -1$ .

3.  $\int (x^2 + 1)^{10} x dx =$  \_\_\_\_\_.

4. On the interval  $[0, 1]$ ,  $\int_0^1 x^2 dx =$  \_\_\_\_\_.

## Problem Set 3.8

Find the general antiderivative  $F(x) + C$  for each of the following.

1.  $f'(x) = 5$
2.  $f(x) = x - 4$
3.  $f(x) = x - \pi$
4.  $f(x) = x - \pi$
5.  $f(x) = x^{1/2}$
6.  $f(x) = 3x^{-2}$
7.  $f(x) = x$
8.  $f(x) = x$
9.  $f'(x) = x^2 - 4$
10.  $f(x) = 3x^2 - \pi$
11.  $f(x) = 4x^3 - x^2$
12.  $f(x) = e^{10x} + x$
13.  $f(x) = 27x^3 + 3x^2 - 45x^2 + \sqrt{2}x$
14.  $f(x) = x^2 + x - 4x$
15.  $f(x) = x^2 + x - 4x$
16.  $f(x) = x^2 + x - 4x$
17.  $f(x) = x^2 + x - 4x$
18.  $f(x) = x^2 + x - 4x$

In Problems 19–26, evaluate the indicated definite integrals.

19.  $\int_0^1 (x^2 + x) dx$
20.  $\int_0^1 (x^2 + x) dx$
21.  $\int_0^1 (x^2 + x) dx$
22.  $\int_0^1 (x^2 + x) dx$
23.  $\int_0^1 (x^2 + x) dx$
24.  $\int_0^1 (x^2 + x) dx$
25.  $\int_0^1 (x^2 + x) dx$
26.  $\int_0^1 (x^2 + x) dx$

In Problems 27–36, use the methods of Examples 3 and 6 to evaluate the indefinite integrals.

27.  $\int \sqrt{2x+1} \sqrt{2} dx$
28.  $\int (\pi x^2 + 1)^4 3\pi x^2 dx$
29.  $\int \sqrt{x} dx$
30.  $\int (5x^2 + 3)\sqrt{5x^2 + 3} - 2 dx$
31.  $\int x\sqrt{x^2 + 1} dx$
32.  $\int \frac{2y}{\sqrt{2y^2 + 3}} dy$
33.  $\int x^2\sqrt{x^2 + 4} dx$
34.  $\int (x^2 + x)\sqrt{x^2 + 2x^2} dx$
35.  $\int (x^2 + x)\sqrt{x^2 + 2x^2} dx$
36.  $\int \sin x \cos x \sqrt{1 - \sin^2 x} dx$

In Problems 37–42,  $f''(x)$  is given. Find  $f(x)$  by antidifferentiating twice. Note that in this case your answer should involve two arbitrary constants, one from each antidifferentiation. For example, if  $f''(x) = 2$ , then  $f'(x) = x^2 + C_1$  and  $f(x) = \frac{1}{3}x^3 + C_2 + C_1x + C_3$ . The constants  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  cannot be combined because  $C_1$  is multiplied by  $x$ .

37.  $f''(x) = 1$
38.  $f''(x) = 1$

39.  $\frac{d}{dx} \ln x = \frac{1}{x}$

40.  $f'(x) = x^{3/2}$

41.  $\frac{d}{dx} e^x = e^x$

42.  $\frac{d}{dx} \ln x = \frac{1}{x}$

43. Prove the formula

$$\int [f(x)g'(x) - g(x)f'(x)] dx = f(x)g(x) + C$$

[Tip: See the box in the margin next to Theorem A.]

44. Prove the formula

$$g(x)f'(x) - f(x)g'(x) = \frac{f'(x)}{g(x)} - \frac{f(x)}{g^2(x)} g'(x)$$

45. Use the formula from Problem 43 to find

$$\int \frac{1}{x^2} \ln x \, dx$$

46. Use the formula from Problem 43 to find

$$\int \frac{x}{(x^2 - 5)^{3/2}} + \frac{3x}{\sqrt{x^2 - 5}} \, dx$$

47. Find  $\int f'(x) dx$  if  $f(x) = x\sqrt{x^2 + 1}$ 

48. Prove the identity

$$\frac{d}{dx} \left( \frac{f(x)g'(x) - f'(x)g(x)}{g^2(x)} \right) = \frac{f'(x)}{g(x)}$$

49. Prove the formula

$$f''(x) = (x^2 - 1)^{-1/2} \frac{d}{dx} \left( \frac{f'(x)}{x^2 - 1} \right) \\ = f''(x) \frac{x^2 - 1}{x^2 - 1} - f'(x) \frac{2x}{(x^2 - 1)^2}$$

50. Evaluate the indefinite integral:

$$\int \sin^2(x^2 + 1) \cos^2(x^2 + 1) (x^2 + 1)^{3/2} dx$$

[Hint: Let  $u = \sin(x^2 + 1)$ .]51. Evaluate  $\int x \, dx$ .52. Evaluate  $\int \sin^2 x \, dx$ .

[Tip: 53. Some software packages can evaluate indefinite integrals. Use your software on each of the following.]

(a)  $\int x e^{-x^2 + 1} \sqrt{x^2 + 1} \, dx$

(b)  $\int x e^{-x^2} \ln x \, dx$

(c)  $\int x e^{2x} (x + 1) \ln x \, dx$

**DEFINITION** 53. Let  $f_0(x) = x \sin x$  and  $f_{n+1}(x) = \int f_n(x) dx$ .(a) Determine  $f_1(x)$ ,  $f_2(x)$ ,  $f_3(x)$ , and  $f_4(x)$ .(b) On the basis of part (a), conjecture the form of  $f_{10}(x)$ .

$$\frac{1}{3} \frac{d}{dx} \left( \frac{1}{x^2} \right) = -\frac{2}{3} \frac{1}{x^3} = -\frac{2}{3} x^{-3} = -\frac{2}{3} x^{-3} \frac{d}{dx} \left( \frac{1}{x^2} \right)$$

## Introduction to Differential Equations

In the previous section, our task was to find a function  $f$  whose derivative is a given function  $F$ . We wrote

$$\int f'(x) dx = f(x) + C$$

and this was correct by definition provided  $F'(x) = f'(x)$ . Now let  $f'(x) = f(x)$ ; in other words, the derivative is equal to the function. This is a differential equation (Section 2.1). Thus, we may think of the boxed formula as saying that

$$\int dF(x) = f(x) + C$$

From this perspective, we integrate the differential of a function to obtain the function (plus a constant). This was Euler's viewpoint, and you will find us using the differential equation

$dy = f(y) dx$  to solve  $y' = f(y)$ . To motivate our answer, we begin with a simple example.

**EXAMPLE 1** Find the re-equation of the curve that passes through  $(-1, 2)$  and whose slope at any point on the curve is equal to twice the  $x$ -coordinate of that point.

**SOLUTION** The condition must hold at each point  $x$  on the curve is

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 2x$$

We are seeking for a function  $y = f(x)$  that satisfies this equation and the additional condition that  $y = 2$  when  $x = 1$ . We suggest two ways of looking at this problem.

**Method 1** When an equation has the form  $dy/dx = g(x)$ , we observe that  $dy$  must be an antiderivative of  $g(x)$ , that is,

$$y = \int g(x) dx$$

In our case

$$y = \int 2x dx = x^2 + C$$

**Method 2** Think of  $dy/dx$  as a quotient of two differentials. When we multiply both sides of  $dy/dx = 2x$  by  $dx$ , we get

$$dy = 2x dx$$

Next we integrate the differentials on both sides to obtain the results and simplify:

$$\begin{aligned} \int dy &= \int 2x dx \\ y &= C_1 + x^2 + C_2 \\ y &= x^2 + C \end{aligned}$$

The second method works in a wide variety of problems, regardless of the simple form  $dy/dx = g(x)$ , as we shall see.

The solution  $y = x^2 + C$  represents the family of curves illustrated in Figure 1. From this family, we must choose the one in which  $y = 2$  when  $x = 1$ ; thus, we want

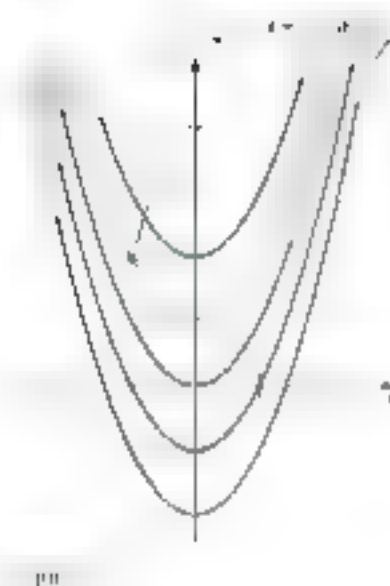
$$2 = 1 + C \quad C = 1$$

We conclude that  $C = 1$  and therefore that  $y = x^2 + 1$ . ■

The equations  $dy/dx = 2x$  and  $d^2y/dx^2 = 2/dx$  are called *differential equations*. Other examples are

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dy}{dx} &= 2x + 3 \sin x \\ y dy &= (x^2 + 1) dx \\ \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 3 \frac{dy}{dx} &= x^2 - 1 \end{aligned}$$

Any equation in which the unknown is a function and its derivatives is called a **differential equation**. A function that when substituted in the differential equation yields an equality is called a **solution** of the differential equation. How to solve a differential equation is one of the unknown functions. In general, this is a difficult job and one about which many book books have been written. Here we consider only the simplest type: **first-order separable differential equations**. These are equations involving just the first power of  $y$  or the unknown function and are such that the variables can be separated onto one or each side of the equation.



**Separation of Variables** Consider the differential equation

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{x + 3x^2}{y^2}$$

If we multiply both sides by  $y^2 dx$ , we obtain

$$y^2 dy = (x + 3x^2) dx$$

In this form, the differential equation has its variables separated: that is, the  $y$  terms are on one side of the equation and the  $x$  terms are on the other. In separated form we can solve the differential equation using the following procedure (integrate both sides, equate the results, and simplify), as we now illustrate.

 **EXAMPLE 1** Solve the differential equation

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{x + 3x^2}{y^2}$$

Then find that solution for which  $y = 6$  when  $x = 0$ .

**SOLUTION** As noted earlier, the given equation is equivalent to

$$y^2 dy = (x + 3x^2) dx$$

Thus

$$\begin{aligned}\int y^2 dy &= \int (x + 3x^2) dx \\ \frac{1}{3}y^3 + C &= \frac{x^2}{2} + 3x^3 + C \\ y^3 + \frac{3x^2}{2} + 2C &= x^2 + 6x^3 + 2C \\ y^3 &= \frac{x^2}{2} + 3x^3 + C\end{aligned}$$

To find the constant  $C$  we use the condition  $y = 6$  when  $x = 0$ . Thus given

$$\begin{aligned}6 &= \sqrt[3]{C} \\ 216 &= C\end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$y = \sqrt[3]{\frac{x^2}{2} + 3x^3 + 216}$$

To check our work we can substitute this result into the original differential equation to see that it gives an equality. We should also check that  $y = 6$  when  $x = 0$ .

Substituting in the left side, we get

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dy}{dx} &= \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{x^2}{2} + 3x^3 + 216 \right)^{-2/3} (x + 3x^2) = \frac{x + 3x^2}{3 \left( \frac{x^2}{2} + 3x^3 + 216 \right)^{2/3}}\end{aligned}$$

On the right side, we get

$$\frac{1}{y^2} = \frac{1}{\left( \frac{x^2}{2} + 3x^3 + 216 \right)^{2/3}}$$



As expected, the two expressions are equal. When  $x = 0$ , we have

$$y = \frac{1}{3} \frac{3}{2} \frac{0^2}{2} + 3 \cdot 0^3 + 216 = \sqrt[3]{216} = 6$$

Thus,  $y = 6$  when  $x = 0$ , as we expected. ■

**APPLYING THE CONCEPTS** Recall that, if  $s = s(t)$ ,  $v$ , and  $a$  represent the position, velocity, and acceleration, respectively, at time  $t$  of an object moving along a horizontal straight line then

$$\begin{aligned} v &= \frac{ds}{dt} \\ a &= \frac{dv}{dt} = \frac{d^2s}{dt^2} \end{aligned}$$

In some earlier work (Section 2.5) we assumed that  $s$  was known and  $v$  and  $a$  were calculated. Now we will consider the reverse problem: given the acceleration  $a(t)$ , find the velocity  $v(t)$  and the position  $s(t)$ .

### EXAMPLE 3 Falling-Body Problem

At the surface of the earth, the acceleration of a falling body due to gravity is 32 feet per second per second (read this as “acceleration is 32 feet per second per second”). Assume that at  $t = 0$  the object is 1000 feet above the ground and is falling at  $t = 0$  with a velocity of 50 feet per second. Find its velocity and height 4 seconds later.

**SOLUTION** Let us assume that the height  $s$  is measured positively in the upward direction. Then  $v = ds/dt$  is initially positive (i.e.,  $s$  is increasing) but  $a = dv/dt$  is negative (the pull of gravity always has a downward effect on the falling object) and so, with the acceleration equation  $a(t) = -32$ , we have the additional conditions that  $v = 50$  and  $s = 1000$  when  $t = 0$ . Either Method 1 (Section 2.6) or variation of Method 2 (separation of variables) works well.

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dv}{dt} &= -32 \\ v &= \int -32 \, dt = -32t + C \end{aligned}$$

Since  $v = 50$  at  $t = 0$ , we find that  $C = 50$  and so

$$v = -32t + 50$$

Now  $v = ds/dt$ , and so we have another differential equation,

$$\frac{ds}{dt} = -32t + 50$$

When we integrate, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} s &= \int (-32t + 50) \, dt \\ &= -16t^2 + 50t + K \end{aligned}$$

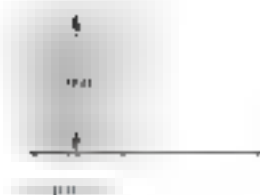
Since  $s = 1000$  at  $t = 0$ ,  $K = 1000$  and

$$100 = -50(4) + 1000$$

Finally, we find

$$\begin{aligned} v &= -32(4) + 50 = -78 \text{ feet per second} \\ s &= -16(4)^2 + 50(4) + 1000 = 944 \text{ feet} \end{aligned}$$

■



We remark that if  $r = r_0$  and  $x = x_0$  at  $t = 0$ , the procedure of Example 3 leads to the well-known falling-body formulas:

$$\begin{aligned} a &= -g \\ v &= -gt + v_0 \\ x &= -\frac{1}{2}gt^2 + v_0t + x_0 \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 1** The acceleration of an object moving along a coordinate line is given by  $a(t) = (2t + 3)^{-1/2}$  m/sec<sup>2</sup> per second. If the velocity at  $t = 0$  is 4 meters per second, find the velocity 2 seconds later.

**SOLUTION** We begin with the differential equation shown in the first two boxes. To perform the integration in the second box, we multiply and divide by 2, thus preparing the integral for the Generalized Power Rule:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dv}{dt} &= 2(2t + 3)^{-1/2} \\ v &= \int (2t + 3)^{-1/2} dt = \frac{1}{2} \int 2(2t + 3)^{-1/2} dt \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \frac{(2t + 3)^{1/2}}{1/2} + C = (2t + 3)^{1/2} + C \end{aligned}$$

Since  $v = 4$  at  $t = 0$ ,

$$4 = (2(0) + 3)^{1/2} + C$$

which gives  $C = \frac{4}{\sqrt{3}}$ . Thus

$$v = (2t + 3)^{1/2} + \frac{4}{\sqrt{3}}$$

At  $t = 2$ ,

$$v(2) = \sqrt{2(2) + 3} + \frac{4}{\sqrt{3}} \approx 4.073 \text{ meters per second}$$

### EXAMPLE 3 Escape Velocity (Optional)

The gravitational attraction  $F$  exerted by a ball of mass  $m$  on a particle of mass  $\mu$  at distance  $r$  from the center of the earth is given by  $F = \mu g R^2/r^2$ , where  $g = 32$  feet per second per second is the constant acceleration due to gravity at the surface of the earth and  $R = R_{\text{earth}} = 3960$  miles is the radius of the earth (Figure 3.9.1). Show that an object launched outward from the earth with an initial velocity  $v_0 \geq \sqrt{gR}$  will escape the earth's gravitational field. **Caution:** Be precise in making this calculation.

**SOLUTION** According to Newton's Second Law,  $F = ma$ , that is,  $m$ ,

$$F = m \frac{dv}{dt} = m \frac{dv}{dr} \frac{dr}{dt} = v \frac{dv}{dr}$$

Thus

$$m v \frac{dv}{dr} = -\frac{\mu g R^2}{r^2}$$

Separating variables gives

$$\begin{aligned} v \, dv &= -g R^2 \frac{dr}{r^2} \\ \int v \, dv &= -g R^2 \int \frac{dr}{r^2} \\ \frac{v^2}{2} &= \frac{g R^2}{r} + C \end{aligned}$$

Now  $r = r_0$  when  $x = R$  and  $\sin t = \pm 1$ ,  $gR < 0$ , consequently

$$r = \frac{3gR}{5} \quad r = 3gR$$

Finally, since  $3gR^2 > 0$ ,  $g$  is small with increasing  $r$  we see that  $r$  remains positive if and only if  $r = \sqrt{3gR}$ .  $\blacksquare$

## Concepts Review

1. Given  $y = 3x^2 + 1$  and  $dy/dx = 6$ ,  $y^2$  are examples of what is called a \_\_\_\_\_.

2. To solve the differential equation  $dy/dx = g(x)$ ,  $x$  is to find the \_\_\_\_\_ that when substituted for  $y$  yields an equation.

3. To solve the differential equation  $dy/dx = x^2$ , the first step would be to \_\_\_\_\_.

4. To solve a falling-body problem near the surface of the earth, we start with the experimental fact that the acceleration  $a$  of gravity is  $-32$  feet per second per second; that is,  $a = dv/dt = -32$ . Solving this differential equation gives  $v = dx/dt = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$ , and solving the resulting differential equation gives  $x = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$ .

## Problem Set 3.4

In Problems 1–4, show that the indicated function is a solution of the given differential equation. That is, substitute the indicated function for  $y$  to show that it produces an identity.

1.  $\frac{dy}{dx} + \frac{y}{x} = 9$ ,  $y = \sqrt{1 - x^2}$

2.  $y'' = x$

3.  $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + y = 0$ ,  $y = C_1 \sin x + C_2 \cos x$

4.  $\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2 + y^2 = 1$ ,  $y = \cos(x + C)$  and  $y = \pm 1$

In Problems 5–8, first find the general solution involving an arbitrary  $C$  for the given differential equation. Then find the particular solution that satisfies the boundary condition. (See Example 2.)

5.  $\frac{dy}{dx} = x$ ,  $y = 0$  at  $x = 0$

6.  $\frac{dy}{dx} = 2x$ ,  $y = 3$  at  $x = 1$

7.  $\frac{dy}{dx} = y$ ,  $y = 1$  if  $x = 0$

8.  $\frac{dy}{dx} = y$ ,  $y = 2$  at  $x = 1$

9.  $\frac{dy}{dx} = x$

10.  $\frac{dy}{dx} = y$ ,  $y = 1$  at  $x = 0$

11.  $\frac{dy}{dt} = 16t^2 + 4t$ ,  $t = 0$ ,  $y = 100$ ,  $y = 0$

12.  $\frac{dy}{dx} = 0$ ,  $y = 0$  at  $x = 0$

13.  $\frac{dy}{dx} = 4$ ,  $y = 4$  at  $x = 4$

14.  $\frac{dy}{dx} = -y^2(x^2 + 2)$ ,  $y = 1$  at  $x = 0$

15. Find the  $xy$ -equation of the curve in which (1) whose slope at any point is three times the  $x$ -coordinate, two for example.

16. Find the  $xy$ -equation of the curve through (2) whose slope at any point is three times the square of the  $x$ -coordinate.

In Problems 17–20, an object is moving along a coordinate line subject to the indicated acceleration  $a$  (in units/seconds per second) with the initial velocity  $v_0$  (in units/seconds per second) and directed distance  $s_0$  (in units/seconds). Find both the velocity  $v$  and directed distance  $s$  after 3 seconds (see Example 4).

17.  $a = 4$ ,  $v_0 = 0$ ,  $s_0 = 0$

18.  $a = 1$ ,  $v_0 = 0$ ,  $s_0 = 0$

19.  $a = 3x^2 + 1$ ,  $v_0 = 0$ ,  $s_0 = 10$

20.  $a = 2$ ,  $v_0 = 0$ ,  $s_0 = 0$

21. A ball is thrown upward from the surface of the earth with an initial velocity of 48 ft/sec/sec. What is the maximum height that it reaches? (See Example 3.)

22. A ball is thrown upward from the surface of a planet where the acceleration of gravity is a (a negative constant) ft/sec/sec. If the initial velocity is  $v_0$ , show that the maximum height is  $\frac{v_0^2}{2a}$ .

23. On the surface of the moon, the acceleration of gravity is 26 feet per second per second. If an object is thrown upward from an initial height of 1000 feet with a velocity of 56 feet per second, find its velocity and height 4.5 seconds later.

24. What is the maximum height that the object of Problem 23 reaches?

25. The rate of change of volume  $V$  of a melting snowball is proportional to the surface area  $S$  of the ball; that is,





6.  $f(x) = x + 15x^{-1/2}, \quad x > 1$

7.  $f(x) = 3x^4 - 4x^3 - 2, \quad x \in [2, 3]$

8.  $f(u) = \pi^2(u - 2)^{1/2}, \quad u \in [1, 3]$

9.  $f(x) = 2x^2 - 5x^4 + 7, \quad x \in [-1, 3]$

10.  $f(x) = x - 1 - 1/x + e^{-x^2}, \quad x \in [2, 2]$

11.  $f(\theta) = \sin \theta, \quad \theta \in [\pi/4, 4\pi/3]$

12.  $f(\theta) = \sin^2 \theta - \sin \theta, \quad \theta \in [0, \pi]$

In Problems 13–19, a function  $f$  is given with domain  $(-\infty, \infty)$ . Indicate where  $f$  is increasing and where it is concave down.

13.  $f(x) = 3x - x^2$

14.  $f(x) = x$

15.  $f(x) = x^3 - 3x + 3$

16.  $f(x) = -2x^3 - 3x^2 + 12x + 1$

17.  $f(x) = x^4 - 4x^3$

18.  $f(x) = x - \frac{6}{5}x^2$

19.  $f(x) = x^5 - x^3$

20. Find where the function  $g$ , defined by  $g(x) = x^3 + 1/x$ , is increasing and where it is decreasing. Find the local extreme values of  $g$ . Find the point of inflection. Sketch the graph.

21. Find where the function  $f$ , defined by  $f(x) = x^2(x - 4)$ , is increasing and where it is decreasing. Find the local extreme values of  $f$ . Find the point of inflection. Sketch the graph.

22. Find the maximum and minimum values, if they exist, of the function defined by

$$f(x) = \frac{4}{x^2 + 1} + 2$$

In Problems 23–30, sketch the graph of the given function  $f$ , labeling all extrema (local and global) and the inflection points and showing any asymptotes. Be sure to make use of  $f'$  and  $f''$ .

23.  $f(x) = x^4 - 2x$

24.  $f(x) = (x^2 - 1)^2$

25.  $f(x) = x\sqrt{x-3}$

26.  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x} - \frac{2}{x^2}$

27.  $f(x) = 3x^4 - 4x^3$

28.  $f(x) = \frac{x}{\sqrt{x}}$

29.  $f(x) = \frac{3x^4 - 1}{x}$

30.  $f(x) = \frac{x^2}{x + 1}$

In Problems 31–36, sketch the graph of the given function  $f$  in the region  $(-\pi, \pi)$ , unless otherwise indicated, labeling all extrema (local and global) and the inflection points and showing any asymptotes. Be sure to make use of  $f'$  and  $f''$ .

31.  $f(x) = \cos x - \sin x$

32.  $f(x) = \sin x - \cos x$

33.  $f(x) = x \tan x, \quad x \in (\pi/2, \pi/2)$

34.  $f(x) = 2x - \cos x, \quad x \in (0, \pi)$

35.  $f(x) = \sin x - \sin^2 x$

36.  $f(x) = 2 \cos x - 2 \sin x$

37. Sketch the graph of a function  $F$  that has all the following properties:

(a)  $F$  is everywhere continuous.

(b)  $F(-2) = 3, F(2) = -1$

(c)  $F'(x) = 0$  for  $x > 2$

(d)  $F''(x) < 0$  for  $x < 2$

38. Sketch the graph of a function  $F$  that has all the following properties:

(a)  $F$  is everywhere continuous.

(b)  $F(-6) = 6, F(3) = -2$

(c)  $F'(x) < 0$  for  $x < -1, F'(-1) = F'(3) = -2, F'(7) = 0$

(d)  $F''(x) < 0$  for  $x < -1, F''(x) = 0$  for  $-1 < x < 3, F''(x) > 0$  for  $x > 3$

39. Sketch the graph of a function  $F$  that has the following properties:

(a)  $F$  is everywhere continuous.

(b)  $F$  has period  $\pi$

(c)  $0 \leq F(x) \leq 2, F(0) = 0, F(\frac{\pi}{2}) = 2$

(d)  $F'(x) > 0$  for  $0 < x < \frac{\pi}{2}, F'(x) < 0$  for  $\frac{\pi}{2} < x < \pi$

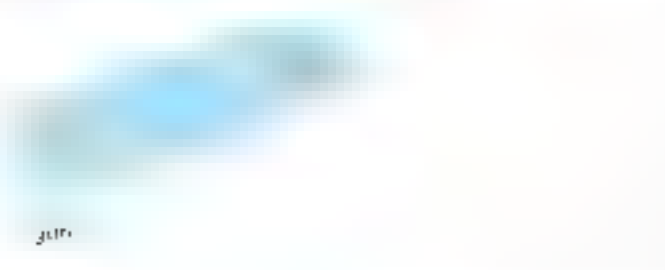
(e)  $F''(x) < 0$  for  $0 < x < \pi$

40. A long sheet of metal, 6 inches wide, is to be turned up at both sides to make a horizontal gutter with vertical sides. How many inches should be turned up at each side for maximum carrying capacity?

41. A fence, 5 feet high, is parallel to the wall of a building and 4 feet from the building. What is the shortest plank that can go over the fence, from the level ground, to prop the wall?

42. A page of a book is to contain 27 square inches of print. If the margins at the top, bottom, and one side are 2 inches and the margin at the other side is 1 inch, what size page would use the least paper?

43. A metal water trough with equal semicircular ends and open top is to have a capacity of 4268 cubic feet (Figure 1). Determine its radius  $r$  and length  $h$  if the trough is to require the least material for its construction.



44. Find the maximum and the minimum of the function defined on the closed interval  $[-2, 2]$  by

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2}x^3 - \frac{1}{2}x^2 - 2x + 2.$$

Find where the graph is concave up and where it is concave down. Sketch the graph.

45. For each of the following functions, decide whether the Mean Value Theorem applies on the indicated interval  $I$ . If so, find all possible values of  $c$ ; if not, tell why. Make a sketch.

(a)  $f(x) = \frac{x}{3}$ ,  $I = [-3, 3]$

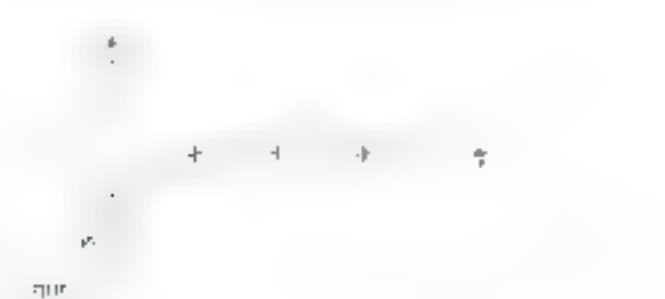
(b)  $f(x) = x^{2/3}$ ,  $I = (-1, 1)$

(c)  $g(x) = \frac{x}{x+1}$ ,  $I = [2, 3]$

46. Find the equations of the tangent lines to the inflection points of the graph of

$$f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x - 1.$$

47. Let  $f$  be a continuous function with  $f(1) = -1$ ,  $f(2) = 0$ , and  $f(3) = -1$ . If the graph of  $y = f'(x)$  is as shown in Figure 2, sketch a possible graph for  $y = f(x)$ .



48. Sketch the graph of a function  $G$  with all the following properties:

(a)  $G(x)$  is continuous and  $G'(x) > 0$  for all  $x$  in

$$(-\infty, \infty).$$

(c)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} G(x) = 2$ ,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} [G(x) - 2] = 0$ .

(d)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} G(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} G'(x) = \infty$ .

49. Use the Bisection Method to solve  $3x^2 - \cos 2x = 0$  accurately to six decimal places. Use  $a_1 = 0$  and  $b_1 = 1$ .

50. Use Newton's Method to solve  $x^2 - \cos 2x = 0$  accurately to six decimal places. Use  $x_1 = 0.5$ .

51. Use the Fixed-Point Algorithm to solve  $3x^2 - \cos 2x = 0$  starting with  $x_1 = 0.5$ .

52. Use Newton's Method to find the solution of  $x^2 - \cos x = 0$  in the interval  $[\pi, 3\pi]$  accurate to five decimal places. First, sketch graphs of  $y = x^2$  and  $y = \cos x$  using the same axes to get a good initial guess for  $x$ .

In Problems 53–67 evaluate the indicated integrals.

53.  $\int (4x^3 - 3x^2 + 3\sqrt{x}) dx$

54.  $\int \frac{x^2 - 2x}{x^2 + 1} dx$

55.  $\int \frac{x^2 - 4x + 4}{x^2 + 4x + 4} dx$

56.  $\int x\sqrt{x^2 - 4} dx$

57.  $\int \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx$

58.  $\int (x^2 + \sin x) dx$

59.  $\int (x + (x + 1)x^2 + 0.1)\sec^2(3x) + 0.1) dx$

60.  $\int \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx$

61.  $\int (x^2 + x + 1) dx$

62.  $\int \frac{1}{x^2 + 4} dx$

63.  $\int \frac{1}{x^2 + 2} dx$

64.  $\int \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx$

65.  $\int \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx$

66.  $\int \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx$

67.  $\int \sqrt{2x^2 + 3x^2 + 6x} dx$

In Problems 68–74, solve the differential equation subject to the indicated condition.

68.  $\frac{dy}{dx} = \sin x, y = 2$  at  $x = 0$

69.  $\frac{dy}{dx} = \sqrt{x+1}, y = 8$  at  $x = 3$

70.  $\frac{dy}{dx} = \csc y, y = \pi$  at  $x = 3$

71.  $\frac{dy}{dx} = \sqrt{2x}, y = 1$  at  $x = 2$

72.  $\frac{dy}{dx} = y^2, y = 2$  at  $x = 1$

73.  $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{6x - x^2}{x^2}, y = 3$  at  $x = 0$

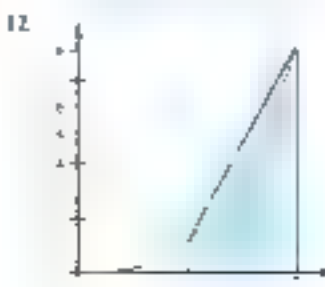
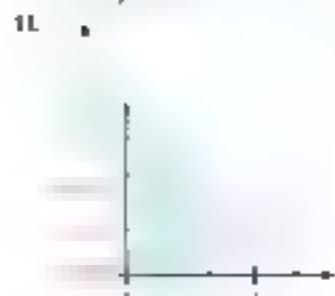
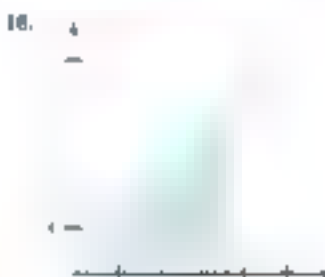
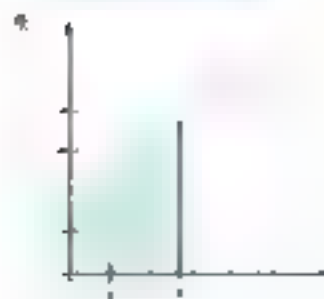
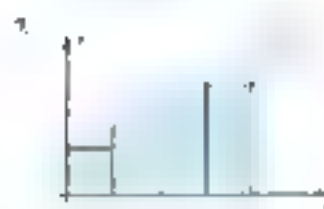
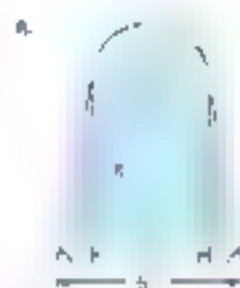
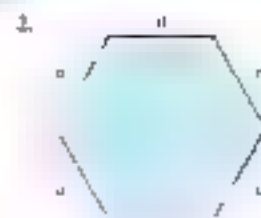
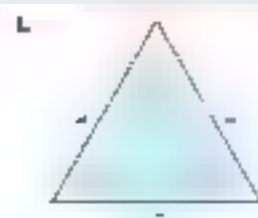
74.  $\frac{dy}{dx} = x \sec y, y = \pi$  at  $x = 1$

75. A ball is thrown directly upward from a tower 448 feet high with an initial velocity of 48 feet per second. In how many seconds will it strike the ground and with what velocity? Assume that  $g = 32$  feet per second per second and neglect air resistance.



# REVIEW PREVIEW PROBLEMS

In Problems 1–2, find the area of the shaded region.



- 1 Introduction to Area
- 2 The Definite Integral
- 3 The First Fundamental Theorem of Calculus
- 4 The Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus and the Method of Substitution
- 5 The Mean Value Theorem for Integrals and the Use of Symmetry
- 6 Numerical Integration

## 4.1

## Introduction to Area

Two problems, both from geometry, motivate the two most important ideas in calculus: the problem of finding the largest rectangle inscribed in a circle and the problem of finding area will lead us to the *definite integral*.

For polygons (closed plane regions) bounded by straight lines, the problem of finding area is hardly a problem at all. We start by defining the area of a rectangle to be the product of length times width, and then, by successively partitioning circles for the area of a parallelogram, a triangle, and any polygon. The sequence of figures in Figure 1 suggests how this is done.

Even in this simple setting, it is not so straightforward as you might think.

- 1 The area of a plane region is a nonnegative real number.
- 2 The area of a region depends on the particular choice of units used to measure it, in the same units. The result is in square units, for example, square centimeters or square inches.
- 3 Two given regions have equal areas.
- 4 The area of the union of two regions that overlap only at a line segment is the sum of the areas of the two regions.
- 5 If one region is contained in a second region, then the area of the first region is less than or equal to that of the second.

When we consider a region with a curved boundary, the problem of assigning area is not difficult. However, over 4000 years ago, Archimedes was unable to do this. Consider a region  $R$  of area between two curves  $f$  and  $g$  on the interval  $[a, b]$ . We can approximate the area of the region with greater and greater accuracy. For example, for the circle

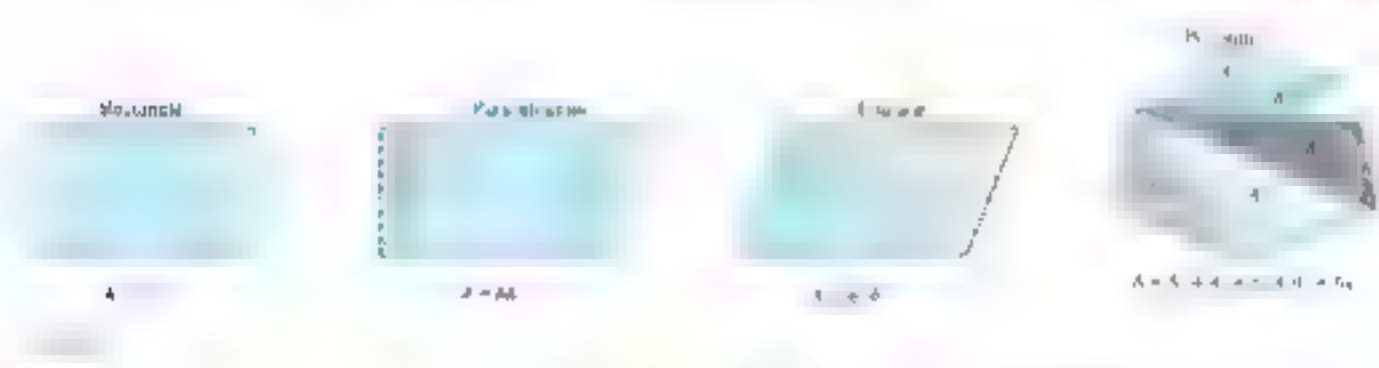
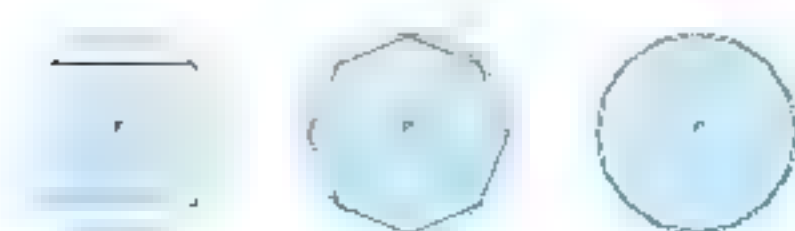


Figure 1, consider regular inscribed polygons  $P_1, P_2, P_3, \dots$  with 4 sides, 8 sides, 16 sides,  $\dots$ , as shown in Figure 2. The area of the circle in the limit is  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} A(P_n)$  of the area of  $P_n$ . Thus, if  $A(F)$  denotes the area of a region  $F$ , then

$$A(\text{circle}) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} A(P_n)$$



## Section 4.1 Area and Length

Following common usage, we allow boundaries to have a finite or infinite length. The words *region* and *area* will be used interchangeably with *region* and *length*, respectively, for one-dimensional boundaries. Note that regions have areas, whereas curves have lengths. When we say that a circle has area  $\pi r^2$  and circumference  $2\pi r$ , the latter should make clear whether we're naming the region or the boundary.

Archimedes went further, considering also *circumscribed* polygons (Figure 4.1.7). He showed that, by getting the same upper bound for the area of the circle of radius 1 (what we call  $\pi$ ) whether you use inscribed or circumscribed polygons. It is just a small step from what he did to our modern treatment of area.

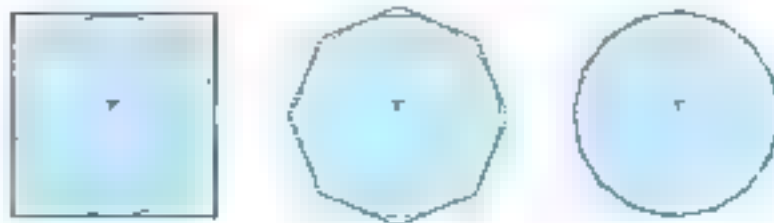


Figure 4.1.7

**Now Work** PROBLEM 31 Our approach to finding the area of a curved region  $R$  will involve the following steps.

1. Approximate the region  $R$  by  $n$  rectangles, where the  $n$  rectangles taken together approximate  $R$  producing a **circumscribed polygon**, or **upper estimate** for  $R$ , producing an **inscribed polygon**.
2. Find the area of each rectangle.
3. Sum the areas of the  $n$  rectangles.
4. Take the limit as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

In the next example, we'll see how to use this approach to find the area of a region. We'll find this limit the area of the region  $R$ .

Step 1, by using summation, the areas of rectangles requires that we have some formula for the sum of the areas of the rectangles. Let's find a formula for the following sums:

$$1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2 + 4^2 + \cdots + 100^2$$

and

$$1^3 + 2^3 + 3^3 + 4^3 + \cdots + 100^3$$

To add these sums, we can try to find a formula for the  $n$ th power of

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i^3 \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{i=1}^n i^2$$

respectively. Here  $\sum$  is a Greek letter, with the corresponding English letter  $S$ , and the words *sum* and *summation* are both used to describe this operation. But this time, the positive integers starting with the integer below  $\sum$  and ending with the integer above  $\sum$ . Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^4 a_i &= a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + a_4 \\ \sum_{i=1}^4 \frac{1}{i} &= \frac{1}{1} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} \\ \sum_{i=1}^4 \frac{1}{i^2} &= \frac{1}{1^2} + \frac{1}{2^2} + \frac{1}{3^2} + \frac{1}{4^2} + \cdots + \frac{1}{n^2} + \cdots \end{aligned}$$

If all the  $c_i$  in  $\sum_{i=1}^n c_i$  have the same value (say  $c$ ), then

$$\sum_{i=1}^n c = \underbrace{c + c + \cdots + c}_n = nc$$

As a result,

$$\sum_{j=1}^n a_j = 0.$$

In particular,

$$\sum_{j=1}^n (-1)^{j+1} = (-1)^{n+1} \text{ and } \sum_{j=1}^n (-1)^j = 0, \quad \text{if } n \text{ is odd, and } (-1)^{n+1} = (-1)^j = 1, \quad \text{if } n \text{ is even.}$$

**Definition 4.1.1**  $\sum$  (thought of as an operator  $\Sigma$  operating on sequences) *acts* in a linear way:

### THEOREM 4.1.1 Linearity of $\sum$

If  $c$  is a constant, then

$$(i) \quad \sum_{j=1}^n (c a_j) = c \sum_{j=1}^n a_j$$

$$(ii) \quad \sum_{j=1}^n (a_j + b_j) = \sum_{j=1}^n a_j + \sum_{j=1}^n b_j$$

$$(iii) \quad \sum_{j=1}^n (a_j - b_j) = \sum_{j=1}^n a_j - \sum_{j=1}^n b_j$$

**Proof** The proofs are easy; we consider only (i).

$$\sum_{j=1}^n (c a_j) = (c a_1) + (c a_2) + \cdots + (c a_n) = c a_1 + c a_2 + \cdots + c a_n = c(a_1 + a_2 + \cdots + a_n) = c \sum_{j=1}^n a_j. \quad \blacksquare$$

**EXAMPLE 4.1.1** (i) Suppose that  $\sum_{j=1}^n a_j = 60$  and  $\sum_{j=1}^n b_j = 100$ . Calculate

$$\sum_{j=1}^{100} (2a_j - 3b_j + 4)$$

**SOLUTION**

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{j=1}^{100} (2a_j - 3b_j + 4) &= 2 \sum_{j=1}^{100} a_j - 3 \sum_{j=1}^{100} b_j + \sum_{j=1}^{100} 4 \\ &= 2 \sum_{j=1}^{60} a_j + 2 \sum_{j=61}^{100} a_j - 3 \sum_{j=1}^{100} b_j + \sum_{j=1}^{100} 4 \\ &= 2(60) - 3(100) + (100 \cdot 4) = 487. \quad \blacksquare \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 4.1.2** (ii) **Collapsing Sums**

Show that:

$$(a) \quad \sum_{j=1}^n (a_j - a_{j+1}) = a_1 - a_{n+1}$$

$$(b) \quad \sum_{j=1}^n (c + (-1)^j + (-1)^{j+1}) = (n+1)(-1)^{n+1}$$

**SOLUTION**

(a) Here we should resist our inclination to apply finger-walking and write out the sum, hoping for some nice cancellations.

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{k=1}^n a_k &= a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + \cdots + a_{n-1} + a_n \\ &= a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + \cdots + a_{n-1} + a_n \\ &\quad a_2 + a_{n-1} + a_{n+1} + a_n\end{aligned}$$

(b) This follows immediately from part (a). ■

The symbol used for the index does not matter. Thus,

$$\sum a_i = \sum a_j = \sum a_k$$

and all of these are equal to  $a_1 + a_2 + \cdots + a_n$ . For this reason, the index is sometimes called a **dummy index**.

**EXAMPLE 3** When finding a closed formula for  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^2$ , we will need to compute the value of the first  $n$  terms of the series as we use the method of the squares cubes. And so on. Thus, we do. In general, if the sequence is described by  $f(k)$  in Example 4:

$$\begin{aligned}1. \quad \sum_{k=1}^n k &= 1 + 2 + 3 + \cdots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2} \\ 2. \quad \sum_{k=1}^n k^2 &= 1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2 + \cdots + n^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6} \\ 3. \quad \sum_{k=1}^n k^3 &= 1^3 + 2^3 + 3^3 + \cdots + n^3 = \frac{n^2(n+1)^2}{4} \\ 4. \quad \sum_{k=1}^n k^4 &= 1^4 + 2^4 + 3^4 + \cdots + n^4 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)(3n^2+3n-1)}{30}\end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 4** Find a formula for  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^2 + 2k + 3$ .

**SOLUTION** We make use of Linearity and Formulae 1 and 2 from above:

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{k=1}^n (k^2 + 2k + 3) &= \sum_{k=1}^n k^2 + 2 \sum_{k=1}^n k + \sum_{k=1}^n 3 \\ &= \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6} + 2 \frac{n(n+1)}{2} + \sum_{k=1}^n 3 \\ &= \frac{n}{6} [2n^2 + 3n + 1 + 6n + 6 + 6] \\ &= \frac{n}{6} (2n^2 + 9n + 7) = \frac{n}{6} (2n+7)(n+1)\end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 4** How many oranges are in the pyramid shown in Figure 4?

**SOLUTION**  $7^2 + 6^2 + 5^2 + 4^2 + 3^2 + 2^2 + 1^2 = \sum_{k=1}^7 k^2 = \frac{7(7+1)(2 \cdot 7+1)}{6} = 175$  ■

**EXAMPLE 5** Find a closed formula for  $\sum_{k=1}^n (k^2 + 1)$ . **SOLUTION** By part 4, we start with the identity  $k^2 + 1 = (k+1)^2 - 2k + 1$ . Then both sides are  $\frac{1}{2}$  times  $k^2 + 1$  in the left, and use linearity on the right:



Figure 4

$$\begin{aligned}
 \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i + \cdots + x_i^2) &= \sum_{i=1}^n x_i + \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 \\
 &= \frac{n(n+1)}{2} + \sum_{i=1}^n i^2 \\
 &= \frac{n^2 + 2n}{2} + \sum_{i=1}^n i^2 \\
 &= \frac{n^2 + n}{2} + \sum_{i=1}^n i^2
 \end{aligned}$$

Almost the same technique works to establish formulas (7) and (8) (Problems 8, 9).

**Example 1** Consider the region  $R$  bounded by the parabola  $y = x^2$  and the vertical lines  $x = 0$  and  $x = 2$  (Figure 2). We refer to  $R$  as the region under the curve  $y = x^2$  between  $x = 0$  and  $x = 2$ . Our goal is to calculate its area  $A(R)$ .

Partition the interval  $[0, 2]$  into  $n$  subintervals each of length  $\Delta x = 2/n$ , by means of the  $n - 1$  points

$$0 = x_0 < x_1 < \cdots < x_{n-1} < x_n = 2$$

Thus,

$$x_0 = 0$$

$$x_1 = \Delta x = \frac{2}{n}$$

$$x_2 = 2 \cdot \Delta x = \frac{4}{n}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$x_{n-1} = (n-1) \cdot \Delta x = \frac{(n-1)2}{n}$$

$$x_n = n \cdot \Delta x = n \cdot \frac{2}{n} = 2$$

Consider the vertical rectangles with base  $\Delta x$  and height  $f(x_i)$  (area  $\Delta x \cdot f(x_i) = \Delta x \cdot y_i$ ) shown in Figure 2. The union  $R_n$  of all such rectangles forms the inscribed polygon shown in the lower right part of Figure 2.

The area of  $R_n$  can be calculated by summing the areas of these rectangles:

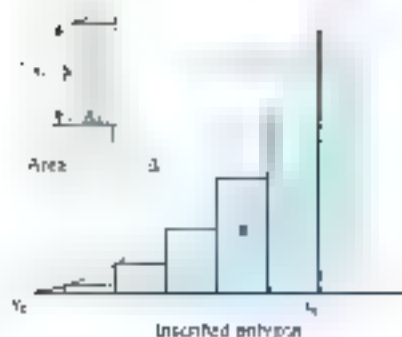
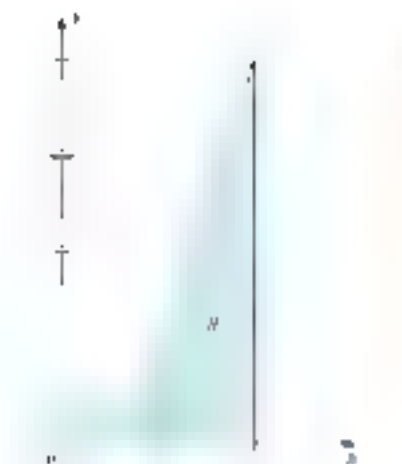
$$A(R_n) = f(x_0) \Delta x + f(x_1) \Delta x + f(x_2) \Delta x + \cdots + f(x_{n-1}) \Delta x$$

Now

$$f(x_i) = \Delta x \cdot \Delta x = \Delta x \cdot \left( \frac{2}{n} \cdot \frac{2}{n} \right) = \frac{4}{n^2}$$

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned}
 A(R_n) &= \frac{4}{n^2} \left[ 1 + 2 + \cdots + (n-1) \right] \\
 &= \frac{4}{n^2} [1^2 + 2^2 + \cdots + (n-1)^2]
 \end{aligned}$$



$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \frac{8}{n} \left[ \frac{n^2}{2} - \frac{1}{2}(n+1) \right] \\
 &= \frac{8}{n} \left[ \frac{n^2}{2} - \frac{n^2 + n}{2} \right] \\
 &= \frac{8}{n} \left[ \frac{-n}{2} \right] \\
 &= -4
 \end{aligned}$$

(Special Sum Formula 1  
with  $a = 1$  replacing  $n$ )

We conclude that

$$A(R) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} A(R_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{8}{n} \left[ \frac{-n}{2} \right] = -4$$

The diagram in Figure 8 should help you visualize why the area of  $R$  as  $n$  gets larger and larger

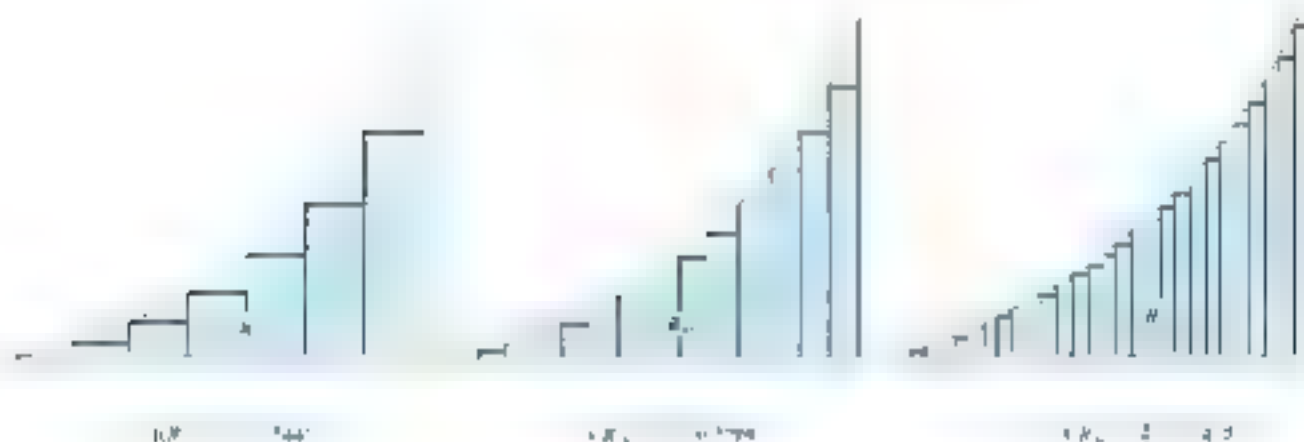


FIGURE 8

For  $n = 2, 4, 8, 16, 32, 64$ , perhaps you are seeing a connection between  $A(R)$  and  $A(R_n)$ . We can generalize this connection by using the formula for  $A(R_n)$  and height  $f(x_i)$  as shown in the upper left of Figure 9. Its area is  $f(x_i) \Delta x$ . The area of  $N$  of these rectangles forms a circumscribed polygon of the region  $R$  as shown in the lower right in Figure 9.

The area of  $N$  is calculated in analogy with the calculation of  $A(R)$ :

$$A(N) = f(x_1) \Delta x + f(x_2) \Delta x + \cdots + f(x_N) \Delta x$$

As before,  $f(x_i) \Delta x = x_i^2 \Delta x = (8/n^2)t^i$  and so

$$\begin{aligned}
 A(N) &= \frac{8}{n^2} \left[ 1 + 2^2 + \cdots + n^2 \right] \\
 &= \frac{8}{n^2} \left[ \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6} \right] \\
 &= \frac{8}{6} \left[ \frac{n^3 + 3n^2 + 2n}{n^2} \right] \\
 &= \frac{4}{3} \left[ \frac{n^3 + 3n^2 + 2n}{n^2} \right] \\
 &= \frac{4}{3} \left[ \frac{n^3}{n^2} + \frac{3n^2}{n^2} + \frac{2n}{n^2} \right] \\
 &= \frac{4}{3} \left[ n + 3 + \frac{2}{n} \right] \\
 &= \frac{4}{3} \left[ n + 3 + \frac{2}{n} \right]
 \end{aligned}$$

(Special Sum Formula 2)

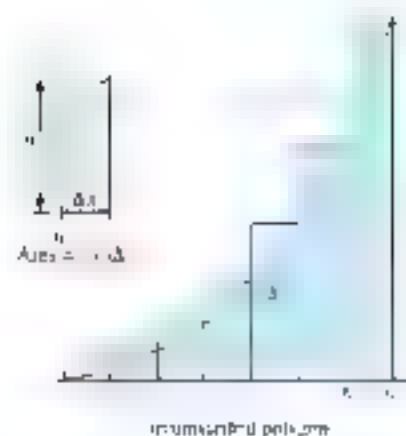


FIGURE 9

Again, we conclude that

$$A(R) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} A(S_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{8}{3} + \frac{4}{n} + \frac{4}{3n^2} \right) = \frac{8}{3}$$

Suppose an object is moving along the  $x$ -axis in such a way that its velocity at time  $t$  is given by  $v = f(t) = \frac{1}{4}t^2 + 1$  feet per second. How far did it travel between  $t = 0$  and  $t = 3$ ? This problem can be solved by the method of differential equations (Section 3.9), but we have something else in mind.

Our starting point is the familiar fact that if an object travels at constant velocity  $k$  (in ft/sec), and it is at position  $s_0$  (in ft) at time  $t = 0$ , then its position at time  $t$  is  $s_0 + kt$ . But this is just the area of a rectangle, the one shown in Figure 10.



Next, consider the given problem, where  $v = f(t) = \frac{1}{4}t^2 + 1$ . The graph of  $f$  is shown in the top part of Figure 11. Let us partition the interval  $[0, 3]$  into subintervals of length  $\Delta t = 0.5$  seconds at points  $t_0 = 0, t_1 = 0.5, t_2 = 1, t_3 = 1.5, t_4 = 2, t_5 = 2.5, t_6 = 3$ . Then con-

sider the corresponding inscribed polygon  $S_n$ , inscribed in the region in Figure 11. We could, as we have considered, be interested in this polygon. Its area  $A(S_n)$  should be a good approximation of the distance traveled, especially if  $\Delta t$  is small. Since on each subinterval  $i$  the velocity is almost equal to the constant  $f(t_i)$  value of  $f$  at the end of the subinterval. Moreover, this approximation should be better and better as  $n$  gets larger. We are led to the conclusion that the exact distance traveled is  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} A(S_n)$ , that is, the limit of the area under the curve

by curve between  $t = 0$  and  $t = 3$ .

To calculate this, note that  $f(t_i) = \frac{1}{4}t_i^2 + 1$  and so the area of the  $i$ th rectangle is

$$f(t_i) \Delta t = \left( \frac{1}{4}t_i^2 + 1 \right) \Delta t = \frac{1}{4} \frac{t_i^3}{3} + \frac{1}{4} t_i^2 + \frac{1}{4} \Delta t$$

Thus,

$$A(S_n) = f(t_1) \Delta t + f(t_2) \Delta t + \cdots + f(t_n) \Delta t$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n f(t_i) \Delta t$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n \left( \frac{1}{4}t_i^2 + 1 \right) \Delta t$$

$$= \frac{1}{4} \sum_{i=1}^n t_i^2 \Delta t + \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta t$$

$$= \frac{31}{4n^3} \left[ \frac{n(n+1)^2}{2} \right] + \frac{3}{n} \Delta t \quad (\text{Special Sum Formula 3})$$

$$= \frac{31}{6} \left[ \frac{n^3 + 3n^2 + 3n + 1}{n^3} \right] + \frac{3}{n}$$

$$= \frac{31}{6} \left( 1 + \frac{3}{n} + \frac{3}{n^2} + \frac{1}{n^3} \right) + \frac{3}{n}$$

We conclude that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} A(S_n) = \frac{31}{6} \approx 5.1667 = \frac{24}{5} \approx 4.8$$

The object traveled about 4.86 feet between  $t = 0$  and  $t = 3$ .

What was true in this example is true for any object moving with positive velocity. The distance traveled is the area of the region under the velocity curve.

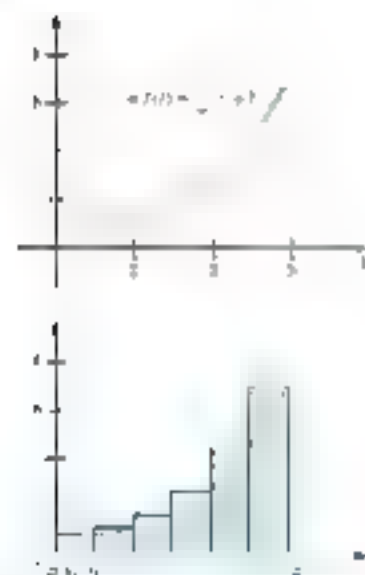


Figure 11



## Concepts Review

1. The value of  $\sum_{i=1}^{10} 2i$  is \_\_\_\_\_ and the value of  $\sum_{i=1}^{10} i$  is \_\_\_\_\_.
2. If  $\sum_{i=1}^{10} a_i = 7$  and  $\sum_{i=1}^{10} b_i = 13$  then the value of  $\sum_{i=1}^{10} (2a_i - 3b_i)$  is \_\_\_\_\_ and the value of  $\sum_{i=1}^{10} (a_i + 4)$  is \_\_\_\_\_.

### Problem Set 4 1

10. Findings 1 & 2, that the value of the substituted assets

1.  $\sum_{k=1}^n k$
2.  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^2$
3.  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^3$
4.  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^4$
5.  $\sum_{k=1}^n (-1)^{k+1} k$
6.  $\sum_{k=1}^n (-1)^{k+1} k^2$
7.  $\sum_{k=1}^n \cos(k\pi)$
8.  $\sum_{k=1}^n \sin(k\pi/3)$

For further details see Table 1 of the online supplement available at <http://www.jstor.org/stable/2346192>.

9.  $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} = \frac{5}{6}$
10.  $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} = \frac{5}{6}$
11.  $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} = \frac{5}{6}$
12.  $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} = \frac{5}{6}$
13.  $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} = \frac{5}{6}$
14.  $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} = \frac{5}{6}$

In Problems 13–18, suppose that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = 40$  and  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n = 90$ . Calculate each of the following (see Example 14).

- $$\text{15. } \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} = \frac{\pi^2}{6} \quad \text{16. } \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (5a_n - 2b_n)$$

Bei  $\mathcal{P}$ -Prüfungen ist  $\mathcal{P}$  die Spracherweiterung  $\mathcal{P}$  des Grundmodells  $\mathcal{M}$ .

19.  $\sum_{k=1}^{100} \frac{1}{k^2}$  is  $\frac{1}{2}$

20.  $\sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k^2}$  is  $\frac{1}{2}$

21.  $\sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k^2}$  is  $\frac{1}{2}$

22.  $\sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k^2}$  is  $\frac{1}{2}$

23.  $\sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k^2}$  is  $\frac{1}{2}$

25. Add odd values of  $n$  in equalities below, solve for  $S$  and multiply by another power of 2 to simplify.

$$S_1 = 1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + (n-2) + (n-1) + n$$

26. Write the following formulae for a geometric mean:

$$\sum_{k=0}^n \alpha_k t^k = d_1 + d_2 t + d_3 t^2 + d_4 t^3 + \dots$$

4. The exact area of the region under the curve  $y = |x|$  between 0 and 1 is \_\_\_\_\_.

How can I do this? I am trying to simplify the expression and get the result.

27. Use **Print** and **Go** to advance each slide.

$$1 + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!} = e$$

28. Use a derivation like that in Problem 25 to obtain a formula for the arithmetic mean.

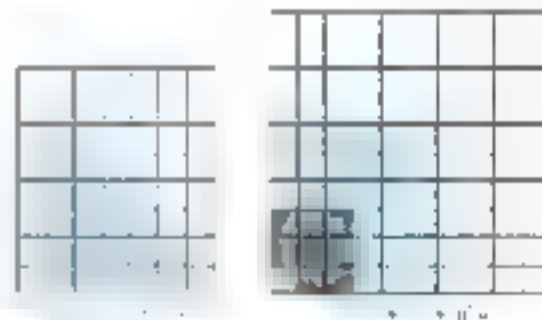
$$\sum (a + 4d) = a + (a + d) + (a + 2d) + \dots + (a + nd)$$

20. Use the identity  $(i + 1)^3 - i^3 = 3i^2 + 3i + 1$  to prove Sum of Squares Formula.

30. Use the identity  $(t + i)^4 - (t - i)^4 = 4(t^4 + 6t^2 + 1) + 4it$  to prove Special Step Formula 1.

31. Use the identity  $(t + 1)^5 = t^5 + 5t^4 + 10t^3 + 10t^2 + 5t + 1$  to prove Pascal's Sum Formula 4.

32. Use the diagrams in Figure 2 to establish Formulas 4 and 5.



5. 33. In statistics we define the mean  $\bar{x}$  and the variance  $s^2$  of  $n$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{i^2} = \frac{\pi^2}{6}$$

Find  $\bar{t}$  and  $s$  for the sequence of numbers  $7, 5, 7, 8, 9, \dots, a$ 

34. Using the derivatives of Problem 33, find  $T$  and  $S$  for each set of initial conditions.

- [illegible]

15. Use the definitions in Problem 14 to show that each is true:

$$d_1 = \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j \Gamma_j = 1 - f_0 \quad \text{and} \quad \mathcal{H} = \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_j \mathcal{H}_j$$

36. Based on your response to parts (a) and (b) of Problem 34, make a conjecture about the value of  $\alpha$  identical numbers. Prove your conjecture.

37. Let  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  be any real numbers. Find the value of  $x$  that minimizes  $\sum_{i=1}^n |x - x_i|$ .

38. In the song *The Twelve Days of Christmas*, my true love gave me a gift on the first day, 2 gifts on the second day, 3 gifts on the third day, and so on for 12 days.

- (a) Find the total number of gifts given in 7 days.  
 (b) Find a simple formula for  $T_n$ , the total number of gifts given during a 7th interval of  $n$  days.

39. A grocer stacks oranges in a pyramidlike pile. If the bottom layer is rectangular with 10 rows of 16 oranges and the top layer has a single row of oranges, how many oranges are in the stack?

40. Answer the same question in Problem 39 if the bottom layer has 10 rows of 10 oranges.

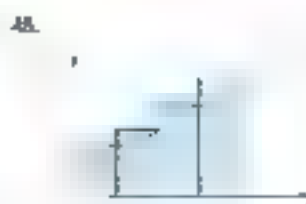
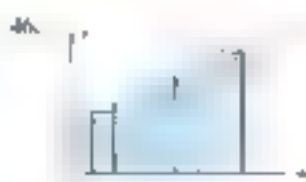
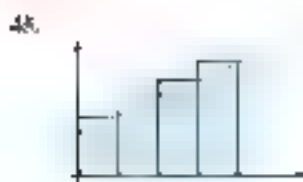
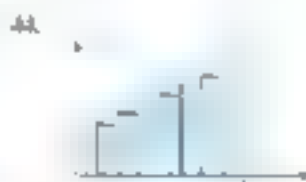
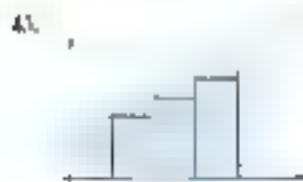
41. Generalize the result of Problems 39 and 40 to the case of  $n$  rows of  $n$  oranges.

42. Find a nice formula for the sum

$$\frac{1}{1 \cdot 2} + \frac{1}{2 \cdot 3} + \frac{1}{3 \cdot 4} + \cdots + \frac{1}{n(n+1)}$$

Hint:  $\frac{1}{n} = \frac{1}{n(n+1)} + \frac{1}{n+1}$

In Problems 43–47, find the area of the shaded and unshaded or circumscribed polygon.



In Problems 49–52, sketch the graph of the given function over the interval  $[a, b]$ ; then divide  $[a, b]$  into  $n$  equal subintervals. Finally, calculate the area of the circumscribed or inscribed polygon.

49.  $f(x) = x^2$ ,  $a = 0$ ,  $b = 1$ ,  $n = 3$

50.  $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ ,  $a = 0$ ,  $b = 1$ ,  $n = 4$

51.  $f(x) = e^x$ ,  $a = 0$ ,  $b = 1$ ,  $n = 3$

52.  $f(x) = 2x$ ,  $a = 0$ ,  $b = 1$ ,  $n = 3$

In Problems 53–58, find the area of the region under the curve  $y = f(x)$  over the interval  $[a, b]$ . In (a), divide the interval  $[a, b]$  into  $n$  equal subintervals, calculate the area of the corresponding circumscribed polygon, and then let  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . (See the example for  $y = x$  in the text.)

53.  $f(x) = x^2$ ,  $a = 0$ ,  $b = 1$

54.  $f(x) = x^2$ ,  $a = 0$ ,  $b = 1$

55.  $f(x) = x^2$ ,  $a = 0$ ,  $b = 1$ ,  $n = 3$

56.  $f(x) = x^2$ ,  $a = 0$ ,  $b = 1$

57.  $f(x) = x^2$ ,  $a = 0$ ,  $b = 1$

58.  $f(x) = x^2$ ,  $a = 0$ ,  $b = 1$

59. Suppose that an object is traveling along the  $x$ -axis in such a way that its position at time  $t$  seconds is  $x(t) = t^2$  feet. How far did it travel between  $t = 0$  and  $t = 1$  sec? For the discussion of the velocity problem at the end of this section, assume that  $x(t) = t^2$  ft/sec at  $t = 1$  sec.

60. Follow the directions of Problem 59 given the  $x(t) = t^2$  ft/sec. See the discussion in each of Problems 54.

61. Let  $A_n^f$  denote the area under the curve  $y = x^2$  over the interval  $[0, 1]$ .

(a) Prove that  $A_n^f = \frac{1}{3} \Delta x$ . Here  $\Delta x = \frac{1}{n}$ , so  $x_i = \frac{i}{n}$  in the circumscribed polygon.

(b) Show that  $A_n^f = \frac{1}{3} \Delta x = \frac{1}{3} \Delta x$ . Assume that  $n \geq 1$ .

62. Suppose that an object, moving along the  $x$ -axis, has velocity  $v = t^2$  meters per second at time  $t$  seconds. How far did it travel between  $t = 1$  and  $t = 4$ ? See Problem 61.

63. Use the results of Problem 61 to calculate the area under the curve  $y = x^2$  over each of the following intervals:

- (a)  $[0, 3]$  (b)  $[1, 4]$  (c)  $[2, 4]$

64. From Special Sum Formulas 1–4 you might guess that

$$(n^2)^2 = n^4 = \frac{n^5}{5} + C_1$$

where  $C_1$  is a polynomial in  $n$  of degree at most 4. Assume that this is true (which it is), and, for  $n \geq 0$ , let  $A_n^f(x^4)$  be the area under the curve  $y = x^4$  on the interval  $[0, 1]$ .

(a) Prove that  $A_n^f(x^4) = \frac{1}{5} \Delta x$ .

(b) Show that  $A_n^f(x^4) = \frac{1}{5} \Delta x = \frac{1}{5} \Delta x$ .

65. Use the results of Problem 64 to calculate each of the following areas:

- (a)  $A_n^f(x^4)$  (b)  $A_n^f(x^4)$  (c)  $A_n^f(x^4)$  (d)  $A_n^f(x^4)$

66. Derive the formulas  $A_n = \frac{1}{2} \Delta x$  and  $B_n = \frac{1}{2} \Delta x$  for the areas of the inscribed and circumscribed

regular polygon inscribed in a circle of radius  $r$ . Then show that  
 $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n = \pi r^2$  in  $B$ , and deduce

$$\int_0^1 \pi x \, dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n \pi x_k = \pi \int_0^1 x \, dx = \frac{\pi}{2}.$$

## 4.2 The Definite Integral



Figure 1

At the preparations have been made, we are ready, as before, to define the integral. Both Newton and Leibniz introduced early versions of this concept. However, it was Gottfried Wilhelm Leibniz and Bernhard Riemann (1826–1866) who gave us the modern definition. In formulating the definition, we are guided by the ideas we discussed in the previous section. The first notion is that of a Riemann sum.

**DEFINITION** Suppose  $f$  is a function defined on a closed interval  $[a, b]$ . We let  $\Delta x$  be both positive and negative values for the interval, and  $f$  does not even need to be continuous. Its graph might look something like the one in Figure 2.

For any partition  $P$  of the interval  $[a, b]$  into  $n$  subintervals (not necessarily of equal length) by means of points  $a = x_0 < x_1 < x_2 < \cdots < x_{n-1} < x_n = b$ , and for  $\Delta x_i = x_i - x_{i-1}$  for each subinterval  $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ , pick an arbitrary point  $\xi_i$  (which may be an end point); we call it a *sample point* for the  $i$ th subinterval. An example of these constructions is shown in Figure 2 for  $n = 6$ .

Figure 2 Approximation of  $\int_a^b f(x) \, dx$  with sample points  $\xi_i$ 

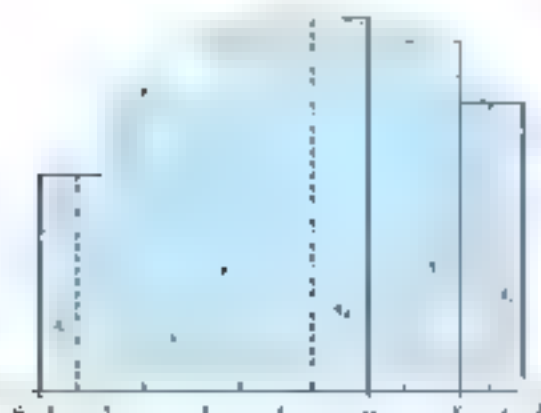
We call the sum

$$R_P = \sum_{i=1}^n f(\xi_i) \Delta x_i$$

a **Riemann sum** for  $f$  over the interval  $[a, b]$  with partition  $P$ . The geometric interpretation is shown in Figure 3.

A Riemann sum is interpreted as an approximation of area.

$$\sum_{i=1}^n f(\xi_i) \Delta x_i = f(\xi_1) \Delta x_1 + f(\xi_2) \Delta x_2 + \cdots + f(\xi_n) \Delta x_n$$



**EXAMPLE 1** Evaluate the Riemann sum for  $f(x) = x^2 + 1$  on the interval  $[-1, 2]$  using the equally spaced partition points  $-1 < -0.5 < 0 < 0.5 < 1 < 1.5 < 2$ , with the sample point  $\bar{x}_i$  being the midpoint of the  $i$ th subinterval.

**SOLUTION** Note the picture in Figure 4.

$$\begin{aligned} R_6 &= \sum_{i=1}^6 f(\bar{x}_i) \Delta x_i \\ &= [f(-0.75) + f(-0.25) + f(0.25) + f(0.75) + f(1.25) + f(1.75)](0.5) \\ &= [1.5625 + 1.0625 + 1.0625 + 1.5625 + 2.5625 + 4.0625](0.5) \\ &= 5.9375 \end{aligned}$$

The function in Figures 3 and 4 was a positive function. As a consequence, if  $f$  is the Riemann sum is simply the sum of the areas of the rectangles, and, when  $f$  is negative, in this case, a sample point  $\bar{x}_i$  with  $f(\bar{x}_i) < 0$  will result in a rectangle that is actually below the  $x$ -axis and thus, since  $\Delta x_i$  will be positive, this means that the contribution of such a rectangle to the Riemann sum is negative. Figure 5 illustrates this.

A Riemann sum interpreted as  
an algebraic sum of areas

$$R_3 = \sum_{i=1}^3 f(\bar{x}_i) \Delta x_i = f(\bar{x}_1) \Delta x_1 + f(\bar{x}_2) \Delta x_2 + f(\bar{x}_3) \Delta x_3$$



**EXAMPLE 2** Evaluate the Riemann sum  $R_5$  for

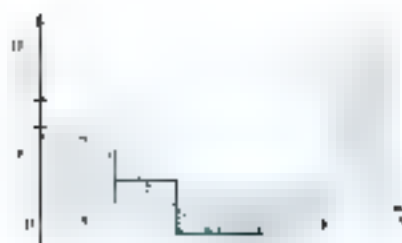
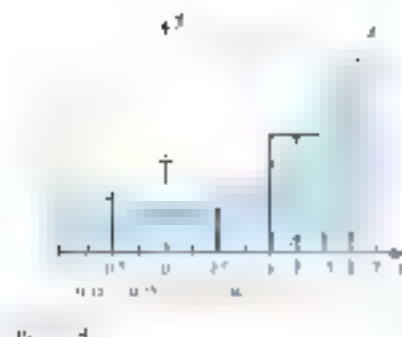
$$f(x) = (x + 1)(x - 2)(x - 4) = x^3 - 5x^2 + 2x + 8$$

on the interval  $[-2, 4]$  using the partition  $P$  with partition points  $x_0 = -2, x_1 = -1, x_2 = 0, x_3 = 1, x_4 = 2, x_5 = 3, x_6 = 4$  and the corresponding sample points  $\bar{x}_i = (x_{i-1} + x_i)/2$ .

**SOLUTION**

$$\begin{aligned} R_5 &= \sum_{i=1}^5 f(\bar{x}_i) \Delta x_i \\ &= f(\bar{x}_1) \Delta x_1 + f(\bar{x}_2) \Delta x_2 + f(\bar{x}_3) \Delta x_3 + f(\bar{x}_4) \Delta x_4 + f(\bar{x}_5) \Delta x_5 \\ &= f(0.5)(1 - 0) + f(0.5)(2 - 1) + f(1.5)(2 - 1) \\ &\quad + f(2.5)(4 - 2) + f(3.5)(4 - 3) \\ &= (7.875)(1) + (3.125)(1) + (-2.625)(1) + (-2.444)(2) + 18 \\ &= 22.916 \end{aligned}$$

The corresponding geometric picture appears in Figure 6.



We have chosen as our symbol for the definite integral the same elongated “S” as we did for the antiderivative in the last chapter. The “S” of course stands for “sum” since the definite integral is the limit of a particular type of sum, the Riemann sum.

The connection between the antiderivative from Chapter 3 and the definite integral in this section will become clear in Section 6.4 when we present the Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus.

Suppose now that  $P = \Delta x$  and  $n$  have the meanings discussed above. Let  $\|P\|$  denote the norm of  $P$ , namely the length of the longest of the subintervals of the partition  $P$ . For instance, in Example 1  $\|P\| = 0.5$ ; in Example 2  $\|P\| = 3.2$ .

### Definition: Definite Integral

Let  $f$  be a function that is defined on the closed interval  $[a, b]$ . If

$$\lim_{\|P\| \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i) \Delta x = L$$

exists, we say that  $f$  is **integrable** on  $[a, b]$ . Moreover,  $\int_a^b f(x) dx = L$  is the **definite integral** or **Riemann integral** of  $f$  on  $[a, b]$  and is denoted by

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{\|P\| \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i) \Delta x$$

The heart of the definition is the final line. The concept captured in this equation grows out of our discussion of area in Problem Set 1. However, we have considerably modified the notion presented there. For instance, we now allow  $f$  to be negative on part or all of  $[a, b]$ ; we use partitions with subintervals that may be of unequal length; and we allow  $c$  to be any point in the subintervals. Since we are studying these matters, it is important to have precise definitions of each.

In general,  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$  gives the **signed area** of the region trapped by  $y = f(x)$ , the curve  $y = f(x)$ , and the  $x$ -axis on the interval  $[a, b]$ . Remember that a positive sign is attached to areas of parts above the  $x$ -axis, and a negative sign is attached to areas of parts below the  $x$ -axis. In symbols,

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = A_{\text{top}} - A_{\text{bottom}}$$

where  $A_{\text{top}}$  and  $A_{\text{bottom}}$  are as shown in Figure 7.

The meaning of the word **area** in the definition of the definite integral is thus more general than in earlier usage and should be explained. The equality

$$\lim_{\|P\| \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i) \Delta x = L$$

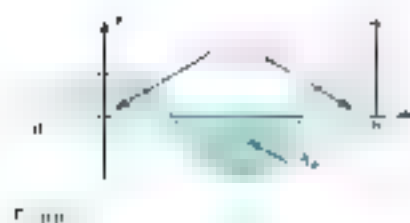
means that, corresponding to each  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is a  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$\left| \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i) \Delta x - L \right| < \epsilon$$

for all Riemann sums  $\sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i) \Delta x$  for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $[a, b]$  for which the norm  $\|P\|$  of the associated partition is less than  $\delta$ . In this case, we say that the indicated limit exists and has the value  $L$ .

That was a mouthful, and we are not going to digest it all now. We simply assert that the usual limit theorems also hold for the kind of limit

Returning to the symbol  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ , we might call  $a$  the **lower end point** and  $b$  the **upper end point** for the integral. However, most authors use the term **lower limit** of integration and **upper limit** of integration, which is fine provided we



realize that the usage of the word *limit* has nothing to do with its more technical meaning.

In our definition of  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$  we implicitly assumed that  $a < b$ . We remove that restriction with the following definitions.

$$\int_a^a f(x) dx = 0$$

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = - \int_b^a f(x) dx \quad \text{if } a > b.$$

Thus

$$\int_1^2 x^2 dx = 0, \quad \int_2^1 x^2 dx = - \int_1^2 x^2 dx$$

Finally, we point out that  $x$  is a **dummy variable** in the symbol  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ . By this we mean the  $x$  can be replaced by any other (nonzero) polynomial variable that is repeated in each place where it occurs. Thus

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^b f(t) dt = \int_a^b f(u) du$$

As a consequence, if  $f$  is a continuous function on every closed interval  $[a, b]$ , for example, the unbounded function

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 & \text{if } x \neq 0 \\ 1 & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases}$$

which is graphed in Figure 4 is not integrable on  $[-2, 2]$  (it can be shown that for the unbounded function the Riemann sum can be made arbitrarily large). Thus, for the limit of the Riemann sum over  $[-2, 2]$  does not exist.

Even some bounded functions are not integrable. In fact, there is no purely computational test (see Problem 46) for integrability. The most important theorem about integrability is the **Riemann-Lebesgue Theorem**; for a proof here we leave that for advanced calculus books.

### Theorem 4.2 Integrability Theorem

If  $f$  is bounded on  $[a, b]$  and if it is continuous except at a finite number of points, then  $f$  is integrable on  $[a, b]$ . In other words, if  $f$  is continuous on the whole interval  $[a, b]$ , it is integrable on  $[a, b]$ .

As a consequence of this theorem, the following functions are integrable on every closed interval  $[a, b]$ .

1. Polynomial functions.
2. Sine and cosine functions.
3. Rational functions provided that the interval  $[a, b]$  contains no points where the denominator is 0.

For a function  $f$  that is not integrable, knowing that a function is integrable allows us to calculate its integral by using a **regular partition** (a partition with

equal-length subinterval) and by picking the sample points in any way that is convenient. For use as sample points, Lagrange polynomials, which we will learn are orthogonal,

**EXAMPLE 3** Evaluate  $\int_0^1 (x^2 + 3) dx$ .

**SOLUTION** Partition the interval  $[0, 1]$  into  $n$  equal subintervals, each of length  $\Delta x = 1/n$ . In each subinterval  $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ , use  $\bar{x}_i = x_i$  as the sample point. Then

$$\begin{aligned} x_i &= 0 + i\Delta x \\ x_i &= 0 + i\Delta x = \frac{i}{n} \\ f(x_i) &= x_i^2 + 3 = \left(\frac{i}{n}\right)^2 + 3 \\ f(x_i)\Delta x &= \left(\frac{i^2}{n^2} + 3\right)\Delta x = \left(\frac{i^2}{n^2} + 3\right)\frac{1}{n} \\ f(x_i)\Delta x &= \frac{i^2}{n^3} + \frac{3}{n} \end{aligned}$$

Thus,  $f(x_i) = x_i^2 + 3 = \left(\frac{i}{n}\right)^2 + 3$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i)\Delta x &= \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{i^2}{n^3} + \frac{3}{n}\right) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{i^2}{n^3} + \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{3}{n} \\ &= \frac{1}{n^3} \sum_{i=1}^n i^2 + \frac{3}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n 1 \\ &= \frac{1}{n^3} \sum_{i=1}^n i^2 + \frac{3}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n 1 \quad (\text{Special Sum Formula}) \\ &= \frac{1}{n^3} \left(\frac{n^3}{3} + \frac{n^2}{2} + \frac{n}{6}\right) + \frac{3}{n} \cdot n \end{aligned}$$

Since  $P$  is a regular partition,  $P) = 0$ , so  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i)\Delta x = \int_0^1 (x^2 + 3) dx$ . We conclude that

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^1 (x^2 + 3) dx &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i)\Delta x \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{6} + 3\right) \\ &= \frac{35}{2} \end{aligned}$$

We can easily check our answer, since the required integral gives the area of the trapezoid in Figure 9. The trapezoid's area (area of  $\Delta = a \cdot b$ ) gives  $\frac{1}{2}(1 + 6)5 = 35/2$ .  $\blacksquare$

**EXAMPLE 4** Evaluate  $\int_{-1}^1 (x^2 + 8) dx$ .

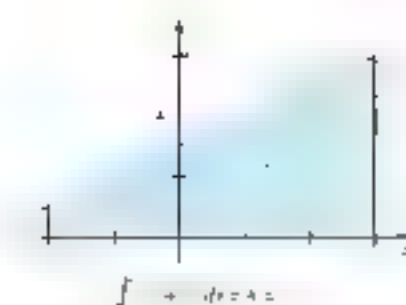


FIGURE 9



Figure 10

### Common Sense

Given the graph of a function, we can always make a rough estimate for the value of a definite integral by using the fact that it is the signed area.

$$A_{\text{up}} = A_{\text{down}}$$

In our Example 4, we might estimate the value of the integral by pretending that the part above the axis is a triangle and the part below is a rectangle. Our estimate is

$$\int_{-1}^5 f(x) dx \approx (1)(2) -$$

Section 11. No formulas from elementary geometry will help here. Figure 10 suggests that the integral is equal to  $-A_1 + A_2$ , where  $A_1$  and  $A_2$  are the areas of the regions below and above the  $x$ -axis.

Let  $P$  be a regular partition of  $[a, b]$  into  $n$  equal subintervals each of length  $\Delta x = (b-a)/n$ . In each subinterval  $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ , choose  $\bar{x}_i$  to be the right end point, so  $\bar{x}_i = x_i$ . Then

$$x_i = -1 + i\Delta x = -1 + i\left(\frac{4}{n}\right)$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-1}^5 f(x) dx &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n f(\bar{x}_i) \Delta x \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n f\left(-1 + \frac{4i}{n}\right) \frac{4}{n} \end{aligned}$$

Consequently,

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^n f\left(-1 + \frac{4i}{n}\right) \frac{4}{n} &= \sum_{i=1}^n \left(-1 + \frac{4i}{n}\right) \frac{4}{n} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \left(-\frac{4}{n} + \frac{16i}{n^2}\right) = -\frac{4}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n 1 + \frac{16}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n i \\ &= -\frac{4}{n} (n) + \frac{16(n+1)(n-1)}{n^2} = -4 + \frac{16n^2 - 16}{n^2} = \frac{16n^2}{n^2} - \frac{16}{n^2} - 4 \\ &= 12 - \frac{16}{n^2} - 4 = \frac{8n^2}{n^2} - \frac{16}{n^2} = \frac{8n^2 - 16}{n^2} \end{aligned}$$

We conclude that

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-1}^5 f(x) dx &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n f(\bar{x}_i) \Delta x \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{8n^2 - 16}{n^2} \right) = \frac{8}{1} - \frac{16}{\infty} = 8 - 0 = 8. \end{aligned}$$

That the answer is negative is not surprising, since the region below the  $x$ -axis appears to be larger than the region above. So a rough estimate of the answer is that the estimate given in the margin box is correct. The actual answer is likely to be correct. ■

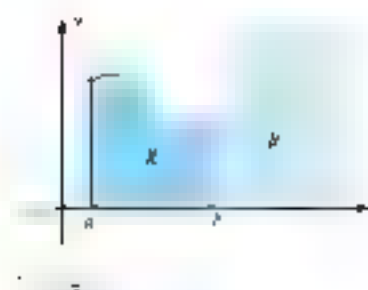
Our definition of the definite integral was motivated by the problem of area for curved regions. Suppose we have curved regions  $R_1$  and  $R_2$  in Figure 11 and let  $R = R_1 \cup R_2$ . (It is clear that

$$A(R) = A(R_1 \cup R_2) = A_1 + A_2 = A(R),$$

which suggests that

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^c f(x) dx + \int_c^b f(x) dx$$

We quickly confirm that this does not constitute a proof of this fact, without integrals, since first of all our discussion of area in Section 4.1 was rather informal,





and, second, our diagram supposes that  $c$  is positive, which it need not be. Nevertheless, definite integrals do satisfy the interval additive property, and here's a diagram that shows how those points  $a$ ,  $b$ , and  $c$  are arranged. We leave the rigorous proof to more advanced works.

### Theorem B Interval Additive Property

If  $f$  is integrable on an interval containing the points  $a$ ,  $b$ , and  $c$ , then

$$\int_a^c f(x) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx + \int_b^c f(x) dx$$

no matter what the order of  $a$ ,  $b$ , and  $c$ .

For example,

$$\int_0^3 x dx = \int_0^1 x dx + \int_1^3 x dx$$

which most people readily believe. But we can set up an

$$\int_0^3 x^2 dx = \int_0^1 x^2 dx + \int_1^3 x^2 dx$$

which may seem surprising if you trust only the numbers you might actually evaluate each of the above integrals to see that the equality holds.

**Example 1** Near the end of Section 4.1 we explained how the area under the velocity curve is equal to the distance traveled, provided the velocity function  $v(t)$  is positive. In particular, the position  $s(t)$  of a particle moving with negative velocity is equal to the definite integral of the velocity under the which curve, the positive or negative. More specifically, if  $v(t)$  is the velocity of a particle moving with negative velocity, then the displacement of the particle from the starting point at time  $a$  is  $\int_a^t v(t) dt$ .

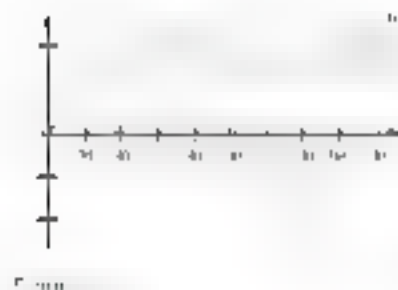
**Example 2** An object at the origin at time  $t = 0$  has velocity measured in meters per second

$$v(t) = \begin{cases} t - 20, & \text{if } 0 \leq t \leq 40 \\ 2, & \text{if } 40 \leq t \leq 60 \\ 3 - t, & \text{if } 60 \leq t \leq 80 \end{cases}$$

Sketch the velocity curve. Express the displacement  $s(t)$  as a definite integral and evaluate it using formulas from plane geometry.

**Solution** Figure 12 shows the velocity curve. The position at time 40 is equal to the definite integral  $\int_0^{40} (t - 20) dt$ , which we can evaluate using formulas for the area of a triangle, the area of a rectangle, and the area of a triangle. According to Theorem B,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^{80} v(t) dt &= \int_0^{40} (t - 20) dt + \int_{40}^{60} 2 dt + \int_{60}^{80} (3 - t) dt \\ &= 40 + 40 + 40 = 120 \end{aligned}$$



## Concepts Review

1. A sum of the form  $\sum_{i=1}^n f(b_i) \Delta x_i$  is called a **Riemann sum**.
2. The limit of the sum above as  $f$  defined on  $[a, b]$  is called the **definite integral** of  $f$  over  $[a, b]$  and is denoted by  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ .
3. Geometrically, the definite integral corresponds to a signed area. In terms of  $A_{\text{net}}$  and  $A_{\text{above}}$ ,  $\int_a^b f(x) dx = A_{\text{net}}$ .
4. Thus, the value of  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$  is **the signed area under the curve  $y = f(x)$  from  $x = a$  to  $x = b$** .

## Problem Set 4.2

In Problems 1 and 2 estimate the Riemann sum suggested by each figure.

1.



2.



In Problems 3–6, calculate the Riemann sum  $\sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i) \Delta x$  for the given data.

$$3. \quad \begin{array}{ccccccc} x_i & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ f(x_i) & 4 & 6 & 9 & 16 & 25 & 36 \end{array}$$

$$4. \quad f(x_i) = x_i^2 + 3, \quad \Delta x = 1, \quad 3 \leq x_1 < x_2 \leq x_3 \leq x_4 \leq x_5 \leq x_6 \leq 2$$

5.  $f(x) = x^2(2 + x)$ ,  $[2, 3]$  is divided into eight equal subintervals.  $x_5$  is the midpoint.

$$6. \quad \begin{array}{ccccccc} x_i & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ f(x_i) & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \end{array}$$

In Problems 7–10 use the given values of  $n$  and  $b$  and express the given limit as a definite integral.

$$7. \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{n} \Delta x, \quad a = 0, \quad b = 1$$

$$8. \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i + 1)^4 \Delta x, \quad a = 0, \quad b = 1$$

$$9. \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{x_i^2} \Delta x, \quad a = 1, \quad b = 2$$

$$10. \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n \sin \left( \frac{3x_i + 1}{n} \right) \Delta x, \quad a = 0, \quad b = \pi$$

11. In Problems 11–16, evaluate the definite integrals using the definitions, as in Examples 3 and 4.

$$11. \quad \int_0^1 (x + 1) \, dx$$

$$12. \quad \int_1^2 (x^2 + 1) \, dx$$

Hint: Use  $x_0 = 0$ ,  $x_n = 2$ ,  $n$ .

$$13. \quad \int_0^1 x^2 \, dx$$

$$14. \quad \int_1^2 x^2 \, dx$$

Hint: Use  $x_0 = 0$ ,  $x_n = 2$ ,  $n$ .

$$15. \quad \int_0^1 x^2 \, dx$$

$$16. \quad \int_0^1 x^2 \, dx$$

In Problems 17–22 calculate  $\int_a^b f(x) \, dx$ , where  $a$  and  $b$  are the left and right endpoints for which  $f$  is defined, by using the Definite Integral Property and the appropriate area formulas from plane geometry. Begin by graphing the given function.

$$17. \quad f(x) = \begin{cases} 2 & \text{if } 0 \leq x \leq 1 \\ 1 & \text{if } 1 < x \leq 2 \end{cases}$$

$$18. \quad f(x) = \begin{cases} 3x & \text{if } 0 \leq x \leq 1 \\ 2(x-1) + 2 & \text{if } 1 < x \leq 2 \end{cases}$$

$$19. \quad f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } 0 \leq x \leq 1 \\ 2 & \text{if } 1 < x \leq 2 \end{cases}$$

$$20. \quad f(x) = \begin{cases} -\sqrt{4-x^2} & \text{if } -2 \leq x \leq 0 \\ -2x-2 & \text{if } 0 < x \leq 2 \end{cases}$$

$$21. \quad f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } 0 \leq x \leq 1 \\ 2 & \text{if } 1 < x \leq 2 \end{cases}$$

$$22. \quad f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } 0 \leq x \leq 1 \\ 2 & \text{if } 1 < x \leq 2 \end{cases}$$

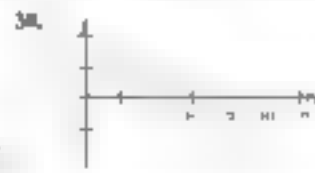
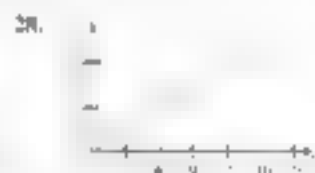
In Problems 23–26, the velocity function for an object is given. Assuming that the object is at the origin at time  $t = 0$ , find the position at time  $t = 2$ .

$$23. \quad v(t) = 3t^2 - 4t + 1, \quad 0 \leq t \leq 2$$

$$24. \quad v(t) = 2t^2 - 3t + 1, \quad 0 \leq t \leq 2$$

$$25. \quad v(t) = \begin{cases} \sqrt{4-t^2} & \text{if } 0 \leq t \leq 2 \\ 0 & \text{if } 2 < t \leq 4 \end{cases}$$

In Problems 27–30, an object's velocity function is graphed. Use the graph to determine the object's position at times  $t = 20$ , 40, 60, 80, 100, and 120 assuming the object is at the origin at time  $t = 0$ .



31. Recall that  $\lfloor x \rfloor$  denotes the greatest integer less than or equal to  $x$ . Calculate each of the following integrals. You may use geometric reasoning and the fact that  $\int_0^1 x^2 \, dx = \frac{1}{3}$ . (The latter is shown in Problem 34.)

$$(a) \quad \int_0^1 \lfloor x \rfloor \, dx$$

$$(b) \quad \int_0^1 \lfloor x \rfloor^2 \, dx$$

$$(c) \quad \int_0^1 \lfloor x \rfloor \, dx$$

$$(d) \quad \int_0^1 \lfloor x \rfloor \, dx$$



Near the end of Section 4.1 we studied a problem in which the velocity of an object at time  $t$  is given by  $v = f(t) = \frac{1}{6}t^2 + 1$ . We found that the distance traveled from time  $t = 0$  to time  $t = 3$  is equal to

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n v_i \Delta t = \frac{129}{16}.$$

Using the terminology from Section 4.2, we now see that the distance traveled from time  $t = 0$  to time  $t = 3$  is equal to the definite integral

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n v_i \Delta t = \int_0^3 v \, dt.$$

Since the velocity is positive for all  $t \geq 0$ , the distance traveled from time  $t = 0$  to time  $t = 3$  is equal to the position of the object at time 3. If the velocity were negative for some value of  $t$ , then a negative object would be traveling backward and the distance such an object travels would not equal position. We can use the same reasoning to find that the distance  $s$  traveled from time  $t = 0$  to time  $t = a$  is

$$s(a) = \int_0^a f(t) \, dt.$$

The question we now pose is this: What is the derivative of  $s$ ?

Since the derivative of distance traveled (as long as the velocity is always positive) is the velocity, we have

$$s'(a) = f(a) = v(a).$$

In other words,

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_a^x f(t) \, dt = f(x) = f(a).$$

Now, define  $A(x)$  to be the area under the graph of  $y = \frac{1}{x^2} + \frac{2}{x}$  above the  $x$ -axis and between  $x = 0$  to  $x$  on the  $x$ -axis, where  $x > 0$  (see Figure 4.3). A function such as this is called an **accumulation function** because it accumulates area under a curve from the  $x$ -axis to  $x$  (in this case, a variable value in this case). What is the derivative of  $A$ ?

The area  $A(x)$  is equal to the definite integral

$$A(x) = \int_0^x \left( \frac{1}{t^2} + \frac{2}{t} \right) dt.$$

In this case, we can evaluate this definite integral using a geometric formula. In  $A(x)$  is just the area of a trapezoid. (A

$$A(x) = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1}{x^2} + \frac{2}{x} \right) x = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1}{x} + 2 \right) x = \frac{1}{2} \left( 1 + 2x \right).$$

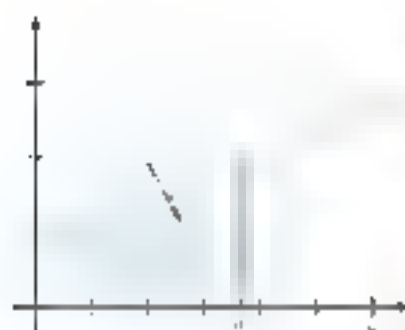
With this done, we see that the derivative of  $A$  is

$$A'(x) = \frac{d}{dx} \left( \frac{1}{2} \left( 1 + 2x \right) \right) = \frac{1}{2} \left( 0 + 2 \right) = 1 = \frac{1}{x^2} + \frac{2}{x}.$$

In other words,

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_0^x \left( \frac{1}{t^2} + \frac{2}{t} \right) dt = \frac{1}{x^2} + \frac{2}{x}.$$

Let us define another accumulation function  $B$  as the area under the curve  $y = \frac{1}{x^2}$  above the  $x$ -axis to the right of the origin and to the left of the line  $x = x$ .

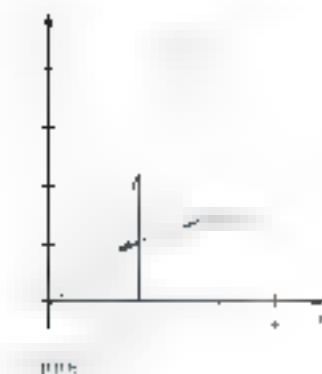


■ The limit rule theorem  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i) \Delta x$  is a family of functions of  $a$ .

■ The definite integral  $\int_a^b f(x) \, dx$  is a function provided  $a$  and  $b$  are fixed.

■ If the upper limit of a definite integral is a variable  $x$ , then the definite integral (e.g.,  $\int_0^x f(t) \, dt$ ) is a function of  $x$ .

■ A function of the form  $F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) \, dt$  is called an **accumulation function**.



where  $\Delta x > 0$  (see Figure 3). This area is given by the definite integral  $\int_0^1 f(x) dx$ . To find this area we first construct a Riemann sum. We use a regular partition  $P_n$  and evaluate the function at the right end point of each subinterval. Then  $\Delta x = 1/n$  and the right end point of the  $i$ th interval is  $x_i = i/n$ . The Riemann sum is therefore

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i) \Delta x &= \sum_{i=1}^n f\left(\frac{i}{n}\right) \frac{1}{n} \\&= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{n} \\&= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n 1 \\&= \frac{1}{n^2} n(n+1+2n+1) \\&= \frac{1}{n^2} 3n^2 + \frac{2}{n}.\end{aligned}$$

The definite integral is the limit of these Riemann sums,

$$\begin{aligned}\int_0^1 f(x) dx &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i) \Delta x \\&= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3n^2 + 2n + 1}{n^2} \\&= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3 + \frac{2}{n} + \frac{1}{n^2}}{1} \\&= 3 + 0 + 0 \\&= 3.\end{aligned}$$

Thus  $B(x) = x^3/3$ , so the derivative of  $B$  is

$$B'(x) = \frac{d}{dx} \frac{x^3}{3} = x^2.$$

In other words,

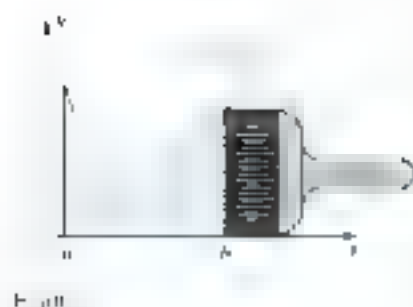
$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_a^x f(t) dt = f(x).$$

The result of these last three boxed equations shows that to determine if an accumulation function is equal to the function being accumulated,  $B(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$ , is this always the case? And why should this be the case?

Suppose that we are using a “ruler-like” partition  $P_n$  on the region under a curve. (By “ruler-like” we mean that the brush becomes wider as  $n$  gets larger.) If  $n$  is small, the right side of the partition is large, the width of the brush is wide when the function values are large and narrow when the function values are small (see Figure 3). With this arrangement, accuracy is affected in the painted area, and the rate of accumulation is affected in which the rate of accumulation is not at which point it being applied is equal to the width of the brush. Effect the height of the function. We can restate this result as follows.

**The rate of accumulation at  $t = a$  is equal to the value of the function being accumulated at  $t = a$ .**

This is a restatement of the First Fundamental Theorem of Calculus (see *fundamental*) because it links the derivative and the definite integral, the most important kinds of limits you have studied so far.



**Theorem 4.1** First Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

Let  $f$  be continuous on the closed interval  $[a, b]$  and let  $x$  be a variable point in  $(a, b)$ . Then

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_a^x f(t) \, dt = f(x)$$

**Sketch of Proof** For now we present a sketch of the proof. The sketch shows the important features of the proof, but a complete proof must wait until we have

established a few other results. For  $x$  in  $(a, b)$ , define  $F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) \, dt$ . The  $f$  on  $(a, b)$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dx} \int_a^x f(t) \, dt &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{F(x+h) - F(x)}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\int_a^{x+h} f(t) \, dt - \int_a^x f(t) \, dt}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \int_x^{x+h} f(t) \, dt \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \int_x^{x+h} 1 \, dt = f(x) \end{aligned}$$

The last line follows from the Mean Value Theorem. When  $h$  is small,  $f$  does not change much over the interval  $[x, x+h]$ . On this interval,  $f$  is roughly equal to  $f(x)$ , so we can approximate the integral by the area of a rectangle. The area under the curve  $y = f(x)$  from  $x$  to  $x+h$  is approximately equal to the area of the rectangle with width  $h$  and height  $f(x)$ .

that is,  $\int_x^{x+h} f(t) \, dt \approx hf(x)$ . Therefore,

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_a^x f(t) \, dt = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{h} [hf(x)] = f(x)$$

Of course the flaw in this argument is that  $h$  is never zero, and so the interval  $[x, x+h]$  always changes over the interval  $[a, b]$ . We will prove the First Fundamental Theorem in this section.

Figure 4.1 shows that the area under the curve  $y = f(x)$  from  $a$  to  $b$  is the same as the area under the curve  $y = f(x)$  from  $a$  to  $c$  plus the area under the curve  $y = f(x)$  from  $c$  to  $b$ . This property of definite integrals is called the Additive Property of Definite Integrals.

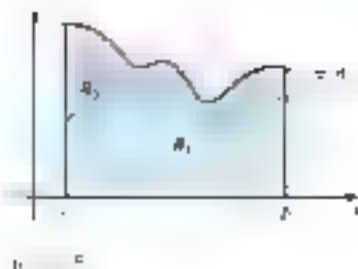
**Theorem 4.2** Comparison Property

If  $f$  and  $g$  are integrable on  $[a, b]$  and if  $f(x) \leq g(x)$  for all  $x$  in  $[a, b]$ , then

$$\int_a^b f(x) \, dx \leq \int_a^b g(x) \, dx$$

In informal but descriptive language we say that the definite integrals preserve inequalities.

**Proof** Let  $P: a = x_0 < x_1 < x_2 < \cdots < x_n = b$  be an arbitrary partition of  $[a, b]$  and for each  $i$  let  $\xi_i$  be any sample point on the  $i$ th subinterval  $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ . We may conclude successively that



$$f(\bar{x}_i) \leq g(\bar{x}_i)$$

$$f(\bar{x}_i) \Delta x \leq g(\bar{x}_i) \Delta x$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n f(\bar{x}_i) \Delta x \leq \sum_{i=1}^n g(\bar{x}_i) \Delta x$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n f(\bar{x}_i) \Delta x \leq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n g(\bar{x}_i) \Delta x$$

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \leq \int_a^b g(x) dx$$

### Theorem 5 Boundedness Property

If  $f$  is integrable on  $[a, b]$  and  $m \leq f(x) \leq M$  for all  $x$  in  $[a, b]$ , then

$$m(b-a) \leq \int_a^b f(x) dx \leq M(b-a)$$

**Proof** The picture in Figure 6 helps us to understand the theorem. Notice that  $m(b-a)$  is the area of the lower, small rectangle.  $M(b-a)$  is the area of the upper rectangle. Also,  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$  is the area under the curve.

To prove the right-hand inequality, let  $A = M(b-a) - \int_a^b f(x) dx$ . By Theorem B,

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \leq \int_a^b g(x) dx$$

However,  $\int_a^b g(x) dx$  is equal to the area of a rectangle with width  $b-a$  and height  $M$ . Thus,

$$\int_a^b g(x) dx = M(b-a)$$

The left-hand inequality is handled similarly. ■

Let  $f$  and  $g$  be functions on  $[a, b]$  and let  $k$  and  $c$  be constants. We learned by Theorem 4 that  $\int_a^b kf(x) dx = k \int_a^b f(x) dx$  and  $\int_a^b cf(x) dx = c \int_a^b f(x) dx$ . If  $D_1 \int_a^b f(x) dx$  and  $D_2 \int_a^b g(x) dx$  are linear operators. You can add  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$  to the list.

### Theorem 6 Linearity of the Definite Integral

Suppose that  $f$  and  $g$  are integrable on  $[a, b]$  and that  $k$  is a constant. Then  $kf$  and  $f + g$  are integrable and

$$(i) \quad \int_a^b k f(x) dx = k \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

$$(ii) \quad \int_a^b [f(x) + g(x)] dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx + \int_a^b g(x) dx \text{ and}$$

$$(iii) \quad \int_a^b [f(x) - g(x)] dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx - \int_a^b g(x) dx$$

**Proof** The proofs of (i) and (ii) depend on the linearity of  $\int$  and the properties of limits. We show (i).

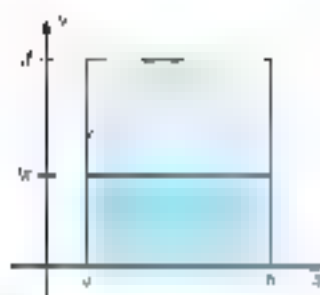


FIGURE 6

$$\begin{aligned}
 \int_a^b [f(x) + g(x)] dx &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n [f(\bar{x}_i) + g(\bar{x}_i)] \Delta x_i \\
 &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left[ \sum_{i=1}^n [f(\bar{x}_i) \Delta x_i] + \sum_{i=1}^n [g(\bar{x}_i) \Delta x_i] \right] \\
 &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n f(\bar{x}_i) \Delta x_i + \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n g(\bar{x}_i) \Delta x_i \\
 &= \int_a^b f(x) dx + \int_a^b g(x) dx
 \end{aligned}$$

Part (ii) follows from (i) and (ii) on writing  $f(x) = g(x) + 0$ .  $\blacksquare$

**Proof of the First Fundamental Theorem of Calculus** With these results in hand, we are now ready to prove the first fundamental theorem of calculus.

**Proof** In the sketch of the proof presented earlier, we defined  $F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$ , and we established the fact that

$$F(x+h) - F(x) = \int_x^{x+h} f(t) dt.$$

Assume for the moment that  $h > 0$  and let  $m$  and  $M$  be the minimum and the maximum value, respectively, of  $f$  on the closed interval  $[x, x+h]$ . By Theorem C

$$mh \leq \int_x^{x+h} f(t) dt \leq Mh$$

or

$$mh \leq F(x+h) - F(x) \leq Mh$$

Dividing by  $h$ , we obtain

$$m \leq \frac{F(x+h) - F(x)}{h} \leq M$$

Now  $m$  and  $M$  really do depend on  $h$ . Moreover, since  $f$  is continuous,  $m$  and  $M$  must approach  $f(x)$  as  $h \rightarrow 0$ . Thus, by the Squeeze Theorem

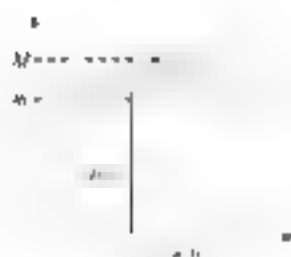
$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{F(x+h) - F(x)}{h} = f(x)$$

The case where  $h < 0$  is handled similarly.  $\blacksquare$

One theoretical consequence of this theorem is that every continuous function  $f$  has an antiderivative  $F$  given by the accumulation rule (ii).

$$F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$$

However, this fact is not helpful in getting a formula for any particular function. Section 4.6 gives several examples of important functions that are defined as accumulation functions. In Chapter 6 we will define the natural logarithm function as an accumulation function.





**EXAMPLE 1** Find  $\frac{d}{dx} \left[ \int_1^x t^3 dt \right]$

**SOLUTION** By the First Fundamental Theorem of Calculus,

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_1^x t^3 dt = x^3$$

**EXAMPLE 2** Find  $\frac{d}{dx} \int_2^x \frac{t^{3/2}}{\sqrt{t^2 + 17}} dt$

**SOLUTION** We challenge anyone to do this exercise by first computing the integral. However, by the First Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, it is a trivial problem.

$$\frac{d}{dx} \left[ \int_2^x \frac{t^{3/2}}{\sqrt{t^2 + 17}} dt \right] = \frac{x^{3/2}}{\sqrt{x^2 + 17}}$$

**EXAMPLE 3** Find  $\frac{d}{dx} \int_0^x \tan u \cos u du$ ,  $0 < x < \frac{\pi}{2}$

**SOLUTION** Use of the dummy variable  $u$  (rather than  $t$ ) lets us differentiate across. However, the fact that  $\cos u$  is not a constant makes the problem a bit troublesome. Here is how we handle this difficulty.

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dx} \left[ \int_0^x \tan u \cos u du \right] &= \frac{d}{dx} \left[ \int_0^x \sin u du \right] \\ &= \frac{d}{dx} \left[ \int_0^x \sin u \cos u du + \int_0^x \sin u (1 - \cos u) du \right] \end{aligned}$$

The interchange of the upper and lower limits is allowed. We find a helpful identity (Exercise 4) that by definition  $\int f(x) dx = \int f(t) dt$ .

**EXAMPLE 4** Find  $D_x \int_0^x (3t - 1) dt$  in two ways.

**SOLUTION** One way to find the derivative is to apply the First Fundamental Theorem of Calculus; at another point we have a new interpretation of the integrand  $f$  rather than  $F$ . The problem is handled by the Chain Rule. We may think of the expression in brackets as

$$\int_0^x (3u - 1) du \quad \text{where } u = x$$

By the Chain Rule, the derivative with respect to  $x$  of this composite function is

$$D_x \left[ \int_0^x (3u - 1) du \right] = D_u = (3u - 1)(2x) = (3x - 1)(2x) = 6x^2 - 2x$$

Another way to find this derivative is to evaluate the definite integral as an area using our rules for derivatives. The definite integral  $\int_0^x (3t - 1) dt$  is the area between the line  $y = 3t - 1$  between  $t = 0$  and  $t = x$  (see Figure 6). Since the area of this trapezoid is  $\frac{1}{2}(x + 1)(3x - 1) = \frac{1}{2}(3x^2 - x)$ ,



Figure 6

$$\int_0^x (3t - 1) dt = \frac{3}{2}x^2 - x$$

Thus

$$D_x \int_0^x (3t - 1) dt = D \left( \frac{3}{2}x^2 - x \right) = 3x - 1$$

For any  $a < x < b$ ,  $F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$  is the antiderivative we saw how to find in the first example. Initially at  $x = a$  we have a definite integral of the velocity function. The definite integral accumulates distance as the object moves in the positive direction.

**EXAMPLE 4** An object at the origin at time  $t = 0$  has velocity measured in meters per second,

$$v(t) = \begin{cases} 20 & \text{if } 0 \leq t \leq 40 \\ 5 - \frac{1}{20}t & \text{if } 40 \leq t \leq 60 \end{cases}$$

When, if ever, does the object return to the origin?

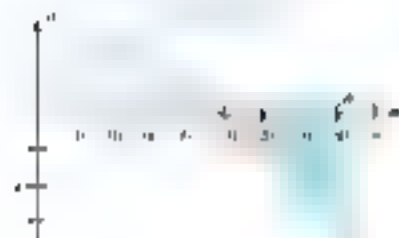
**SOLUTION** Let  $f(t) = v(t)$  denote the position of the object as a function of time  $t$  in seconds. At  $t = 0$ , the object is at the origin. If the object returns to the origin at some time  $t$ , then a time value  $T$  exists such that the equation  $f(t) = 0$  holds. If  $T$  is greater than 40, because the area below the curve is negative, it must equal the area above the curve and below the  $t$ -axis to be zero. If not, it is not.

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \int_0^T v(t) dt = \int_0^{40} v(t) dt + \int_{40}^T v(t) dt \\ &= \frac{1}{2}40 \cdot 20 + 20 \cdot 20 + \frac{1}{2}40 \cdot 2 + \int_{100}^T (5 - t/20) dt \\ &= 1200 + \frac{1}{2}(40 - (T - 100)) \cdot 5 = 0 \\ &= -130 + 5T = \frac{1}{40}T^2 \end{aligned}$$

We must then set  $f(T) = 0$ . The two solutions of this quadratic equation are  $T = 0$  or  $40\sqrt{3}$ . Taking the minus sign gives a value less than 0, which cannot be the solution so, we discard it. The other solution is  $100 + 40\sqrt{3} \approx 169.3$ . Let's check the solution.

$$\begin{aligned} f(100 + 40\sqrt{3}) &= \int_0^{100 + 40\sqrt{3}} v(t) dt \\ &= \int_0^{40} v(t) dt + \int_{40}^{100 + 40\sqrt{3}} v(t) dt \\ &= 1200 + \frac{1}{2}(100 + 40\sqrt{3} - 100)(5 - (100 + 40\sqrt{3})/20) \end{aligned}$$

Thus, the object returns to the origin at time  $t = 0$  or  $40\sqrt{3} \approx 169.3$  seconds.



the next example shows a way to find  $y$  rather awkward way (in evaluating a definite integral). This method seems long and cumbersome, by present. The next section deals with efficient ways to evaluate definite integrals.

**EXAMPLE 6** Let  $A(x) = \int_1^x dt$ .

- (a) Let  $y = A(x)$  and show that  $dy/dx = x^{-1}$ .  
 (b) Find the solution of the differential equation  $dy/dx = x^{-1}$  that satisfies  $y = 0$  when  $x = 1$ .  
 (c) Find  $\int_1^4 t^2 dt$ .

#### ■ SOLUTION

(a) By the First Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_1^x t^{-1} dt = x^{-1} = \frac{1}{x}.$$

(b) Since the differential equation  $dy/dx = x^{-1}$  is separable, we can write

$$dy = x^{-1} dx.$$

Integrating both sides gives

$$y = \int x^{-1} dx = \frac{x^{-1}}{-1} + C.$$

When  $x = 1$ , we must have  $y = 0$ ; that is,  $0 = \int_1^1 t^{-1} dt = 0$ . Thus we choose  $C = 0$ , so

$$y = \frac{1}{x} = x^{-1}.$$

Therefore,  $C = -1/4$ . The solution to the differential equation is that  $y = x^{-1} + C = x^{-1} - 1/4$ .

(c) Since  $y = A(x) = x^3/3 + 1/4$ , we have

$$\int_1^4 t^2 dt = A(4) - A(1) = \frac{4^3}{3} - \frac{1}{4} = 64 - \frac{1}{4} = \frac{255}{4}.$$

## Concepts Review

1. Since  $4 \leq x^2 \leq 16$  for all  $x$  in  $(2, 4)$ , the Boundedness Property of the definite integral allows us to say that

$$2 \leq \frac{1}{x^2} \leq 4 \text{ for all } x \text{ in } (2, 4).$$

2. By linearity,  $\int_1^2 cf(x) dx = c \int_1^2 f(x) dx$  and

$$\int_1^2 (f(x) + g(x)) dx = \int_1^2 f(x) dx + \int_1^2 g(x) dx.$$

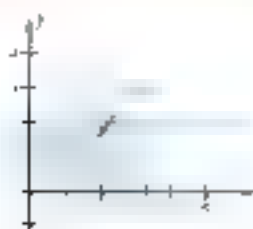
then the Comparison Property allows us to say that

$$\int_1^2 g(x) dx \leq \int_1^2 f(x) dx.$$

## Problem Set 4.3

In Problems 1–8, find a formula for and graph the accumulation function that is defined by the integrals below.

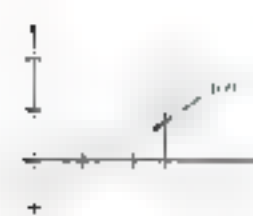
1.



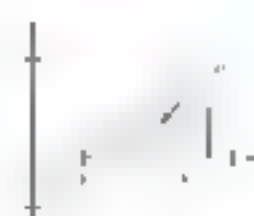
2.



3.



4.



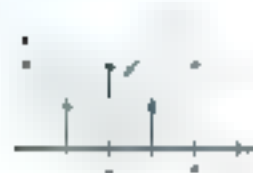
5.



6.



7.



8.



Suppose that  $\int_a^b f(x) dx = 4$ ,  $\int_b^c f(x) dx = 2$ , and  $\int_c^d f(x) dx = 1$ .  
 Find  $\int_a^d f(x) dx$ .  
 In Problems 9–16, use the properties of definite integrals to evaluate each of the integrals in Problems 9–16.

9.  $\int_0^2 2f(x) dx$

10.  $\int_0^2 2f(x) dx$

11.  $\int_0^2 2f(x) + g(x) dx$

12.  $\int_0^2 [2f(x) + g(x)] dx$

13.  $\int_0^2 f(x) dx$

14.  $\int_0^2 f(x) dx$

15.  $\int_0^2 3f(x) - 2g(x) dx$

16.  $\int_0^2 f(x) dx$

In Problems 17–30, find  $G'(x)$ .

17.  $G(x) = \int_1^x 2t dt$

18.  $G(x) = \int_0^x 2t dt$

19.  $G(x) = \int_0^x \sqrt{t} dt$

20.  $G(x) = \int_0^x \cos^2 t \sin t dt$ ,  $-\pi/2 < x < \pi/2$

21.  $G(x) = \int_0^x (t - 2) \cos t dt$ ,  $0 < x < \pi/2$

22.  $G(x) = \int_0^x \ln t dt$

23.  $G(x) = \int_0^x \sin t dt$

24.  $G(x) = \int_0^x \sqrt{t} dt$

25.  $G(x) = \int_0^x t^2 dt$

26.  $G(x) = \int_0^x t dt$

27. Suppose that  $\int_0^1 f(x) dx = 4$ ,  $\int_1^2 f(x) dx = 2$ , and  $\int_2^3 f(x) dx = 1$ .  
 Find  $\int_0^3 f(x) dx$ .

28.  $f(x) = \int_0^x \frac{t}{\sqrt{1+t^2}} dt$

29.  $f(x) = \int_0^x \frac{1+t}{t^2} dt$

30.  $\int_0^1 \sin t dt$

31.  $\int_0^1 \sin t dt$

32.  $f(x) = \int_0^x t dt$

33.  $f(x)$  is the accumulation function  $A(x)$  in Problem 6.

In Problems 34–36, use the First Fundamental Theorem of Calculus to evaluate  $\int_0^1 f(x) dx$ . Begin by sketching or graphing  $f$ .

34.  $f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 & 0 \leq x \leq 1 \\ 1 & 1 < x \leq 2 \end{cases}$

35.  $f(x) = \begin{cases} x & 0 \leq x \leq 1 \\ 1 & 1 < x \leq 2 \end{cases}$

36.  $f(x) = 3 - x^2$

37. Consider the function  $G(x) = \int_0^x f(t) dt$ , where  $f(t)$  oscillates about the line  $y = 2$  over the  $x$ -region  $[0, 10]$  and is given in Figure 1.

- At what values of  $x$  over this region do the local maxima and minima of  $G(x)$  occur?
- Where does  $G(x)$  attain its absolute maximum and absolute minimum?
- On what intervals is  $G(x)$  concave down?
- Sketch a graph of  $G(x)$ .



Figure 1

38. Perform the same analysis as you did in Problem 37 for the function  $G(x) = \int_0^x f(t) dt$  given by Figure 2, where  $f(t)$  oscillates about the line  $y = 3$  for the interval  $[0, 10]$ .

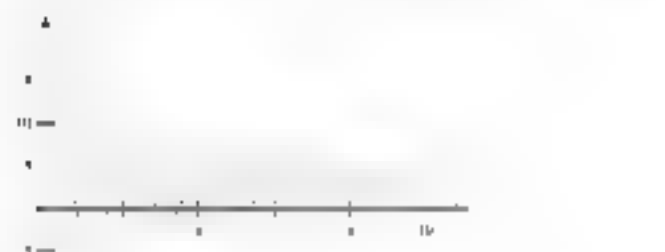


Figure 2

39. Let  $F(x) = \int_0^x (t^3 + 1) dt$ .
- Find  $F(4)$ .
  - Let  $y = F(x)$ . Apply the First Fundamental Theorem of Calculus to obtain  $dy/dx = F'(x) = x^3 + 1$ . Solve the differential equation  $dy/dx = x^3 + 1$ .
  - Find the solution to this differential equation that satisfies  $F(0) = 0$  when  $x = 0$ .
  - Show that  $\int_0^4 (t^3 + 1) dt = \frac{64}{4} + 4$ .
40. Let  $G(x) = \int_0^x \sin t dt$ .
- Find  $G'$  and  $G(2\pi)$ .
  - Let  $y = G(x)$ . Apply the First Fundamental Theorem of Calculus to obtain  $dy/dx = G'(x) = \sin x$ . Solve the differential equation  $dy/dx = \sin x$ .
  - Find the solution to this differential equation that satisfies  $G(0) = 0$  when  $x = 0$ .
  - Show that  $\int_0^{\pi} \sin x dx = 2$ .

41. Find all relative extrema and inflection points of  $G(x)$  on the interval  $[0, 4\pi]$ .

(f) Plot a graph of  $y = G(x)$  over the interval  $[0, 4\pi]$ .

42. Show that  $1 \leq \sqrt{1+x^2} \leq \frac{5}{4} + x^2$  for  $x$  in the closed interval  $[0, 1]$ . Explain why

$1 \leq \sqrt{1+x^2} \leq 1 + x^2$  for  $x$  in the closed interval  $[0, 1]$ . Then use the Comparison Property (Theorem B) and the result of Problem 42.

43. Show that  $\int_2^5 \sqrt{1+x^2} dx \geq \frac{21}{5}$ . (See the hint in Problem 42.)

44. In Problems 45–49, use a graphing calculator to graph each function. Then use the function trace option. Then use the window settings and an appropriate viewing rectangle to graph each function.

45.  $\int_0^x (5 + t^2) dt$       46.  $\int_0^x (x + 4)^3 dx$

47.  $\int_0^x (1 + e^{-t}) dt$       48.  $\int_0^x (x + 4)^3 dx$

49.  $\int_0^x (1 + \frac{1}{t}) dt$       50.  $\int_0^x (x + 4)^3 dx$

51.  $\int_0^x (x + 4)^3 dx$       52.  $\int_0^x (x + 4)^3 dx$

53.  $\int_0^x (x + 4)^3 dx$       54.  $\int_0^x (x + 4)^3 dx$

55.  $\int_0^x (x + 4)^3 dx$       56.  $\int_0^x (x + 4)^3 dx$

57.  $\int_0^x (x + 4)^3 dx$       58.  $\int_0^x (x + 4)^3 dx$

59.  $\int_0^x (x + 4)^3 dx$       60.  $\int_0^x (x + 4)^3 dx$

61.  $\int_0^x (x + 4)^3 dx$       62.  $\int_0^x (x + 4)^3 dx$

63.  $\int_0^x (x + 4)^3 dx$       64.  $\int_0^x (x + 4)^3 dx$

65.  $\int_0^x (x + 4)^3 dx$       66.  $\int_0^x (x + 4)^3 dx$

67.  $\int_0^x (x + 4)^3 dx$       68.  $\int_0^x (x + 4)^3 dx$

69.  $\int_0^x (x + 4)^3 dx$       70.  $\int_0^x (x + 4)^3 dx$

71.  $\int_0^x (x + 4)^3 dx$       72.  $\int_0^x (x + 4)^3 dx$

73.  $\int_0^x (x + 4)^3 dx$       74.  $\int_0^x (x + 4)^3 dx$

75.  $\int_0^x (x + 4)^3 dx$       76.  $\int_0^x (x + 4)^3 dx$

77.  $\int_0^x (x + 4)^3 dx$       78.  $\int_0^x (x + 4)^3 dx$

79.  $\int_0^x (x + 4)^3 dx$       80.  $\int_0^x (x + 4)^3 dx$

81.  $\int_0^x (x + 4)^3 dx$       82.  $\int_0^x (x + 4)^3 dx$

83.  $\int_0^x (x + 4)^3 dx$       84.  $\int_0^x (x + 4)^3 dx$

85.  $\int_0^x (x + 4)^3 dx$       86.  $\int_0^x (x + 4)^3 dx$

87.  $\int_0^x (x + 4)^3 dx$       88.  $\int_0^x (x + 4)^3 dx$

89.  $\int_0^x (x + 4)^3 dx$       90.  $\int_0^x (x + 4)^3 dx$



In Section 3.8, we defined the *indefinite integral* as an antiderivative. In Section 4.2, we defined the *definite integral* as the limit of a Riemann sum. We use the same word “integral” in each case, although of the “indefinite” and “definite” type. It is a punner between the two. The word “is fundamental” because it shows how indefinite integration and differentiation, and definite integration and signed area, are related. Before going on to examples, ask yourself why we can use the word “is” in the statement of the theorem.

**EXAMPLE 1** Show that  $\int_a^b k \, dx = k(b - a)$  where  $k$  is a constant.

**SOLUTION**  $F(x) = kx$  is an antiderivative of  $f(x) = k$ . Thus, by the Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus,

$$\int_a^b k \, dx = F(b) - F(a) = kb - ka = k(b - a) \quad \blacksquare$$

**EXAMPLE 2** Show that  $\int_a^b x \, dx = \frac{b^2}{2} - \frac{a^2}{2}$ .

**SOLUTION**  $F(x) = x^2/2$  is an antiderivative of  $f(x) = x$ . Therefore,

$$\int_a^b x \, dx = F(b) - F(a) = \frac{b^2}{2} - \frac{a^2}{2} \quad \blacksquare$$

**EXAMPLE 3** Show that if  $r$  is a rational number with  $r \neq -1$ ,

$$\int_a^b x^r \, dx = \frac{b^{r+1}}{r+1} - \frac{a^{r+1}}{r+1}.$$

**SOLUTION**  $F(x) = x^{r+1}/(r+1)$  is an antiderivative of  $f(x) = x^r$ . Thus, by the Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus,

$$\int_a^b x^r \, dx = F(b) - F(a) = \frac{b^{r+1}}{r+1} - \frac{a^{r+1}}{r+1}.$$

If  $r < 0$ , we require that 0 not be in  $[a, b]$ . Why?  $\blacksquare$

It is convenient to introduce a special symbol for  $F(b) - F(a)$ . We write

$$F(b) - F(a) = F \Big|_a^b.$$

With this notation

$$\int_a^b x^r \, dx = \frac{x^{r+1}}{r+1} \Big|_a^b = \frac{b^{r+1}}{r+1} - \frac{a^{r+1}}{r+1}.$$

**EXAMPLE 4** Evaluate  $\int_{-1}^3 (4x - 6x^2) \, dx$

- (a) using the Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus directly and  
(b) using linearity (Theorem 4.2D) first.

**SOLUTION**

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(a)} \quad \int_{-1}^3 (4x - 6x^2) \, dx &= 2x^2 - 2x^3 \Big|_{-1}^3 \\ &= (18 - 54) - (2 - 2) = -36. \end{aligned}$$

(b) Using linearity first we have

$$\begin{aligned}\int (-4x^3 - 6x^2 - 3) dx &= -4 \int x^3 dx - 6 \int x^2 dx - 3 \int 1 dx \\&= -4 \frac{x^4}{4} - 6 \frac{x^3}{3} - 3x \\&= -x^4 - 2x^3 - 3x + C \\&= -\frac{4}{5}x^5 - \frac{2}{3}x^3 - 3x + C.\end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 5** Evaluate  $\int_1^8 (x^{1/2} + x^{3/2}) dx$ .

**SOLUTION**

$$\begin{aligned}\int_1^8 (x^{1/2} + x^{3/2}) dx &= \left[ \frac{2}{3}x^{3/2} + \frac{2}{5}x^{5/2} \right]_1^8 \\&= \left( \frac{2}{3} \cdot 16 + \frac{2}{5} \cdot 128 \right) - \left( \frac{2}{3} \cdot 1 + \frac{2}{5} \cdot 1 \right) \\&= \frac{16}{3} + \frac{256}{5} \approx 65.68.\end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 6** Evaluate  $\int_0^{\pi} 3 \sin t \, dt$  in two ways.

**SOLUTION** The easy way is to apply the First Fundamental Theorem of Calculus:

$$3 \int_0^{\pi} \sin t \, dt = -3 \cos t \Big|_0^{\pi}$$

A second way to solve this problem is to apply the Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus to evaluate the integral. First we find an antiderivative for  $\sin t$ :

$$\int_0^x 3 \sin t \, dt = [-3 \cos t]_0^x = -3 \cos x - (-3 \cos 0) = -3 \cos x + 3$$

Then

$$3 \int_0^{\pi} \sin t \, dt = 3[-3 \cos x + 3] = 3 \sin x$$

In terms of the symbol for the indefinite integral, we may write the conclusion of the Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus as

$$\int_a^b f(x) \, dx = \left[ \int f(x) \, dx \right]_a^b$$

The nontrivial part of applying the theorem above is finding the indefinite integral. One of the most powerful techniques for doing this is the method of substitution.

The rule for the derivative of  $\sin x$  is  $\cos x$  (see Section 3.6, where it is proved). Hence the antiderivative for the power rule. This rule can be extended to a more general case. The following theorem shows. An astute reader will see that the substitution rule is nothing more than the Chain Rule in reverse.



$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a)$$

The way to use the Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus is to evaluate a definite integral such as

$$\int_0^1 (x^2 + 1) dx$$

1. Specify an antiderivative,  $F(x)$ , of the integrand  $f(x)$ , and
2. substitute the limits and evaluate  $F(b) - F(a)$ .

This all hinges on being able to find an antiderivative. It is for this reason that we return briefly to the evaluation of *indefinite* integrals.

### THEOREM B Substitution Rule for Indefinite Integrals

Let  $g$  be a differentiable function and suppose that  $F$  is an antiderivative of  $f$ . Then

$$\int f(g(x))g'(x) dx = F(g(x)) + C$$

**Proof** All we need to do to prove this result is to show that the derivative of the right side is equal to the integrand of the integral on the left. This is a simple application of the Chain Rule.

$$D_x[F(g(x)) + C] = F'(g(x))g'(x) = f(g(x))g'(x) \quad \blacksquare$$

We normally apply Theorem B as follows. In an integral such as  $\int f(g(x))g'(x) dx$  we set  $u = g(x)$ , so that  $du/dx = g'(x)$ . Thus  $du = g'(x) dx$ . The integral then becomes

$$\int f(g(x))g'(x) dx = \int f(u) du = F(u) + C = F(g(x)) + C$$

Provided we can find an antiderivative for  $f(u)$ , we are then able to give  $g'(x) dx$ . The trick is applying the method of substitution to find an antiderivative. It is not making this case the substitutions obvious as some cases it is not so obvious. It usually is applying the method of substitution often by practice.

**EXAMPLE 7** Evaluate  $\int \sin 3x dx$ .

**SOLUTION** The obvious substitution here is  $u = 3x$  so that  $du = 3 dx$ . Thus

$$\begin{aligned} \int \sin 3x dx &= \int \frac{1}{3} \sin u \cdot \frac{du}{dx} \cdot dx \\ &= \frac{1}{3} \int \sin u du = -\frac{1}{3} \cos u + C = -\frac{1}{3} \cos 3x + C \end{aligned}$$

Notice how we had to multiply by  $\frac{1}{3}$  to make it have the expression  $du$  in the integral.  $\blacksquare$

**EXAMPLE 8** Evaluate  $\int x \ln x^2 dx$ .

**SOLUTION** Here the appropriate substitution is  $u = x^2$  (this gives  $du = 2x dx$ ) so  $u$  is the integrand but more important  $x$  is part of the integrand. It can be put with the differential, because  $du = 2x dx$ . Thus

$$\begin{aligned} \int x \ln x^2 dx &= \int \frac{1}{2} \ln u \cdot \frac{du}{dx} \cdot dx \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \int \ln u du = \frac{1}{2} \cos u + C = \frac{1}{2} \cos x^2 + C \quad \blacksquare \end{aligned}$$

No law says that you have to write out the  $u$ -substitution. If you can do the substitution mentally, that is fine. Here is an illustration.

**EXAMPLE 9** Evaluate  $\int x^3 \sqrt{x^4 + 11} \, dx$ .

**SOLUTION** Mentally substitute  $u = x^4 + 11$ .

$$\begin{aligned}\int x^3 \sqrt{x^4 + 11} \, dx &= \frac{1}{4} \int (u + 11)^{1/2} \, du \\ &= \frac{1}{6} (x^4 + 11)^{3/2} + C.\end{aligned}$$

#### What Makes This Substitution Work?

Note that in Example 9 the derivative of  $u$  is precisely  $4x^3$ . This is what makes the substitution work. If the expression in parentheses were  $1x + 1$  rather than  $4x + 1$ , the Substitution Rule would not apply and we would have a much more difficult problem.

**EXAMPLE 10** Evaluate  $\int_0^1 \sqrt{x^3 + x} \, dx$ .

**SOLUTION** Let  $u = x^2 + x$ ; then  $du = (2x + 1) \, dx$ . Thus,

$$\begin{aligned}\int \sqrt{x^3 + x} \, dx &= \int \sqrt{x} \sqrt{x^2 + 1} \, dx = \int u^{1/2} \, du = \frac{2}{3} u^{3/2} + C \\ &= \frac{2}{3} (x^2 + x)^{3/2} + C.\end{aligned}$$

Therefore, by the Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus,

$$\begin{aligned}\int_0^1 \sqrt{x^3 + x} \, dx &= \left[ \frac{2}{3} (x^2 + x)^{3/2} \right]_0^1 = \frac{2}{3} (2)^{3/2} - 0 \\ &= \frac{2}{3} (2\sqrt{2}) = \frac{4\sqrt{2}}{3} \approx 1.91.\end{aligned}$$

Note that we did not determine the integration constant  $C$  in Example 10, as we did in Example 9. This is why we do not mention it in the Substitution Rule. The next example shows that, in practice,  $du/dx$  is never 0, so that  $C$  is always chosen  $C = 0$  in applying the Second Fundamental Theorem.

**EXAMPLE 11** Evaluate  $\int_0^{\pi/4} \sin^2 2x \cos 2x \, dx$ .

**SOLUTION** Let  $u = \sin 2x$ ; then  $du = 2 \cos 2x \, dx$ . Thus,

$$\begin{aligned}\int_0^{\pi/4} \sin^2 2x \cos 2x \, dx &= \frac{1}{2} \int \underbrace{\sin^2 u}_{u^2} \underbrace{\cos u}_{du} \\ &= \frac{1}{6} u^3 = \frac{\sin^3 2x}{6}.\end{aligned}$$

Therefore, by the Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus,

$$\int_0^{\pi/4} \sin^2 2x \cos 2x \, dx = \left[ \frac{\sin^3 2x}{6} \right]_0^{\pi/4} = \frac{1}{6} - 0 = \frac{1}{6}.$$

Note that in the two-step procedure stated in Examples 9 and 10, we must be sure to express the integrand in terms of  $u$  before we apply the Second Fundamental Theorem. This is because the limits  $a$  and  $b$  in Example 11 apply to  $x$  not to  $u$ . But when determining the substitution  $u = g(x)$  in a problem, if we also make the corresponding changes in the limits of integration to  $u$ ,

$$\text{If } x = 0, \text{ then } u = g(0) = 2(0) = 0.$$

$$\text{If } x = \pi/4, \text{ then } u = g(\pi/4) = 2(\pi/4) = \pi/2.$$

Could we then finish the integration with the definite integral in terms of  $u$ ? The answer is yes:

$$\int_0^1 \sin^{-1} x \cos^{-1} x \, dx = \frac{1}{2} u^2 \Big|_0^1 = \frac{1}{2} - 0 = \frac{1}{2}.$$

Here is the general result, which lets us “abstract” the limits of integration, thereby producing a procedure with fewer steps.

### How to Use the Substitution Rule for Definite Integrals

To make a substitution in a definite integral, three changes are required:

1. Make the substitution in the integrand.
2. Make the appropriate change in the limits of integration.
3. Change the name from  $x$  and  $dx$  to  $u$  and  $du$ .

### Theorem 5 Substitution Rule for Definite Integrals

Let  $g$  have a continuous derivative on  $[a, b]$  and let  $f$  be continuous on the range of  $g$ . Then

$$\int_a^b f(g(x))g'(x) \, dx = \int_{g(a)}^{g(b)} f(u) \, du$$

where  $u = g(x)$ .

**Proof** Let  $F$  be an antiderivative of  $f$ . The existence of  $F$  is guaranteed by Theorem 4.4A. Then, by the Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus,

$$\int_a^b f(g(x))g'(x) \, dx = F(g(x)) \Big|_a^b = F(g(b)) - F(g(a)).$$

On the other hand, by the Substitution Rule for Indefinite Integrals, Theorem 5,

$$\int f(g(x))g'(x) \, dx = F(g(x)) + C$$

and so, again by the Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus,

$$\int_a^b f(g(x))g'(x) \, dx = F(g(x)) \Big|_a^b = F(g(b)) - F(g(a)). \quad \blacksquare$$

**EXAMPLE 5** Evaluate  $\int_0^1 \frac{x+1}{x^2+x^2+6} \, dx$ .

**SOLUTION** Let  $u = x^2 + 2x + 6$ , so  $du = (2x + 2) \, dx = 2(x + 1) \, dx$ , and note that  $u = 6$  when  $x = 0$  and  $u = 9$  when  $x = 1$ . Thus,

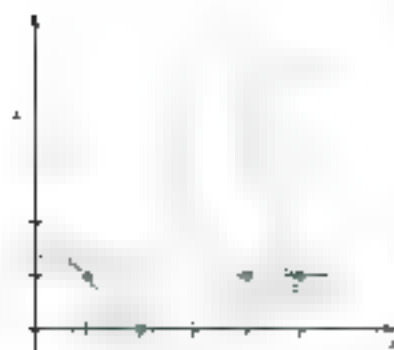
$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^1 \frac{x+1}{x^2+x^2+6} \, dx &= \frac{1}{2} \int_6^9 \frac{2}{u} \, du = \frac{1}{2} \int_6^9 \frac{1}{u} \, du = \frac{1}{2} \ln u \Big|_6^9 \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \ln 9 - \frac{1}{2} \ln 6 = \frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{9}{6} = \frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{3}{2}. \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 6** Evaluate  $\int_0^{\pi/2} \frac{\cos x}{\sqrt{1+\sin x}} \, dx$ .

**SOLUTION** Let  $u = 1 + \sin x$ , so  $du = \cos x \, dx$ . Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^{\pi/2} \frac{\cos x}{\sqrt{1+\sin x}} \, dx &= \int_1^2 \frac{1}{\sqrt{u}} \, du = 2 \int_1^2 \frac{1}{2\sqrt{u}} \, du \\ &= 2 \int_1^2 \frac{1}{2} u^{-1/2} \, du \\ &= 2 \left[ u^{1/2} \right]_1^2 = 2(\sqrt{2} - 1). \end{aligned}$$

The change in the limits of integration occurred as the second equality. When  $x = 0$ ,  $u = 1 + \sin 0 = 1$ , and when  $x = \pi/2$ ,  $u = 1 + \sin \pi/2 = 2$ .  $\blacksquare$



**EXAMPLE 4.4** Figure 1 shows the graph of a function  $f$  that has a continuous third derivative. The dashed lines are tangents to the graph of  $f$  at  $x = 3$  and  $x = 5$ . Based on what is shown, let us pose the question: the following integrals are positive, negative, or zero?

$$(a) \int_1^5 f(x) \, dx$$

$$(b) \int_1^5 f'(x) \, dx$$

$$(c) \int_1^5 f''(x) \, dx$$

$$(d) \int_1^5 f'''(x) \, dx$$

#### SOLUTION

(a) The function  $f$  is positive for all  $x$  in the interval  $[1, 5]$ , and the graph indicates that there is some area above the  $x$ -axis. Thus,  $\int_1^5 f(x) \, dx > 0$ .

(b) By the Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus,

$$\int_1^5 f'(x) \, dx = f(5) - f(1).$$

Again using the Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus (this time with  $f'$  being an antiderivative of  $f''$ ), we see that

$$\int_1^5 f''(x) \, dx = f'(5) - f'(1).$$

(d) The function  $f$  is concave up at  $x = 3$ , so  $f''(3) > 0$ , and it is concave down at  $x = 5$ , so  $f''(5) < 0$ . Thus,

$$\int_1^5 f'''(x) \, dx = f''(5) - f''(1) > 0.$$

This example illustrates the remarkable property that we can evaluate a definite integral without knowing the values of an antiderivative at the endpoints.

For example, to evaluate  $\int_1^5 x^2 \, dx$  as we needed, you would use  $\frac{1}{3}x^3$  and  $\frac{1}{3}$ . We do not need to know the values of any of the sums in the open intervals  $(1, 3)$  and  $(3, 5)$ .

**THEOREM 4.4 (The Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus)** The Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus can be restated in this way:

$$\int_a^b F'(t) \, dt = F(b) - F(a).$$

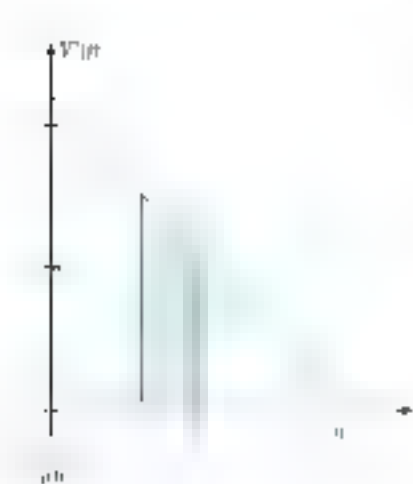
If  $F(t)$  measures the amount of some quantity at time  $t$ , then the Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus says that the net change in  $F$  if  $F$  change from time  $t = a$  to time  $t = b$  is equal to the net change in that quantity over the interval  $[a, b]$ , that is, the amount present at time  $b$  minus the amount present at time  $a$ .

**EXAMPLE 4.5** Water leaks out of a cylindrical tank at the rate  $V(t) = 1 - t$  gal/min, where  $t$  is measured in minutes and  $V$  in gal/min. See Figure 2. Initially, the tank is full. (a) How much water leaks out of the tank between  $t = 3$  and  $t = 5$  hours? (b) How long does it take until there are just 5 gal remaining in the tank?

**SOLUTION**  $V(t)$  represents the amount of water that has leaked out through time  $t$ .



Figure 2



- (a) The amount that has leaked out between  $t = 3$  and  $t = 5$  hours is equal to the area under the  $V'(t)$  curve from 3 to 5 (Figure 3). Thus

$$V(5) - V(3) = \int_3^5 V'(t) dt = \int_3^5 (11 - t^2) dt = \left[ 11t - \frac{1}{3}t^3 \right]_3^5 = 10.$$

Thus, 10 gallons leaked in the two hours between  $t = 3$  and  $t = 5$ .

- (b) Let  $t_5$  denote the time when 5 gallons remain in the tank. Then the amount that has leaked out is equal to 50, so  $V(t_5) = 50$ . Since the tank was initially full (i.e., nothing has leaked out), we have  $V(0) = 0$ . Thus

$$\begin{aligned} 50 &= V(t_5) - V(0) = \int_0^{t_5} V'(t) dt \\ &= \int_0^{t_5} (11 - t^2) dt \\ &= \left[ 11t - \frac{1}{3}t^3 \right]_0^{t_5} \\ &= 11t_5 - \frac{1}{3}t_5^3. \end{aligned}$$

The solutions of this last equation are  $t_5 = 0$  and  $t_5 \approx 6.085$  (approximately 6.085 and  $-6.085$ ). Note that since  $\frac{1}{3}t_5^3 = 11t_5 - 50$ , the entire tank is drained by time  $t = 10$ , leading us to discard the latter solution. Thus, 5 gallons remain after 6.085 hours. ■

## Concepts Review

1. If  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and  $F$  is any antiderivative of  $f$ , then  $\int_a^b f(x) dx =$  \_\_\_\_\_.

2. If  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$ , then  $\int_a^b f(x) dx =$  \_\_\_\_\_.

3. If  $F$  is any function, then  $\int_a^b F'(x) dx =$  \_\_\_\_\_.

4. Under the substitution  $u = g(x)$ , the definite integral  $\int_a^b f(g(x))g'(x) dx$  transforms to the new definite integral \_\_\_\_\_.

## Problem Set 4.4

In Problems 1–14, use the Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus to evaluate each definite integral.

1.  $\int_0^2 x^2 dx$

2.  $\int_1^4 x^3 dx$

3.  $\int_0^1 (x^2 + 1) dx$

4.  $\int_1^4 (x^2 + 1) dx$

5.  $\int_0^4 \frac{1}{\sqrt{u}} du$

6.  $\int_1^4 \frac{1}{\sqrt{u}} du$

7.  $\int_0^4 \frac{1}{\sqrt{u}} du$

8.  $\int_1^4 \frac{1}{\sqrt{u}} du$

9.  $\int_0^2 \cos u du$

10.  $\int_1^4 \cos u du$

11.  $\int_0^2 \cos u du$

12.  $\int_1^4 \cos u du$

13.  $\int_0^2 \sin u du$

14.  $\int_1^4 \sin u du$

In Problems 15–24, use the method of substitution to find each definite integral.

15.  $\int_0^1 \sqrt{3x+2} dx$

16.  $\int_0^1 \sqrt{3x+4} dx$

17.  $\int_0^1 \cos(x^2) dx$

18.  $\int_0^1 \sin(x^2) dx$

19.  $\int_0^1 \cos(x^2) dx$

20.  $\int_0^1 \sin(x^2) dx$

21.  $\int_0^1 x\sqrt{x^2+4} dx$

22.  $\int_0^1 x^2(x^2+3)^3 dx$

23.  $\int_0^1 x(x^2+3)^{1/2} dx$

24.  $\int_0^1 x(\sqrt{3x^2+2})^{1/2} dx$

25.  $\int_0^1 x \sin(x^2+4) dx$

26.  $\int_0^1 x \cos(x^2+3) dx$

27.  $\int_0^1 \frac{x \sin \sqrt{x}}{\sqrt{x^2+4}} dx$

28.  $\int_0^1 \frac{\cos \sqrt{x}}{\sqrt{x^2+4}} dx$

29.  $\int_0^1 (x^2 + 5x^4) \cos(x^3 + 5x^5) dx$

30.  $\int_0^1 x^2(7x^2 + \pi)^4 \sin[(7x^2 + \pi)^5] dx$

31.  $\int_1^2 x \cos(x^2 + 4) \sqrt{\sec(x^2 + 4)} dx$

32.  $\int_0^1 x^2 \sin(x^3 - 1) \sqrt{\sec(x^3 - 1) + 1} dx$

33.  $\int_0^1 x \sin(x^2 + 1) \cos(x^2 + 1) dx$

34.  $\int_0^1 x \sin(x^2 + 1) \cos(x^2 + 1) dx$   
 (Hint:  $f_1(x) = \sin(x^2 + 1)$ ,  $f_2(x) = \cos(x^2 + 1)$ )

In Problems 35–44, use the Substitution Rule for Definite Integrals to evaluate each definite integral.

35.  $\int_0^1 (x^2 + 1)^{-1/2} dx$       36.  $\int_0^1 \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + 1}} dx$

37.  $\int_0^1 \frac{1}{(x^2 + 2)^{3/2}} dx$       38.  $\int_0^1 \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + 1}} dx$

39.  $\int_0^1 \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + 1}} dx$       40.  $\int_0^1 \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + 1}} dx$

41.  $\int_0^1 \sqrt{1 - 2t^2} (4t) dt$       42.  $\int_0^1 \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - 2t^2}} dt$

43.  $\int_0^1 \cos^2 x \sin x dx$       44.  $\int_0^1 \cos^2 x \sin x dx$

45.  $\int_0^1 (x + 1)(x^2 + 2x) dx$       46.  $\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx$

47.  $\int_0^1 \sin^2 2x \cos 2x dx$       48.  $\int_0^1 \frac{\cos 2x}{\sin 2x} dx$

49.  $\int_0^1 \cos(3x - 3) dx$       50.  $\int_0^1 \sin^2(x - \pi) dx$

51.  $\int_0^1 x \sin(x^2 + 1) dx$       52.  $\int_0^1 x^2 \cos(x^2 + 1) dx$

53.  $\int_0^1 x \sin(x^2 + 1) dx$

54.  $\int_0^1 (\cos 3x + \sin 3x) dx$

55.  $\int_0^1 \sin x \cos x dx$

56.  $\int_0^1 \cos 2x \sin x dx$

57.  $\int_0^1 \sin(x^2 + 1) dx$

58.  $\int_0^1 \cos(x^2 + 1) dx$

59. Figure 4 shows the graph of a function  $f$  that has a continuous third derivative. The dashed lines are tangent to the graph

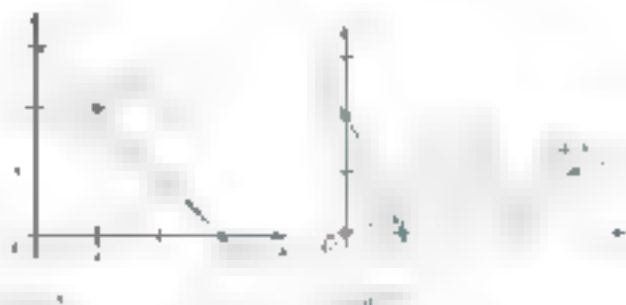
of  $y = f(x)$  at the points  $(0, 7)$  and  $(3, 0)$ . Based on what is shown, tell, if possible, whether the following integrals are positive, negative, or zero.

(a)  $\int_0^3 f(x) dx$

(b)  $\int_0^3 f'(x) dx$

(c)  $\int_0^3 f''(x) dx$

(d)  $\int_0^3 f'''(x) dx$



60. Figure 5 shows the graph of a continuous function  $f$  that has a root at  $x = 0$  and  $x = 2$ , and a local maximum at  $x = 1$ . The point  $(1, 1)$  is at the top of the curve. The curve is concave up between  $x = 0$  and  $x = 1$ , and concave down between  $x = 1$  and  $x = 2$ . Based on what is shown, tell, if possible, whether the following integrals are positive, negative, or zero.

(a)  $\int_0^2 f(x) dx$

(b)  $\int_0^2 x f(x) dx$

(c)  $\int_0^2 f'(x) dx$

(d)  $\int_0^2 f''(x) dx$

61. Water leaks out of a 200-gallon storage tank steadily at the rate  $V(t) = 20 - t^2$  gallons per hour, where  $t$  is measured in hours and  $V$  in gallons. How much water leaked out between  $t = 0$  and  $t = 20$  hours? How long will it take the tank to drain completely?

62. Oil is leaking at the rate of  $V(t) = 1 - t^2$  gal/hr into a storage tank that is initially full of oil. How much oil leaks out during the first hour? During the sixth hour? How long until the entire tank is drained?

63. The water usage in a small town is measured in millions per hour. A plot of this rate of usage is shown in Figure 6 for the hours midnight through noon for a particular day. Estimate the total amount of water used during the 12-hour period.

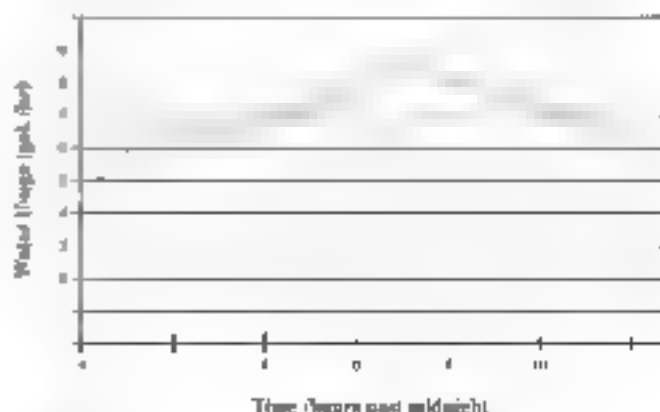


Figure 6

64. Figure 7 shows the rate of oil consumption in million barrels per year for the United States from 1973 to 2003. Approximately how many barrels of oil were consumed between 1990 and 2000?

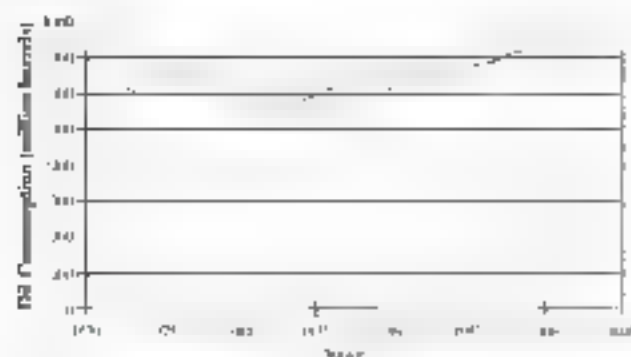
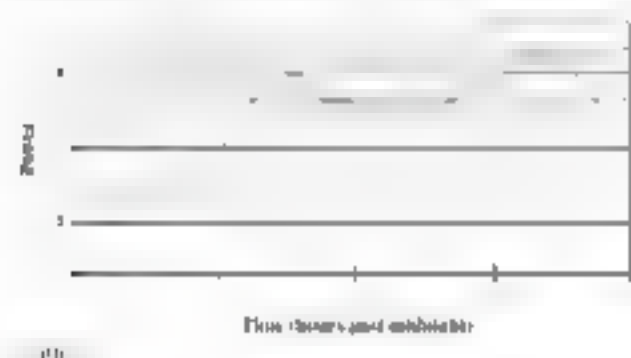


Figure 7

65. Figure 8 shows the power usage, measured in megawatts, for a small town for one day (measured from midnight to mid night). Estimate the energy usage for the day measured in the power figure. *Hint:* Power is the derivative of energy.



66. The mass, in kilograms, of a rod measured from the left endpoint to the point  $x$  meters away is  $m(x) = 2 + x^2$  kg. What is the density  $\delta(x)$  of the rod, measured in kilograms per meter? Assuming that the rod is 2 meters long, express the total mass of the rod in terms of its density.

67. We claim that

$$\int_a^b x^2 dx + \int_a^b \frac{d}{dx} x^2 dx = b^3 - a^3$$

•

- (a) Use Figure 9 to justify this by a geometric argument.  
 (b) Prove the result using the Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus.  
 (c) Show that  $A_2 = \pi R_2^2$ .

68. Prove the Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus following the method suggested in Example 4 of Section 4.3.

In Problems 69–72, first recognize the given sum as a definite integral and then evaluate that integral by the Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus.

69.  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{3}{n} = 3$

70.  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{n^2} = \frac{1}{2}$

71.  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{n^2} = \frac{1}{2}$

72.  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{n^2} = \frac{1}{2}$

73. Explain why  $(1/n^2) \sum_{i=1}^n i^2$  should be a good approximation to  $\int_0^1 x^2 dx$  for large  $n$ . Now calculate the summation expression for  $n = 10$ , and evaluate the integral by the Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus. Compare their values.

74. Evaluate  $\int_0^1 (2|x| - 2|x|) dx$ .

75. Show that  $\frac{1}{2}x^2 + 1$  is an antiderivative of  $x$ , and use this fact to get a simple formula for  $\int_a^b x dx$ .

76. Find a nice formula for  $\int_0^1 (x^2 + 1) dx$ .

77. Suppose that  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$ .

- (a) Let  $F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$ . Show that  $F$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$ .  
 (b) Let  $F(x)$  be any antiderivative of  $f$  on  $[a, b]$ . Show that  $F$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$ .

78. Give an example to show that the accumulation function  $F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$  can be continuous even if  $f$  is not continuous.

79. Let  $f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \in [0, 1] \\ 0 & \text{if } x \in [1, 2] \end{cases}$ . Find  $F(x)$  for  $x \in [0, 2]$ .

80.  $\int_0^1 x^2 dx$

81.  $\int_0^1 x^2 dx$

82.  $\int_0^1 x^2 dx$

83.  $\int_0^1 x^2 dx$

84.  $\int_0^1 x^2 dx$

85.  $\int_0^1 x^2 dx$

86.  $\int_0^1 x^2 dx$

87.  $\int_0^1 x^2 dx$

88.  $\int_0^1 x^2 dx$

89.  $\int_0^1 x^2 dx$

90.  $\int_0^1 x^2 dx$

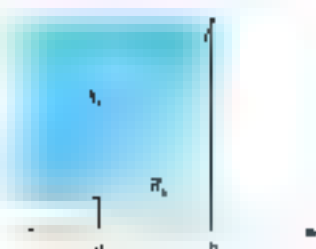


Figure 9

## 4.5 The Mean Value Theorem for Integrals and the Use of Symmetry

We know what the mean, or the average, of a set of  $n$  numbers  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  is: we simply add them up and divide by  $n$ .

$$\frac{x_1 + x_2 + \cdots + x_n}{n}$$

Can we give meaning to the concept of the average of a function  $f(x)$  on an interval  $[a, b]$ ? Well, suppose we take a region  $R$  of  $n$  subregions  $R_1, R_2, \dots, R_n$  with  $x_1 < x_2 < \cdots < x_{n-1} < x_n = b$ , with  $\Delta x = (b - a)/n$ . The average of the  $n$  values  $f(x_1), f(x_2), \dots, f(x_n)$  is

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{f(x_1) + f(x_2) + \cdots + f(x_n)}{n} &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i) \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{x_i - x_{i-1}}{b - a} f(x_i) \\ &= \frac{1}{b - a} \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta x f(x_i) \end{aligned}$$

This last sum is a Riemann sum for  $f$  on  $[a, b]$  and therefore

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{f(x_1) + f(x_2) + \cdots + f(x_n)}{n} &= \frac{1}{b - a} \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta x f(x_i) \\ &= \frac{1}{b - a} \int_a^b f(x) dx. \end{aligned}$$

This suggests the following definition.

### Definition Average Value of a Function

If  $f$  is integrable on the interval  $[a, b]$ , then the **average value** of  $f$  on  $[a, b]$  is

$$\frac{1}{b - a} \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

**EXAMPLE 1** Find the average value of the function defined by  $f(x) = x \sin x^2$  on the interval  $[0, \sqrt{\pi}]$ . (See Figure 1.)

**SOLUTION** The average value is

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi} - 0} \int_0^{\sqrt{\pi}} x \sin x^2 dx$$

To evaluate this integral, we make the substitution  $u = x^2$ , so that  $du = 2x dx$ . When  $x = 0$ ,  $u = 0$  and when  $x = \sqrt{\pi}$ ,  $u = \pi$ . Thus

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^{\sqrt{\pi}} x \sin x^2 dx = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^{\pi} \frac{1}{2} \sin u du = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{\pi}} [-\cos u]_0^{\pi} = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{\pi}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}}. \quad \blacksquare$$

**EXAMPLE 2** Suppose the temperature in degrees Fahrenheit of a metal bar of length 2 feet depends on its position  $x$  according to the function  $T(x) = 40 - 3x^2$ ,  $0 \leq x \leq 2$ . Find the average temperature in the bar. Is there a point where the actual temperature equals the average temperature?







**SOLUTION** The average temperature is

$$\frac{1}{2} \int_0^2 (40 - 20x - 5x^2) dx = \int_0^2 (10 - 5x - \frac{5}{4}x^2) dx$$

$$= \left[ 10x - \frac{5}{2}x^2 - \frac{5}{12}x^3 \right]_0^2 = 40 - 40 - \frac{10}{3} = -\frac{10}{3}$$

Figure 2, which shows the temperature  $T$  as a function of  $x$ , indicates that we should expect two points  $x$  where the temperature  $T$  equals the average temperature. To find these points we solve  $T(x) = 40$  for  $x$  and  $x$  to solve for  $x$ .

$$40 = 10(2 - x) - \frac{5}{4}x^2$$

$$x^2 - 6x + 8 = 0$$

The Quadratic Formula gives

$$x = \frac{1}{2}(3 - \sqrt{3}) \approx 0.42265 \quad \text{and} \quad x = \frac{1}{2}(3 + \sqrt{3}) \approx 1.57734$$

Both solutions are between 0 and 2, so there are two points  $x$  where the temperature equals the average temperature. ■

It seems as if there should always be a value  $c$  with the property  $f(c)$  equals the average value of the function. It is true that we do not know this for *all* continuous functions.

#### Theorem 4 Mean Value Theorem for Integrals

If  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  then there is a number  $c$  between  $a$  and  $b$  such that

$$f(c) = \frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

**Proof** For  $a < x < b$  define  $F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$ . By the Mean Value Theorem for Derivatives applied to  $F$  there was a  $c$  in the interval  $(a, b)$  such that

$$F'(c) = \frac{F(b) - F(a)}{b - a}$$

Since  $F(a) = \int_a^a f(t) dt = 0$  and  $F(b) = \int_a^b f(t) dt$ , this gives

$$F'(c) = F(b) = \frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b f(t) dt$$

The Mean Value Theorem for Integrals is often expressed as follows. If  $f$  is integrable on  $[a, b]$ , then there exists a  $c$  in  $(a, b)$  such that

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = (b-a)f(c)$$

When viewed this way, the Mean Value Theorem for integrals says that there is a value  $c$  in the interval  $[a, b]$  such that the area of the rectangle with height  $f(c)$  and width  $b-a$  is equal to the area under the curve in Figure 2. The area under the curve is equal to the area of the rectangle. ■

**DEFINITION** The **average value** of a function  $f$  on the interval  $[a, b]$  is the value  $f(c)$  for which  $f(c)$  equals the average value of  $f$  on  $[a, b]$ . The average value of  $f$  on  $[a, b]$  is denoted by  $f_{\text{ave}}$ .

The **Mean Value Theorem for Integrals** states that if  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$ , then there exists a number  $c$  in  $(a, b)$  such that  $f(c)$  equals the average value of  $f$  on  $[a, b]$ . The average value of  $f$  on  $[a, b]$  is denoted by  $f_{\text{ave}}$ .

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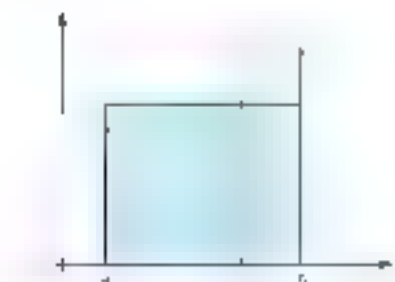


Figure 3

The version of the Mean Value Theorem for integrals with the accompanying Figure 3 suggests a good way to estimate the value of a definite integral. The area of the region under a curve is equal to the area of a rectangle. One can make a good guess at this rectangle by simply “leveling” the region. In Figure 3 the area of the shaded part above the curve should match the area of the white part below the curve.

**EXAMPLE 3** Find all values of  $c$  that satisfy the Mean Value Theorem for Integrals for  $f(x) = x^2$  on the interval  $[-3, 3]$ .

**SOLUTION** The graph of  $f(x)$  shown in Figure 4 indicates that there are two values of  $c$  that satisfy the Mean Value Theorem for integrals. The average value of the function is

$$\bar{y} = \frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b f(x) dx = \frac{1}{6} \int_{-3}^3 x^2 dx = \frac{1}{6} \left[ \frac{x^3}{3} \right]_{-3}^3 = \frac{1}{6} \left( \frac{27}{3} - \frac{-27}{3} \right) = \frac{1}{6} (9 + 9) = 3.$$

To find the value of  $c$  we solve

$$f(c) = \bar{y} \\ c^2 = 3 \\ c = \pm\sqrt{3}.$$

Both  $-\sqrt{3}$  and  $\sqrt{3}$  are in the interval  $[-3, 3]$ , so both values satisfy the Mean Value Theorem for Integrals.  $\blacksquare$



**EXAMPLE 4** Find all values of  $c$  that satisfy the Mean Value Theorem for Integrals for  $f(x) = \frac{1}{(x+1)^2}$  on the interval  $[0, 2]$ .

**SOLUTION** The graph of  $f(x)$  shown in Figure 5 indicates that there are two values of  $c$  that satisfy the Mean Value Theorem for integrals. The average value of the function is found by making the substitution  $u = x + 1$ , where when  $x = 0$ ,  $u = 1$  and when  $x = 2$ ,  $u = 3$ :

$$\bar{y} = \frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b f(x) dx = \frac{1}{2-0} \int_0^2 \frac{1}{(x+1)^2} dx = \frac{1}{2} \int_1^3 \frac{1}{u^2} du = \frac{1}{2} \left[ -\frac{1}{u} \right]_1^3 = \frac{1}{2} \left( -\frac{1}{3} + 1 \right) = \frac{1}{3}.$$

To find the value of  $c$  we solve

$$\begin{aligned} f(c) &= \bar{y} \\ \frac{1}{(c+1)^2} &= \frac{1}{3} \\ c+1 &= \pm\sqrt{3} \\ c &= -2 \pm \sqrt{3} = -2 \pm 1.732 \\ c &= -0.268 \text{ or } -3.732. \end{aligned}$$

Note that  $-1 + \sqrt{3} \approx -0.268$  and  $-1 - \sqrt{3} \approx -3.732$ . The only one of these two satisfies that  $c$  is in the interval  $[-3, 3]$ , so  $c = -1 + \sqrt{3}$  has this property. This is the only value of  $c$  that satisfies the Mean Value Theorem for integrals.  $\blacksquare$

**THEOREM 4.5.1** Let  $f$  be a continuous function on the interval  $[a, b]$ . Recall that an even function is one satisfying  $f(-x) = f(x)$ , whereas an odd function satisfies

$f(-x) = f(x)$ . The graph of the former is symmetric with respect to the  $y$ -axis. The graph of the latter is symmetric with respect to the origin. Here is a useful integration theorem for such functions.

### Symmetry Theorem

If  $f$  is an even function, then

$$\int_{-a}^a f(x) \, dx = 2 \int_0^a f(x) \, dx$$

If  $f$  is an odd function, then

$$\int_{-a}^a f(x) \, dx = 0$$

**Proof for Even Functions** The geometric interpretation of this theorem is shown in Figure 6 and 7. To justify the results above easily, we first write

$$\int_{-a}^a f(x) \, dx = \int_{-a}^0 f(x) \, dx + \int_0^a f(x) \, dx$$

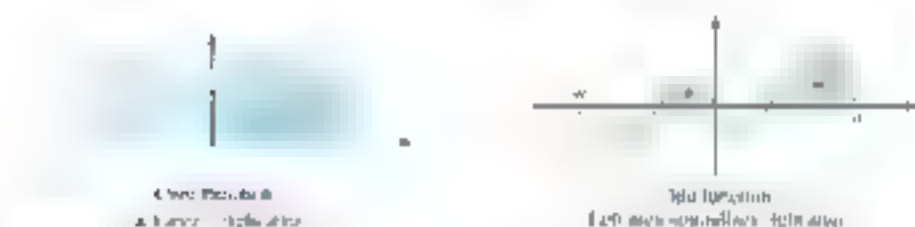


Figure 7


In the first of the integrals on the right we make the substitution  $u = -x$ ,  $du = -dx$ . If  $f$  is even,  $f(u) = f(-x) = f(x)$  and

$$\int_{-a}^0 f(x) \, dx = \int_{-a}^0 f(u) \, du = \int_a^0 f(u) \, du = - \int_0^a f(u) \, du = - \int_0^a f(x) \, dx$$

Therefore,

$$\int_{-a}^a f(x) \, dx = \int_{-a}^0 f(x) \, dx + \int_0^a f(x) \, dx = - \int_0^a f(x) \, dx + \int_0^a f(x) \, dx = 0$$

The proof for odd functions is left as an exercise (Problem 61). ■

 **EXAMPLE 5** Evaluate  $\int_{-\pi/4}^{\pi/4} \cos(t/4) \, dt$ .

**SOLUTION** Since  $\cos(-t/4) = \cos(t/4)$ ,  $f(t) = \cos(t/4)$  is an even function. Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-\pi/4}^{\pi/4} \cos(t/4) \, dt &= 2 \int_0^{\pi/4} \cos(t/4) \, dt = 2 \int_0^{\pi/4} \cos(u) \, du \\ &= 2 \int_0^{\pi/4} \cos u \, du = 2 \sin u \Big|_0^{\pi/4} = 4 \sin \frac{\pi}{4} \end{aligned}$$

Be sure to note the benefits of the Symmetry Theorem. The integrands must be even or odd and the interval of integration must be symmetric about the origin. There are relatively conditions that are satisfying how often they hold in applications. When they do hold, they can greatly simplify integrations.

**EXAMPLE 6** Evaluate  $\int_{-1}^1 x^3 \, dx$ .

**SOLUTION** The function  $f(x) = x^3$  is an odd function. Thus, the above integral has the value 0. ■

**EXAMPLE 7** Evaluate  $\int_0^{\pi} x \sin x + x^2 \cos x \, dx$ .

**SOLUTION** The first two terms of the integrand are odd and the last is even, so we deal with the integrand

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^{\pi} (x \sin x + x^2 \cos x) \, dx &= \int_0^{\pi} x \sin x \, dx + \int_0^{\pi} x^2 \cos x \, dx \\ &= -\frac{x^2}{2} \sin x + \frac{dx}{dx} = \frac{dx}{dx} \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 8** Evaluate  $\int_0^{\pi} \sin x \cos x \, dx$ .

**SOLUTION** The function  $\sin x$  is odd and  $\cos x$  is even. An odd function raised to an odd power is odd, so  $\sin^3 x$  is odd. An even function raised to any power is even, so  $\cos^3 x$  is even. An odd function multiplied by an even function is odd. For the integrand in this integral is a odd function and the definite integral is about to have value of 0, its integral is 0.

**DEFINITION** A function  $f$  is periodic with period  $p$  if there is a number  $p$  such that  $f(x + p) = f(x)$  for all  $x$  in the domain of  $f$ . The smallest such number  $p$  is called the **period** of  $f$ . The trigonometric functions are examples of periodic functions.

### Theorem

If  $f$  is periodic with period  $p$ , then

$$\int_a^{a+p} f(x) \, dx = \int_a^a f(x) \, dx$$

**Proof** The geometric interpretation can be seen in Figure 4. Let  $u = x - p$  so that  $x = u + p$  and  $du = dx$ . Then

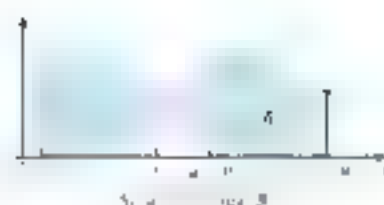
$$\int_a^{a+p} f(x) \, dx = \int_a^{a+p} f(u + p) \, du = \int_a^a f(u) \, du = \int_a^a f(x) \, dx$$

We could replace  $f(u + p)$  by  $f(u)$  because  $f$  is periodic. ■

**EXAMPLE 9** Evaluate (a)  $\int_0^{\pi} \sin x \, dx$  and (b)  $\int_0^{2\pi} \sin x \, dx$ .

### SOLUTION

(a) Note that  $f(x) = \sin x$  is periodic with period  $2\pi$ . Figure 5. The integral in (a) is thus



$$\begin{aligned}
 \int_0^{\pi} |\cos x| \, dx &= \int_0^{\pi/2} \cos x \, dx + \int_{\pi/2}^{\pi} -\cos x \, dx \\
 &= \int_0^{\pi/2} \cos x \, dx + \int_{\pi/2}^{\pi} \sin x \, dx \\
 &= 2 \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin x \, dx = 2[-\cos x]_0^{\pi/2} = 2(1 - (-1)) = 4
 \end{aligned}$$

(b) The integral in (b) is

$$\begin{aligned}
 \int_0^{100\pi} |\sin x| \, dx &= \int_0^{\pi} \sin x \, dx + \int_{\pi}^{2\pi} -\sin x \, dx + \int_{2\pi}^{3\pi} \sin x \, dx + \int_{3\pi}^{4\pi} -\sin x \, dx + \cdots \\
 &\quad + \int_{99\pi}^{100\pi} \sin x \, dx \\
 &= 100 \int_0^{\pi} \sin x \, dx = 100[-\cos x]_0^{\pi} = 100(2 - (-2)) = 400
 \end{aligned}$$

Notice that in Example 9 we had to use symmetry, because we can't find an antiderivative for  $|\sin x|$  over the interval  $[0, 100\pi]$ .

## Concepts Review

- The average value of a function  $f$  on the interval  $[a, b]$  is \_\_\_\_\_.
- The Mean Value Theorem for Integrals says there exists a  $c$  in the interval  $[a, b]$  such that the average value of the function on  $[a, b]$  is equal to \_\_\_\_\_.
- If  $f$  is an odd function,  $\int_{-a}^a f(x) \, dx = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$ ; if  $f$  is an even function,  $\int_{-a}^a f(x) \, dx = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$ .
- If a function  $f$  is periodic of period  $p$ , there is a number  $p$  such that \_\_\_\_\_ for all  $x$  in the domain of  $f$ . The smallest such positive number  $p$  is called the \_\_\_\_\_ of the function.

## Problem Set 4.5

In Problems 1–14, find the average value of the function on the given interval.

- $f(x) = 2x + 3$ ;  $[1, 4]$
- $f(x) = \sqrt{x^2 + 16}$ ;  $[0, 3]$
- $f(x) = \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2 + 16}}$ ;  $[1, 2]$
- $f(x) = 2 + 4x$ ;  $[2, 3]$
- $f(x) = 2 + 4x$ ;  $[2, 3]$
- $f(x) = \cos x$ ;  $[0, \pi]$
- $f(x) = \cos x$ ;  $[0, \pi]$
- $f(x) = x \cos x^2$ ;  $[0, \sqrt{\pi}]$
- $f(x) = \sin^2 x \cos x$ ;  $[0, \pi/2]$
- $f(x) = \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2 + 16}}$ ;  $[1, 2]$
- $f(x) = \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2 + 16}}$ ;  $[1, 2]$
- $f(x) = \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2 + 16}}$ ;  $[1, 2]$
- $f(x) = \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2 + 16}}$ ;  $[1, 2]$
- $f(x) = \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2 + 16}}$ ;  $[1, 2]$

In Problems 15–28, find all values of  $c$  that satisfy the Mean Value Theorem for Integrals on the given interval.

- $f(x) = \sqrt{x+1}$ ;  $[0, 3]$
- $f(x) = x^2$ ;  $[-1, 1]$
- $f(x) = x^2$ ;  $[-1, 1]$
- $f(x) = x^2$ ;  $[-1, 1]$
- $f(x) = x^2$ ;  $[-1, 1]$
- $f(x) = x^2$ ;  $[-1, 1]$
- $f(x) = x^2$ ;  $[-1, 1]$
- $f(x) = x^2$ ;  $[-1, 1]$
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- $f(x) = x^2$ ;  $[-1, 1]$
- $f(x) = x^2$ ;  $[-1, 1]$

Use a graphing calculator to plot the graph of the integrand in Problems 29–32. Then estimate the integral as suggested in the margin note accompanying Theorem 4.1.

- $\int_0^1 x \sin x^2 \, dx$
- $\int_0^1 x \sin x^2 \, dx$
- $\int_0^1 x \sin x^2 \, dx$
- $\int_0^1 x \sin x^2 \, dx$

33. Figure 10 shows the relative humidity  $H$  as a function of time  $t$  (measured in days since Sunday) for an office building. Approximate the average relative humidity for the week.

34. Figure 11 shows temperature  $T$  as a function of time  $t$  (measured in hours past midnight) for one day in St. Louis, Missouri.

(a) Approximate the average temperature for the day.

(b) Must there be a time when the temperature is equal to the average temperature for the day's exposure?



In Problems 35–44, let  $f$  and  $g$  be functions. Use the Mean Value Theorem to find  $c$ .

35.  $f(x) = \sin x$ ,  $g(x) = \cos x$ ,  $a = 0$ ,  $b = \pi$

37.  $\int_0^{\pi/2} \frac{\sin x}{1 + \cos x} dx$

39.  $f(x) = \sin x$ ,  $g(x) = x$ ,  $a = 0$ ,  $b = \pi$

41.  $\int_0^1 (1 + x + x^2 + x^3) dx$

42.  $f(x) = \sin x$ ,  $g(x) = \cos x$ ,  $a = 0$ ,  $b = \pi$

43.  $f(x) = \sin x$ ,  $g(x) = x$ ,  $a = 0$ ,  $b = \pi$

44.  $f(x) = \sin x$ ,  $g(x) = \cos x$ ,  $a = 0$ ,  $b = \pi$

45. How does  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$  compare with  $\int_a^b f(c) dx$  when  $f$  is an even function? An odd function?

46. Prove (1) by a substitution: (b)

$$\int_a^b f(-x) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

47. Use periodicity to calculate  $\int_0^{2\pi} \cos x dx$ .

48. Calculate  $\int_0^{2\pi} \sin 2x dx$ .

49. Prove that  $\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx$

50. convince yourself that this is true by drawing a picture and then use the result to calculate  $\int_0^{2\pi} \sin x dx$

51. Use the result in Problem 49 to calculate

$$\int_0^{2\pi} \sin x dx$$

52. Calculate  $\int_0^{2\pi} \cos x dx$ .

53. Prove or disprove that the integral of the average value equals the integral of the function on the interval.  $\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx$ , where  $\bar{f}$  is the average value of the function  $f$  over the interval  $[a, b]$ .

54. Assuming that  $x$  and  $y$  can be integrated over the interval  $[a, b]$ , and that the average values over the interval are denoted by  $\bar{x}$  and  $\bar{y}$ , prove or disprove that

(a)  $\bar{x} \bar{y} = \overline{xy}$

(b)  $\bar{x} \bar{y} = \overline{xy}$  where  $\bar{x}$  is any constant

(c) if  $x \geq y$  then  $\bar{x} \geq \bar{y}$

55. Household electric current can be modeled by the voltage  $V = V_m \sin(\omega t + \phi)$  where  $t$  is measured in seconds,  $V_m$  is the maximum value that  $V$  can attain, and  $\phi$  is the phase angle. Such a voltage is usually said to be off cycle since in 1 second the voltage goes through 60 oscillations. The maximum-amplitude voltage, usually denoted by  $V_{\text{eff}}$ , is defined to be the square root of the average of  $V^2$ . Hence

$$V_{\text{eff}} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{T} \int_0^T V^2 dt}$$

A good measure of how much total average voltage can produce is given by  $V_{\text{eff}}$ .

(a) Compute the average of  $V^2$  over one cycle.

(b) Compute the average voltage over 60 of a second.

(c) Show that  $V_{\text{eff}} = \frac{V_m}{\sqrt{2}}$  by computing the integral for  $V_{\text{eff}}$ .

$$\text{Hint: } \int_0^{2\pi} \sin^2 x dx = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{2\pi} (1 - \cos 2x) dx = \frac{1}{2} x - \frac{1}{4} \sin 2x \Big|_0^{2\pi}$$

(d) If the  $V_{\text{eff}}$  for household current is usually 120 volts, what is the maximum value of the voltage?

56. Give a proof of the Mean Value Theorem for integrals (Theorem 4) that does not use the First Fundamental Theorem of Calculus. Hint: Apply the Max-Min Existence Theorem and the Intermediate Value Theorem.

57. Integrate the square function by application of  $\int_0^{2\pi} \cos^2 x dx$  and  $\int_0^{2\pi} \sin^2 x dx$ .

(a) Using a trigonometric identity show that

$$\int_0^{2\pi} \cos^2 x dx = \int_0^{2\pi} \sin^2 x dx = \pi$$

(b) Show from graphical considerations that

$$\int_0^{2\pi} \cos^2 x dx = \int_0^{2\pi} \sin^2 x dx = \pi$$

(c) conclude that  $\int_0^{2\pi} \cos^2 x dx = \int_0^{2\pi} \sin^2 x dx = \pi$

57. Let  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$  and  $g(x) = \frac{1}{x^2}$ .

- a. Is  $f$  even, odd, or neither?  
 b. Note that  $f$  is periodic. What is its period?  
 c. Evaluate the definite integral of  $f$  for each of the following intervals:  $[0, \pi]$ ,  $[-\pi, 2\pi]$ ,  $[-\pi, \pi]$ ,  $[-\pi, 2\pi]$ ,  $[-\pi, \pi]$ ,  $[-\pi, \pi]$ ,  $[-\pi, \pi]$ ,  $[-\pi, \pi]$ ,  $[-\pi, \pi]$ ,  $[-\pi, \pi]$ .

54. *Platygaster* *truncatellus* 57 Dec flat — with a hollow, when dry

29. Complete the generalization of the Pythagorean Theorem begun in Problem 49 of Section 1.2 by showing that  $A = B = C$  in Figure 1.2, these being the areas of similar figures built on the two legs and the hypotenuse of a right triangle.

ה) התאמת המערכת לשינויים במצב

$$f(x) = \frac{a}{c} f\left(\frac{c}{a}x\right) \quad \text{and} \quad g(x) = \frac{b}{c} f\left(\frac{c}{b}x\right)$$

[illegible]

44. Prove the Symmetry Theorem for the case of odd functions.

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) e^{-x^2} dx = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) e^{-x^2} dx$$

2.  $f(x)$  is odd  $\Rightarrow \int_{-a}^a f(x) dx = 0$  4.  $f(x+p) = f(x)$ : period



## 46

## Numerical Integration

We remark that  $L^{-1}$  is continuous from  $L^2$  to  $L^2$  if and only if  $\delta = 0$  or  $\delta = 1$  or  $\delta = 1/2$  or  $\delta = 1/4$  or  $\delta = 1/3$  or  $\delta = 1/6$ .

There are many subtle technical details that cannot be covered by the highlights we have learned that involve the Second Fundamental theorem of calculus. For example, the indefinite integrals

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(x) dx = 1 \quad \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x \delta(x) dx = 0 \quad \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 \delta(x) dx = 0$$

cannot be expressed algebraically in terms of elementary functions. Functions of this kind are called **transcendental functions**. Functions of this kind are not the kind of functions studied in a first calculus course. Even when elementary indefinite integrals can be found, it is often easier to approximate the value of an integral than to find it. In this section, since the general efficient algorithm has not yet been discovered, we use a calculator or computer. In Section 6.4 we saw how the error term can be used to approximate a definite integral. In this section we review these Riemann sums and we present two additional methods: the Trapezoidal Rule and the Parabolic Rule.

Suppose  $f$  is defined on  $[a, b]$  and we partition the interval  $[a, b]$  into  $n$  subintervals with end points  $a = x_0 < x_1 < \cdots < x_{n-1} < x_n = b$ . The Riemann sum is then defined to be

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where  $x$  is semi-positive (possibly even an endpoint in the interval  $x_0 \leq x \leq x_1$ ) and  $\Delta x = x_1 - x_0$ . For now, we will assume that the partition is regular, that is,

$\Delta x_i = (b - a)/n$  for all  $i$ . Riemann sums were introduced in Section 4.2 with the goal of defining the definite integral as the limit of the Riemann sum. Here we look at the Riemann sum as a way to approximate a definite integral.

We consider the three cases where the sample point  $x_i^*$  is the left end point, the right end point, or the midpoint of  $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ . The left end point, right end point, and midpoint of the interval  $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$  are

$$\text{left end point} = x_{i-1} = a + (i-1)\Delta x = a + (i-1)\frac{b-a}{n}$$

$$\text{right end point} = x_i = a + i\Delta x = a + i\frac{b-a}{n}$$

$$\text{midpoint} = \frac{x_{i-1} + x_i}{2} = a + \frac{(i-1) + i}{2}\Delta x = a + \frac{(2i-1)(b-a)}{2n}$$

For a left Riemann sum, we take  $x_i^*$  to be  $x_{i-1}$ , the left end point.

$$\text{Left Riemann Sum} = \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_{i-1}^*) \Delta x_i = \frac{b-a}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f\left(a + (i-1)\frac{b-a}{n}\right)$$

For a right Riemann sum, we take  $x_i^*$  to be  $x_i$ , the right end point.

$$\text{Right Riemann Sum} = \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i^*) \Delta x_i = \frac{b-a}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f\left(a + i\frac{b-a}{n}\right)$$

For a midpoint Riemann sum, we take  $x_i^*$  to be  $\frac{x_{i-1} + x_i}{2}$ , the midpoint of the interval  $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ .

$$\text{Midpoint Riemann Sum} = \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i^*) \Delta x_i = \frac{b-a}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f\left(a + \frac{(2i-1)(b-a)}{2n}\right) = \frac{b-a}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f\left(\frac{x_{i-1} + x_i}{2}\right)$$

The formulas in the large table on the next page, giving a few basic functions (and two others we will introduce later in this section) work

**EXAMPLE 1** Approximate the definite integral  $\int_1^4 \sqrt{4-x} \, dx$  using left, right, and midpoint Riemann sums with  $n = 4$ .

**SOLUTION** Let  $f(x) = \sqrt{4-x}$ . We have  $a = 1$ ,  $b = 4$ , and  $n = 4$ , so  $(b-a)/n = 0.5$ . The values of  $x_i$  and  $f(x_i)$  are

$$x_0 = 1.0 \quad f(x_0) = f(1.0) = \sqrt{4-1} \approx 1.7321$$

$$x_1 = 1.5 \quad f(x_1) = f(1.5) = \sqrt{4-1.5} \approx 1.5811$$

$$x_2 = 2.0 \quad f(x_2) = f(2.0) = \sqrt{4-2} \approx 1.4142$$

$$x_3 = 2.5 \quad f(x_3) = f(2.5) = \sqrt{4-2.5} \approx 1.2247$$

$$x_4 = 3.0 \quad f(x_4) = f(3.0) = \sqrt{4-3} = 1.0000$$

Using the left Riemann sum, we have the following approximation

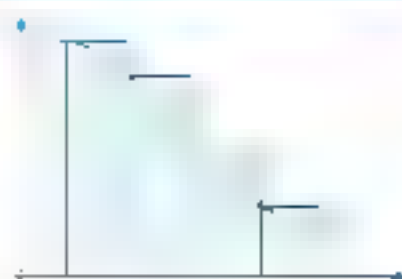
$$\begin{aligned} \int_1^4 \sqrt{4-x} \, dx &\approx \text{Left Riemann Sum} \\ &= \frac{b-a}{n} [f(x_0) + f(x_1) + f(x_2) + f(x_3)] \\ &= 0.5[f(1.0) + f(1.5) + f(2.0) + f(2.5)] \\ &\approx 0.5(1.7321 + 1.5811 + 1.4142 + 1.2247) \\ &\approx 1.4861 \end{aligned}$$



## 1. Left Riemann Sum

Area of  $i$ th rectangle =  $f(x_{i-1})\Delta x_i = \frac{b-a}{n} f(x_{i-1})$ 

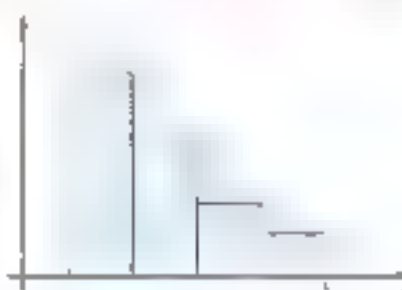
$$\therefore \int_a^b f(x) dx = \frac{b-a}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_{i-1})$$

 $f$  is  $\frac{b-a}{n}$  for some  $c_i$  in  $[a, b]$ 


## 2. Right Riemann Sum

Area of  $i$ th rectangle =  $f(x_i)\Delta x_i = \frac{b-a}{n} f(x_i)$ 

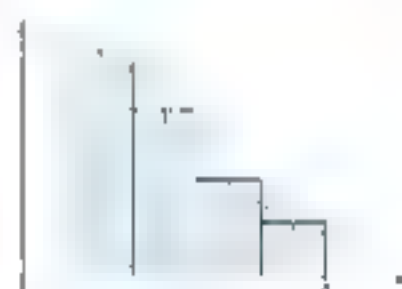
$$\therefore \int_a^b f(x) dx = \frac{b-a}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i)$$

 $f$  is  $\frac{b-a}{n}$  for some  $c_i$  in  $[a, b]$ 


## 3. Midpoint Riemann Sum

Area of  $i$ th rectangle =  $f(x_i^*)\Delta x_i = \frac{b-a}{n} f(x_i^*)$ 

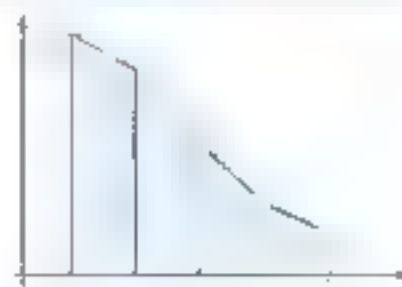
$$\therefore \int_a^b f(x) dx = \frac{b-a}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i^*)$$

 $f$  is  $\frac{b-a}{n}$  for some  $c_i$  in  $[a, b]$ 


## 4. Trapezoidal Rule

Area of  $i$ th trapezoid =  $\frac{b-a}{n} \frac{f(x_{i-1}) + f(x_i)}{2}$ 

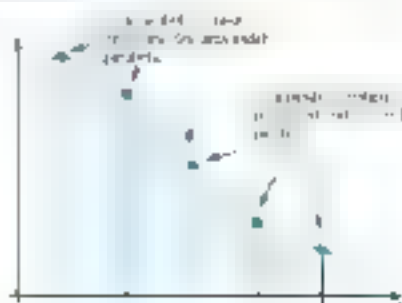
$$\therefore \int_a^b f(x) dx = \frac{b-a}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{f(x_{i-1}) + f(x_i)}{2}$$

 $f$  is  $\frac{b-a}{n}$  for some  $c_i$  in  $[a, b]$ 


## 5. Parabolic Rule (n must be even)

Area of  $i$ th parabola =  $\frac{b-a}{n} \frac{f(x_{i-2}) + 4f(x_{i-1}) + f(x_i)}{6}$ 

$$\therefore \int_a^b f(x) dx = \frac{b-a}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{f(x_{i-2}) + 4f(x_{i-1}) + f(x_i)}{6}$$

 $f$  is  $\frac{b-a}{n}$  for some  $c_i$  in  $[a, b]$ 


The right Riemann sum leads to the following approximation:

$$\begin{aligned}\int_0^3 \sqrt{4-x} \, dx &\approx \text{Right Riemann Sum} \\ &= \frac{b-a}{n} [f(x_1) + f(x_2) + f(x_3) + f(x_4)] \\ &= 0.5[f(1.5) + f(2.0) + f(2.5) + f(3.0)] \\ &\approx 0.5(1.5811 + 1.4142 + 1.2247 + 1.0000) \\ &\approx 1.618\end{aligned}$$

Finally the midpoint Riemann sum approximation of the definite integral is

$$\begin{aligned}\int_0^3 \sqrt{4-x} \, dx &\approx \text{Midpoint Riemann Sum} \\ &= \frac{b-a}{n} [f(\frac{x_1+x_2}{2}) + f(\frac{x_2+x_3}{2}) + f(\frac{x_3+x_4}{2}) + f(\frac{x_4+x_5}{2})] \\ &= 0.5[f(1.25) + f(1.75) + f(2.25) + f(2.75)] \\ &\approx 0.5(1.6383 + 1.5000 + 1.3229 + 1.1609) \\ &\approx 1.7096\end{aligned}$$

In the last example, approximations were not perfect, because we could not apply or deduce this integral using the Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus.

$$\begin{aligned}\int_0^2 \sqrt{1-x} \, dx &= \left[ -\frac{2}{3} \sqrt{1-x} \right]_0^2 = -\frac{2}{3} \sqrt{1-2} - \left( -\frac{2}{3} \sqrt{1-0} \right) \\ &= \frac{2}{3} \sqrt{1} - \frac{2}{3} \approx 0.6667\end{aligned}$$

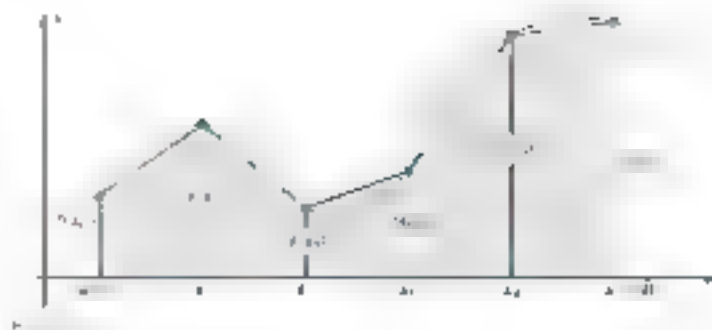
The midpoint Riemann sum approximation better approximates the value. The figure on the right tabulates the given approximation and compares it to the value.

The next example is more involved in the sense that it is not possible to apply the Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus.

**EXAMPLE 3** Approximate the definite integral  $\int_0^2 \sin x^2 \, dx$  using a right Riemann sum with  $n = 8$ .

**SOLUTION** Let  $f(x) = \sin x^2$ . We have  $a = 0$ ,  $b = 2$ , and  $n = 8$ , so  $(b-a)/n = 0.25$ . Using the right Riemann sum, we have the following approximation:

$$\begin{aligned}\int_0^2 \sin x^2 \, dx &\approx \text{Right Riemann Sum} \\ &= \frac{b-a}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i) = \frac{b-a}{n} [f(x_1) + f(x_2) + \cdots + f(x_n)] \\ &= 0.25[\sin(0.25^2) + \sin(0.5^2) + \sin(0.75^2) + \sin(1^2) \\ &\quad + \sin(1.25^2) + \sin(1.5^2) + \sin(1.75^2) + \sin(2^2)] \\ &\approx 0.6877\end{aligned}$$



**FIGURE 1** Approximate the definite integral  $\int_a^b f(x) \, dx$ . Suppose we join the pairs of points  $(x_{i-1}, f(x_{i-1}))$  and  $(x_i, f(x_i))$  by line segments as shown in Figure 1, thus forming a polygonal arc. Then, instead of approximating the area under the curve by summing the areas of  $n$  rectangles, we approximate it by summing the areas of the  $n-1$  trapezoids. This method is called the **Trapezoidal Rule**.

Recalling the area formula shown in Figure 2, we can write the area of the  $i$ th trapezoid as

$$A_i = \frac{h}{2} [f(x_{i-1}) + f(x_i)]$$

Moreover, if  $f(x)$  is negative, we should use a negative value for  $f(x_i)$  in the formula for  $A_i$ . In an interval where  $f$  is negative, the definite integral  $\int_a^b f(x) \, dx$  is approximately equal to  $A_1 + A_2 + \cdots + A_n$ , that is, to

$$\frac{h}{2} [f(x_0) + f(x_1)] + \frac{h}{2} [f(x_1) + f(x_2)] + \cdots + \frac{h}{2} [f(x_{n-1}) + f(x_n)]$$

This simplifies to the **Trapezoidal Rule**:

**Trapezoidal Rule**

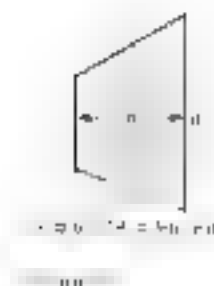
$$\begin{aligned} \int_a^b f(x) \, dx &\approx \frac{h}{2} [f(x_0) + 2f(x_1) + 2f(x_2) + \cdots + 2f(x_{n-1}) + f(x_n)] \\ &= \frac{h}{2} \left( f(x_0) + 2 \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} f(x_i) + f(x_n) \right) \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 2** Approximate the definite integral  $\int_0^2 \sin t \, dt$  using the Trapezoidal Rule with  $n = 5$ .

**SOLUTION** This is the same integrand and interval as in Example 1.

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^2 \sin t \, dt &= \frac{b-a}{n} \left[ f(x_0) + 2 \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} f(x_i) + f(x_n) \right] = \frac{b-a}{n} \left( f(x_0) + 2 \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} f(x_i) + f(x_n) \right) \\ &= 0.25 \left[ \sin 0 + 2(\sin 0.25 + \sin 0.5 + \sin 0.75 + \sin 1) \right. \\ &\quad \left. + \sin 1.25 + \sin 1.5 + \sin 1.75 + \sin 2 \right] \\ &\approx 0.79082 \end{aligned}$$

Presumably we could get a better approximation by taking  $n$  larger; this would be easy to do using a computer. However, while using  $n$  is not reduces the error of the method, it at least potentially increases the error calculation. You can see this by taking  $n = 100,000$  since the potential error of the method would more than compensate for the fact that the error of the method would be minuscule. We will have more to say about errors shortly.



$x_0 = a, x_1 = a + h, x_2 = a + 2h, \dots, x_n = b$ . In the Trapezoidal Rule we approximated the curve  $y = f(x)$  by line segments. It seems likely that we could do better using parabolic segments. Just as before, partition the interval  $[a, b]$  into  $n$  subintervals of length  $h = (b - a)/n$ , but choose  $n$  to be an even number. Then fit parabolic segments to neighboring trapezoids of points, as shown in Figure 3.

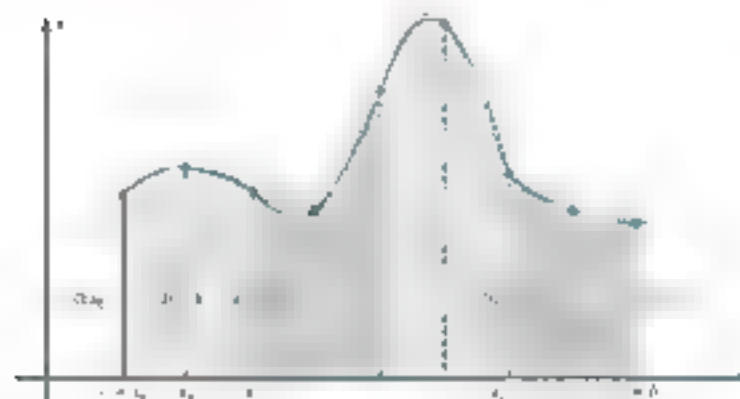


Figure 3

Using the area formula in Figure 4 and Problem 7 of the previous section leads to an approximation of  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ . The **Parabolic Rule** is also called **Simpson's Rule**, after the English mathematician Thomas Simpson (1710–1761).

### Parabolic Rule ( $n$ even)

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \approx \frac{h}{3} \left[ f(x_0) + 4f(x_1) + 2f(x_2) + \cdots + 4f(x_{n-1}) + f(x_n) \right]$$

$$= \frac{b-a}{n} \left[ \frac{1}{3} f\left(a\right) + 4 \sum_{i=1}^{n/2-1} f\left(a + i \frac{b-a}{n}\right) + \frac{1}{3} f\left(b\right) \right]$$

The pattern of coefficients  $\frac{1}{3}, 4, 2, 4, 2, \dots, 4, 2, \frac{1}{3}$  is

**EXAMPLE 1** Approximate the definite integral  $\int_0^3 \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx$  using the Parabolic Rule with  $n = 6$ .

**SOLUTION** Let  $f(x) = 1/(1+x^2)$ ,  $a = 0$ ,  $b = 3$ , and  $n = 6$ . The  $x_i$ 's are  $x_0 = 0$ ,  $x_1 = 0.5$ ,  $x_2 = 1.0$ ,  $\dots$ ,  $x_6 = 3.0$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^3 \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx &\approx \frac{1}{3} \frac{h}{6} \left[ f(0) + 4f(0.5) + 2f(1.0) + 4f(1.5) + 2f(2.0) + 4f(2.5) + f(3.0) \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{6} \left[ \frac{1}{1+0^2} + 4 \left( \frac{1}{1+0.5^2} \right) + 2 \left( \frac{1}{1+1^2} \right) + 4 \left( \frac{1}{1+1.5^2} \right) + 2 \left( \frac{1}{1+2^2} \right) + 4 \left( \frac{1}{1+2.5^2} \right) + \frac{1}{1+3^2} \right] \\ &\approx 1.2471 \end{aligned}$$

**NOTE** In any practical use of the approximation method described in this section, we need to have some idea of the size of the error involved. Fortunately the methods described in this section have fairly simple error formulas provided the integrand possesses sufficient many derivatives. We call the error  $E_n$  satisfies

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \approx \text{approximation based on } n \text{ subintervals} + E_n$$

The error formulas are given in the next theorem. The proofs of these results are rather difficult and we omit them here.

### THEOREM

Assuming that the required derivatives exist on the interval  $[a, b]$ , the errors in the left Riemann sum, right Riemann sum, midpoint Riemann sum, Trapezoidal Rule, and Parabolic Rule are

$$\text{Left Riemann Sum} \quad E_n = \frac{(b-a)^2}{2n} f'(c) \text{ for some } c \text{ in } [a, b]$$

$$\text{Right Riemann Sum} \quad E_n = \frac{(b-a)^2}{2n} f'(c) \text{ for some } c \text{ in } [a, b]$$

$$\text{Midpoint Riemann Sum} \quad E_n = \frac{(b-a)^3}{24n^2} f''(c) \text{ for some } c \text{ in } [a, b]$$

$$\text{Trapezoidal Rule} \quad E_n = -\frac{(b-a)^3}{12n^2} f''(c) \text{ for some } c \text{ in } [a, b]$$

$$\text{Parabolic Rule} \quad E_n = -\frac{(b-a)^5}{180n^4} f'''(c) \text{ for some } c \text{ in } [a, b]$$

The most important thing to notice about these error formulas is the position of  $n$ , the number of subintervals. In all cases, the error is divided by some power of the number  $n$ . That is, as  $n$  increases, the error decreases. As  $n$  increases, it is expected that the error of the given terms will go to zero. For example, the error term for the Parabolic Rule involves an  $n^4$  in the denominator. Since  $n^4$  grows much faster than  $n$ , the error term for the Parabolic Rule will go to zero faster than the error term for the Trapezoidal Rule or the midpoint Riemann sum. Similarly, the error term for the Trapezoidal Rule will go to zero faster than the error term for the midpoint Riemann sum. The important thing to notice about these error formulas is that they hold for some  $c$  in  $[a, b]$ . In most practical situations we can be assured why the value of  $c$  is. All we can hope for is to obtain an upper bound on how large the error could be. The next example illustrates this.

**EXAMPLE 5** Approximate the definite integral  $\int_1^4 \frac{1}{x^2} dx$  using the Parabolic Rule with  $n = 6$  and give a bound for the absolute value of the error.

**SOLUTION** Let  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2}$ ,  $a = 1$ ,  $b = 4$ , and  $n = 6$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \int_1^4 \frac{1}{x^2} dx &\approx \frac{(b-a)^3}{24n^2} \left( -\frac{1}{4} \right) + \frac{2f(x_2) + 4f(x_1) + 2f(x_4)}{4f(x_3) + f(x_6)} \\ &\quad + \frac{3}{36} [f(1.0) + 4f(1.5) + 2f(2.0) + 4f(2.5) + 2f(3.0) + \\ &\quad \quad \quad 4f(3.5) + f(4.0)] \\ &\approx \frac{1}{6} (-0.0625) + 0.9167 \\ &\approx 0.8542 \end{aligned}$$

The error term for the Parabolic Rule involves the fourth derivative of the integrand:

$$f(x) = (1+x)^2$$

$$f'(x) = 2(1+x)$$

$$f''(x) = 2$$

$$f'''(x) = 0$$

$$f^{(4)}(x) = 0$$

The question now is: how large can  $|f^{(4)}(x)|$  be on the interval  $[-1, 1]$ ? It is clear that  $f^{(4)}(x) = 0$  is a constant function, so its absolute value attains its largest value at both endpoints. That is, when  $x = -1$ . The value of the fourth derivative at  $x = -1$  is  $f^{(4)}(-1) = 0$ . Thus

$$E_P \leq \frac{1}{24} \max_{x \in [-1, 1]} |f^{(4)}(x)| = \frac{1}{24} \cdot 0 = 0.$$

The error is therefore no larger than 0.000000.

In the next example we turn things around. Rather than specifying  $n$  and asking for the error, we give the desired error and ask how large  $n$  must be.

**EXAMPLE 4.6.1** How large must  $n$  be in order to guarantee that the absolute value of the error is less than 0.00001 when we use  $n$  the right Riemann sum,

the Trapezoidal Rule, and/or the Parabolic Rule to approximate  $\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^2} dx$ ?

**SOLUTION** The derivatives of the integrand  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2}$  are given in the previous example.

(a) The absolute value of the error term for the right Riemann sum is

$$E_R \leq \frac{1}{2n} \max_{x \in [1/n, 1]} |f'(x)| = \frac{1}{2n} \cdot \frac{2}{x^3} = \frac{1}{n^2}.$$

We want  $E_R \leq 0.00001$ , so we require

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{n^2} &\leq 0.00001 \\ n &\geq \frac{1}{\sqrt{0.00001}} = 316.227766. \end{aligned}$$

(b) For the Trapezoidal Rule we have

$$E_T \leq \frac{1}{12n^2} \max_{x \in [1/n, 1]} |f''(x)| = \frac{1}{12n^2} \cdot \frac{6}{x^4} = \frac{1}{2n^2}.$$

We want  $E_T \leq 0.00001$ , so  $n$  must satisfy

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{2n^2} &\leq 0.00001 \\ n &\geq \frac{1}{\sqrt{0.00002}} = 223.606798 \\ n &\geq \sqrt{0.00002} = 0.00447214. \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $a = 25$  is the best choice.

(c) For the Parabolic Rule

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{25}x^2 + x + 1 \quad \Delta x = 24 = \frac{x^2 - 24}{(20n^2(1+1))^2} = \frac{8}{20n^2}$$

We want  $|\Delta x| = 0.0001$ , so

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{8}{20n^2} &= 0.0001 \\ n^2 &= \frac{8}{20(0.0001)} = 400 \\ n &= 10 \sqrt{25} = 50 \end{aligned}$$

We must round up to the next even integer since  $n$  must be even (in the Parabolic Rule). Thus we require  $n = 10$ . ■

Notice how much different the answers were for the two parts of the previous example. Eight is about 1/500th of the Parabolic Rule. We get a much more accurate answer using 10000 subintervals for the right Riemann sum. The Parabolic Rule is indeed a powerful method for approximating definite integrals.

**EXAMPLE 4.1.10** In all the previous examples the functions we integrate was defined over the whole interval of integration. Here the velocity function is only defined on  $[0, 10]$  seconds. But velocity is 0 for the rest of the water ride. If the tank is empty every 10 seconds and the water ride is refilled every 9.1 seconds, then the velocity function has a jump discontinuity. Although we cannot do this example exactly, we will use the methods of this section to approximate the integral.

**EXAMPLE 4.1.11** What, you heard, we found the new velocity of the car when she is out of the car every 10 minutes, that is every 600 seconds. The data in the table shows the speed and readings for an automated race. Approximate how far they drove.

**SOLUTION** Let  $v(t)$  denote the velocity of the car at time  $t$ , where  $t$  is measured in hours so at the beginning of the trip we know  $v(0) = 0$  and  $v(10) = 0$ .

If we could find the distance traveled by using  $\int_0^{10} v(t) dt$  then it is done. We know  $v$  only for 24 values of  $t$ ,  $t = x_k$  where  $k = 1, \dots, 24$ . Figure 5 shows a graph of the information we are given. We can approximate the area of 24  $\Delta x = 1$  intervals of width 1/24,  $\Delta x = 10/24$  hours, by the Trapezoidal Rule then gives

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^{10} v(t) dt &\approx \frac{10}{24} \left( v(0) + 2 \sum_{k=1}^{23} v(t_k) + v(10) \right) \\ &= \frac{10}{24} \{ 0 + 2(55 + 57 + 60 + 70) + 0 \} \\ &= 140 \end{aligned}$$

They drove approximately 140 miles. ■

| Minutes | Speed |
|---------|-------|
| 0       | 0     |
| 5       | 55    |
| 10      | 70    |
| 15      | 70    |
| 20      | 70    |
| 25      | 70    |
| 30      | 70    |
| 35      | 70    |
| 40      | 70    |
| 45      | 70    |
| 50      | 70    |
| 55      | 70    |
| 60      | 70    |
| 65      | 70    |
| 70      | 70    |
| 75      | 70    |
| 80      | 70    |
| 85      | 70    |
| 90      | 70    |
| 95      | 70    |
| 100     | 70    |
| 105     | 70    |
| 110     | 70    |
| 115     | 70    |
| 120     | 70    |
| 125     | 70    |
| 130     | 70    |
| 135     | 70    |
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| 445     | 70    |
| 450     | 70    |
| 455     | 70    |
| 460     | 70    |
| 465     | 70    |
| 470     | 70    |
| 475     | 70    |
| 480     | 70    |
| 485     | 70    |
| 490     | 70    |
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| 635     | 70    |
| 640     | 70    |
| 645     | 70    |
| 650     | 70    |
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| 665     | 70    |
| 670     | 70    |
| 675     | 70    |
| 680     | 70    |
| 685     | 70    |
| 690     | 70    |
| 695     | 70    |
| 700     | 70    |
| 705     | 70    |
| 710     | 70    |
| 715     | 70    |
| 720     | 70    |
| 725     | 70    |
| 730     | 70    |
| 735     | 70    |
| 740     | 70    |
| 745     | 70    |
| 750     | 70    |
| 755     | 70    |
| 760     | 70    |
| 765     | 70    |
| 770     | 70    |
| 775     | 70    |
| 780     | 70    |
| 785     | 70    |
| 790     | 70    |
| 795     | 70    |
| 800     | 70    |
| 805     | 70    |
| 810     | 70    |
| 815     | 70    |
| 820     | 70    |
| 825     | 70    |
| 830     | 70    |
| 835     | 70    |
| 840     | 70    |
| 845     | 70    |
| 850     | 70    |
| 855     | 70    |
| 860     | 70    |
| 865     | 70    |
| 870     | 70    |
| 875     | 70    |
| 880     | 70    |
| 885     | 70    |
| 890     | 70    |
| 895     | 70    |
| 900     | 70    |
| 905     | 70    |
| 910     | 70    |
| 915     | 70    |
| 920     | 70    |
| 925     | 70    |
| 930     | 70    |
| 935     | 70    |
| 940     | 70    |
| 945     | 70    |
| 950     | 70    |
| 955     | 70    |
| 960     | 70    |
| 965     | 70    |
| 970     | 70    |
| 975     | 70    |
| 980     | 70    |
| 985     | 70    |
| 990     | 70    |
| 995     | 70    |
| 1000    | 70    |

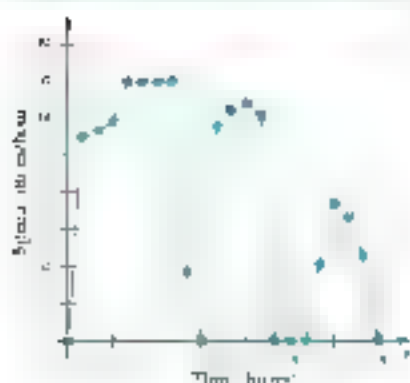


FIGURE 5

## Concepts Review

1. The pattern of coefficients in the Trapezoidal Rule is \_\_\_\_\_.
2. The pattern of coefficients in the Parabolic Rule is \_\_\_\_\_.
3. The error in the Trapezoidal Rule has  $n^2$  in the denominator whereas the error in the Parabolic Rule has \_\_\_\_\_ in the denominator.

Consequently, we expect the latter to give a better approximation to a definite integral.

4. If  $f$  is positive and concave up, then the Trapezoidal Rule will always give a value for  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$  that is less than \_\_\_\_\_.

## Problem Set 4.6

In Problems 1–4, use the methods of (1) left Riemann sum, (2) right Riemann sum, (3) Trapezoidal Rule, (4) Parabolic Rule with  $n = 8$  to approximate the definite integral. Then use the Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus to find the exact value of each integral.

1.  $\int_1^2 \frac{1}{x^2} dx$
2.  $\int_1^2 \frac{1}{x^2} dx$
3.  $\int_0^1 \sqrt{x} dx$
4.  $\int_0^1 x\sqrt{x^2 + 1} dx$
5.  $\int_0^1 x^2 dx$
6.  $\int_0^1 x^2 dx$

In Problems 7–10, use the methods of (1) left Riemann sum, (2) right Riemann sum, (3) midpoint Riemann sum, (4) Trapezoidal Rule, (5) Parabolic Rule with  $n = 4, 8, 16$ . Note that since  $n$  does not divide evenly into the interval, the Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus with the techniques you have learned so far, cannot give approximations to a value like this.

|                                 | LR | RR | MR | T | P |
|---------------------------------|----|----|----|---|---|
| 7. $\int_0^1 x^2 dx$            |    |    |    |   |   |
| 8. $\int_0^1 \sqrt{x^2 + 1} dx$ |    |    |    |   |   |
| 9. $\int_0^1 x^2 dx$            |    |    |    |   |   |

7.  $\int_0^1 x^2 dx$
8.  $\int_0^1 \sqrt{x^2 + 1} dx$
9.  $\int_0^1 x^2 dx$
10.  $\int_0^1 x^2 dx$

In Problems 11–14, determine whether the Trapezoidal Rule will give an approximation that is greater than, less than, or equal to the exact value of the integral.

11.  $\int_0^1 x^2 dx$
12.  $\int_0^1 x^2 dx$
13.  $\int_0^1 \sqrt{x} dx$
14.  $\int_0^1 x^2 dx$

In Problem 15, determine whether the Trapezoidal Rule will give an approximation that is greater than, less than, or equal to the exact value of the integral.

15.  $\int_0^1 x^2 dx$
16.  $\int_0^1 x^2 dx$

17. Let  $f(x) = ax^2 + bx + c$ . Show that

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \frac{b}{6}(a+b)^2 + \frac{c}{3}(a+b)$$

both have the value  $(\frac{b}{6}(a+b)^2 + \frac{c}{3}(a+b))$ . This establishes the area formula on which the Parabolic Rule is based.

18. Show that the Parabolic Rule is exact for any cubic polynomial in two different ways.

- (a) by using the Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus
- (b) by showing that  $E_p = 0$

Justify your answers to Problems 19–22 two ways: (1) using the geometry of the graph of the function, and (2) using the error formula from Theorem 4.

19. If a function  $f$  is increasing on  $[a, b]$ , will the left Riemann sum be larger or smaller than  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ ?

20. If a function  $f$  is increasing on  $[a, b]$ , will the right Riemann sum be larger or smaller than  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ ?

21. If a function  $f$  is concave down on  $[a, b]$ , will the midpoint Riemann sum be larger or smaller than  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ ?

22. If a function  $f$  is concave down on  $[a, b]$ , will the Simpson's Rule approximation be larger or smaller than  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ ?

23. Show that the Parabolic Rule gives the exact value of  $\int_0^1 x^2 dx$  provided that  $n$  is odd.

24. It is interesting that a modified version of the Trapezoidal Rule turns out to be as general and accurate as the Parabolic Rule. This version says that

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \approx \frac{b-a}{2} [f(a) + f(b)]$$

where  $T$  is the standard trapezoidal estimate.

(a) Use the error formula with  $n = 2$  to estimate the error in this remarkable accuracy.

(b) Use this formula with  $n = 12$  to estimate  $\int_0^1 \sin x dx$ .



25. Without doing any calculations, rank from smallest to largest the approximations of  $\int_0^1 \sqrt{x^2 + 1} \, dx$  for the following methods: left Riemann sum, right Riemann sum, midpoint Riemann sum, Simpson's Rule.

26. Without doing any calculations, rank from smallest to largest the approximations of  $\int_1^2 x^2 \sqrt{x} \, dx$  for the following methods: left Riemann sum, right Riemann sum, Trapezoidal Rule, Parabolic Rule.

27. Use the Trapezoidal Rule to approximate the area of the polygon in Figure 6. Dimensions are in feet.

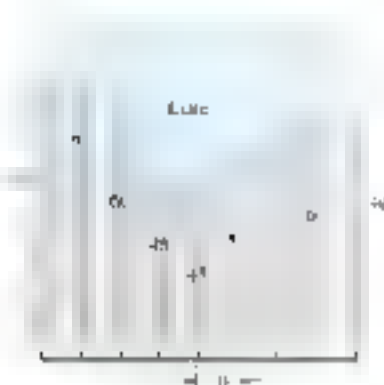


Figure 6

28. Use the Parabolic Rule to approximate the amount of water required to fill a pool shaped like Figure 7 to a depth of 6 feet. All dimensions are in feet.

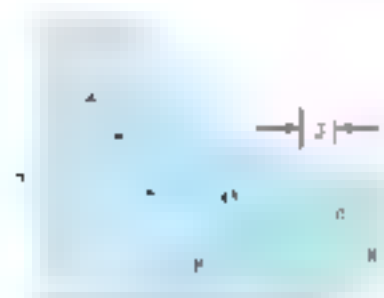


Figure 7

29. Figure 8 shows the depth in feet of the water in a river measured at 30-foot intervals across the width of the river at the water flows 20 miles per hour. How much water flows in this river below the dam where the measurements were taken in one day? Use the Parabolic Rule.



30. On her way to work, Jan noted her speed every 3 minutes. The results are shown in the table below. How far did she go?

| Time (minutes) | 0 | 3  | 6  | 9  | 12 | 15 | 18 | 21 | 24 |
|----------------|---|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|
| Speed (mi/hr)  | 0 | 31 | 56 | 53 | 52 | 50 | 34 | 24 | 0  |

31. Every 12 minutes between 4:00 p.m. and 4:48 p.m., the rate (in gallons per minute) at which water flowed out of a town's water tank was measured. The results are shown in the table below. How much water was used in this 3-hour span?

| Time           | 4:00 | 4:12 | 4:24 | 4:36 | 4:48 | 5:00 |
|----------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| Flow (gallons) | 45   | 71   | 88   | 78   | 65   | 0    |

| Time           | 4:00 | 4:12 | 4:24 | 4:36 | 4:48 | 5:00 |
|----------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| Flow (gallons) | 108  | 144  | 160  | 152  | 48   | 0    |

## 4.7 Chapter Review

### Concepts and Results

Respond with true or false to each of the following assertions. Be prepared to justify your answers.

- The indefinite integral is a linear operator.
- $\int [f'(x)g'(x) - g(x)f''(x)] \, dx = f(x)g(x) + C$
- All functions that are antiderivatives must have derivatives.

4. If the second derivatives of two functions are equal, then the functions differ at most by a constant.

5.  $\int f'(x) \, dx = f(x)$  for every differentiable function  $f$ .

6. If  $y = 16t^2 - v_0 t$  gives the height at time  $t$  of a ball thrown straight up from the surface of the earth with velocity  $v_0$  at time 0, then the ball will hit the ground with velocity  $-v_0$ .

7.  $\sum_{k=1}^n a_k = a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_n = \sum_{k=1}^n a_k$

8.  $\sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k^2} = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3}$

9.  $\sum_{k=1}^n (a + b) = (n+1)a$  and  $\sum_{k=1}^n (a + b) = (n+1)b$  then  $\sum_{k=1}^n a = (n+1)a$

10.  $f$  is bounded on  $[a, b]$  then  $f$  is integrable here

11.  $\int_0^1 f(x) dx = 1$

12.  $\int_0^1 f(x) dx = 1$  then  $\int_0^1 f(x) dx = 1$  for  $a = 0$  and  $b = 1$

13.  $\int_0^1 f(x) dx = 1$  then  $\int_0^1 f(x) dx = 1$  for  $a = 0$  and  $b = 1$

14.  $\int_0^1 f(x) dx = 1$  then  $\int_0^1 f(x) dx = 1$  for  $a = 0$  and  $b = 1$

15. The value of  $\int_0^1 (\sin x + \cos x) dx$  is independent of  $x$ 16. The operator  $\int$  is linear

17.  $\int_0^1 \sin x dx = 1$

18.  $\int_0^1 \sin x dx = \int_0^1 \sin x dx = \int_0^1 \sin x dx$

19. If  $f$  is continuous and positive everywhere, then  $\int_0^1 f(x) dx > 0$ 

20.  $\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^2} dx = \frac{1}{x}$

21.  $\int_0^1 \sin x dx = \int_0^1 \sin x dx$

22.  $\int_0^1 \sin x dx = 1 - \int_0^1 \sin x dx$

23. The antiderivatives of odd functions are even functions

24. If  $F(x)$  is an antiderivative of  $f(x)$ , then  $F(x+1)$  is an antiderivative of  $f(x+1)$ 25. If  $F(x)$  is an antiderivative of  $f(x)$ , then  $F(x+1)$  is an antiderivative of  $f(x+1)$ 26. If  $F(x)$  is an antiderivative of  $f(x)$ , then  $F(x+1)$  is an antiderivative of  $f(x+1)$ 27. If  $F(x)$  is an antiderivative of  $f(x)$ , then

$$\int f(g(x)) dx = F(g(x)) + C$$

28. If  $F(x)$  is an antiderivative of  $f(x)$ , then

$$\int f(x) dx = F(x) + C$$

29. If  $F(x)$  is an antiderivative of  $f(x)$ , then

$$\int f(x) dx = F(x) + C$$

30. If  $f(x) = 1$  on  $[0, 1]$ , then every Riemann sum for  $f$  on the given interval has the value 12.31. If  $F'(x) = G'(x)$  for all  $x$  in  $[a, b]$ , then  $F(b) - F(a) = G(b) - G(a)$ 32. If  $f(x) = f(x)$  for all  $x$  in  $[a, b]$ , then  $\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx$ 33. If  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2}$  then  $\int_1^2 f(x) dx = \frac{1}{2}$  is an odd function for  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2}$ 34. If  $F'(x) = f(x)$  for all  $x$  in  $[a, b]$ , then  $\int_a^b f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a)$ 

35.  $\int_0^1 (x^2 + 2x + 1) dx = \int_0^1 x^2 dx$

36. If  $f(x) \leq g(x)$  on  $[a, b]$ , then  $\int_a^b f(x) dx \leq \int_a^b g(x) dx$ 37. If  $f(x) \leq g(x)$  on  $[a, b]$ , then  $\int_a^b f(x) dx \leq \int_a^b g(x) dx$ 

38.  $\int_0^1 f(x) dx = \int_0^1 f(x) dx$

39. If  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$ , then  $\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx$ 

40.  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n \sin\left(\frac{2k}{n}\right) \frac{2}{n} = \int_0^1 \sin x dx$

41. If  $f(x) \rightarrow 0$ , then the number of subintervals in the partition  $P$  tends to  $\infty$ 

42. We can approximate the definite integral of an elementary function by using the midpoint rule.

43. For an increasing function, the left Riemann sum will always be less than the right Riemann sum.

44. For a linear function  $f(x)$ , the midpoint Riemann sum will give the exact value of  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$  no matter what  $n$  is.45. The Trapezoidal Rule with  $n = 10$  will give an estimate for  $\int_0^1 x^2 dx$  that is smaller than the true value.46. The Parabolic Rule with  $n = 10$  will give the exact value of  $\int_0^1 x^3 dx$ .

### Sample Test Problems

In Problems 1–12, evaluate the indicated integral.

1.  $\int_0^1 (x^2 - 2x^3 + 3\sqrt{x}) dx$  2.  $\int_1^4 \frac{2x^4 - 3x^2 + 1}{x^3} dx$

3.  $\int_0^1 \frac{y^2 - 4y \sin y + 3y^2}{y} dy$  4.  $\int_1^4 y\sqrt{y^2 - 4} dy$

5.  $\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx$  6.  $\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx$

7.  $\int_0^1 (x+1) \tan(2x^2 + 4x) \sec^2(3x^2 - 6x) dx$

8.  $\int_0^1 \frac{t^2}{\sqrt{t^2 + 1}} dt$  9.  $\int_0^1 \frac{1}{\sqrt{t^2 + 1}} dt$

10.  $\int_1^4 \frac{y^2}{(y^3 - 3y)^2} dy$

11.  $\int (x + 1) \sin(x^2 + 2x + 3) dx$

12.  $\int_1^5 \frac{(y^2 + y + 1)}{(y^3 + 3y^2 + 6y)} dy$

13. Let  $P$  be a regular partition of the interval  $[0, 2]$  into four equal subintervals, and let  $f(x) = x^2$ . Write out the Riemann sum for  $f$  on  $P$  in which  $\bar{x}_i$  is the right end point of each subinterval of  $P$ ,  $i = 1, 2, 3, 4$ . Find the value of this Riemann sum and make a sketch.

14. If  $F(x) = \int_{-2}^x (t^2 + 3) dt$ ,  $2 \leq x$  find  $F'(x)$ .

15. Evaluate  $\int_0^1 \sqrt{x+1}^2 dx$ .

16. If  $f(x) = 2x^2 \sqrt{x^3 - 4}$ , find the average value of  $f$  on  $[2, 5]$ .

17. Evaluate  $\int_1^4 \frac{1}{x^2} dx$ .

18. Evaluate  $\sum_{i=1}^n (3^i - 3)$ .

19. Evaluate  $\sum_{i=1}^n (6i^2 - 8i)$ .

20. Evaluate each sum.

a)  $\sum_{i=0}^4 \binom{4}{i}$       b)  $\sum_{i=1}^n (2 - i)$       c)  $\sum_{k=1}^4 \cos\left(\frac{k\pi}{4}\right)$

21. Write in sigma notation.

a)  $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \dots + \frac{1}{n}$

b)  $x + 2x^2 + 3x^3 + 4x^4 + \dots + 50x^{100}$

22. Sketch the region under the curve  $y = 16 - x^2$  between  $x = 0$  and  $x = 3$ , showing the inscribed polygon corresponding to a regular partition of  $[0, 3]$  into  $n$  subintervals. Find a formula for the area of this polygon and then find the area under the curve by taking a limit.

23. If  $\int_0^1 f(x) dx = 4$ ,  $\int_0^1 f(x^2) dx = 2$  and  $\int_1^e g(x) dx = 3$ , evaluate each integral.

(a)  $\int_1^2 f(x) dx$

(b)  $\int_1^4 f(x) dx$

(c)  $\int_0^2 3f(u) du$

(d)  $\int_0^2 [2g(x) - 3f(x)] dx$

(e)  $\int_0^1 f(\sqrt{x}) dx$

24. Evaluate each integral.

a)  $\int_0^1 x \ln x dx$

(b)  $\int_0^1 [x] dx$

(c)  $\int_0^1 (x - [x - 4x]) dx$

*Hint:* In parts (a) and (b), first sketch a graph.

25. Suppose that  $f(x) = f(1/x)$ ,  $f(x) \leq 0$ ,  $g(x) = g(1/x)$ .

$\int_0^1 f(x) dx = 4$ , and  $\int_0^1 g(x) dx = 5$ . Evaluate each integral.

a)  $\int_2^1 f(x) dx$

b)  $\int_2^1 f(x) dx$

c)  $\int_{-2}^1 g(x) dx$

d)  $\int_2^1 [f(x) + f(1/x)] dx$

e)  $\int_0^1 [2g(x) + 3f(x)] dx$

(f)  $\int_{-2}^1 g(x) dx$

26. Evaluate  $\int_0^{100} (x^2 + \sin^2 x) dx$ .

27. Find  $c$  of the Mean Value Theorem for Integrals for  $f(x) = 3x^2 \cos^{-1} x$ .

28. Find  $G'(x)$  for each function  $G$ .

a)  $G(x) = \int_2^x \frac{1}{t^2 + 1} dt$

b)  $G(x) = \int_1^x \frac{1}{t^2 + 1} dt$

(c)  $G(x) = \int_x^1 \frac{1}{t^2 + 1} dt$

29. Find  $G'(x)$  for each function  $G$ .

(a)  $G(x) = \int_1^x \sin^2 z dz$

(b)  $G(x) = \int_x^{x^2} f(z) dz$

(c)  $G(x) = \int_x^x f(z) dz$

d)  $G(x) = \int_0^x \left( \int_0^t f(x) dx \right) dt$

e)  $G(x) = \int_0^x \left( \frac{d}{dt} g(t) \right) dt$

f)  $G(x) = \int_0^x f(t + t) dt$

30. Evaluate each of the following limits by recognizing it as a definite integral.

a)  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n \sqrt{\frac{4i}{n}} \cdot \frac{4}{n}$

(b)  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n \left( 1 + \frac{2i}{n} \right)^{-1} \cdot \frac{1}{n}$

31. Show that if  $f(x) = \int_{x_0}^x f(t) dt$ , then  $f$  is a constant function on  $(0, \infty)$ .

32. Approximate  $\int_1^2 \frac{1}{x^2} dx$  using left, right, and mid-point Riemann sums with  $n = 8$ .

33. Approximate  $\int_1^2 \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx$  using the Trapezoidal Rule with  $n = 8$ , and give an upper bound for the absolute value of the error.

34. Approximate  $\int_0^4 1 + 2x \, dx$  using the Parabolic Rule with  $n = 8$  and give an upper bound for the absolute value of the error.

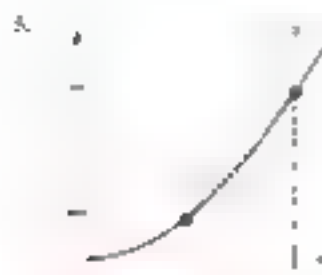
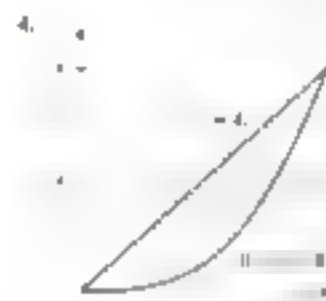
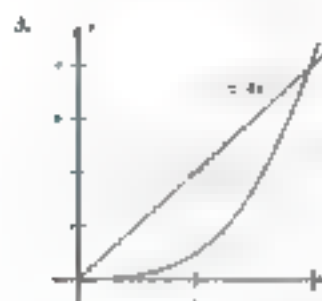
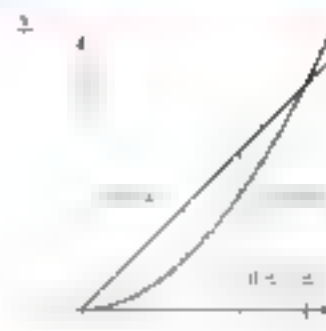
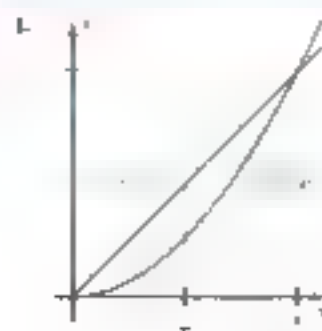
35. How large must  $n$  be for the Trapezoidal Rule in order to approximate  $\int_1^2 \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} \, dx$  with an error no larger than 0.0001?

36. How large must  $n$  be for the Parabolic Rule in order to approximate  $\int_0^4 \frac{1}{x^2 + 2x} \, dx$  with an error no larger than 0.0001?

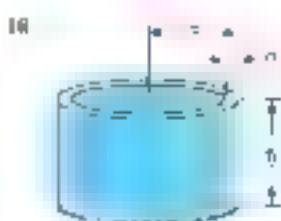
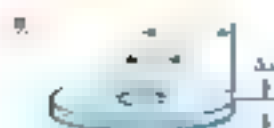
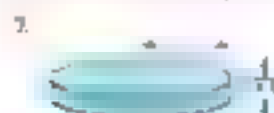
37. Without doing any calculations, rank from smallest to largest the approximations of  $\int_1^4 \frac{1}{x} \, dx$  for the following methods: Riemann sum, midpoint Riemann sum, Trapezoidal rule.

# REVIEW & PREVIEW PROBLEMS

In Problems 1–6, find the length of the solid green line.



For each of the following figures, the volume of the solid is equal to the base area times the height. Give the volume of each of these solids.



Evaluate each of the following definite integrals.

11.  $\int_0^1 (x^2 - 2x^3 + 3) dx$

12.  $\int_0^1 x dx$

13.  $\int_0^1 \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx$

14.  $\int_0^1 \sqrt{1-x^2} dx$

- 5.1 The Area of a Plane Region
- 5.2 Volumes of Solids: Disks, Washers
- 5.3 Volumes of Solids: Cylinders, Cones
- 5.4 Length of a Plane Curve
- 5.5 Work and Fluid Force
- 5.6 Moments and Center of Mass
- 5.7 Probability and Random Variables

## 5.1 The Area of a Plane Region

The brief discussion of area in Section 4.5 served to motivate the definition of the definite integral. With the latter notion now firmly established, we use the definite integral to calculate areas of regions of more and more complicated shapes. As a first practice, we begin with simple cases.

**EXAMPLE 1** Find the area of the region  $R$  bounded by the graph of the function  $y = f(x) = 2 - x^2$  and the  $x$ -axis,  $x = -2$ , and  $x = 3$ . (See Figure 1.) Consider the region  $R$  bounded by the graphs of  $y = f(x) = 2 - x^2$  and  $y = 0$ . We assume that  $R$  is the region situated between  $x = a$  and  $x = b$ . Its area  $A(R)$  is given by

$$A(R) = \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

**SOLUTION** Find the area of the region  $R$  above the  $x$ -axis, between  $x = -2$  and  $x = 3$ .

**SOLUTION** The graph of  $R$  is shown in Figure 2. A rough estimate for the area of  $R$  is its base times an average height, say  $(2)(2) = 4$ . The exact value is

$$\begin{aligned} A(R) &= \int_{-2}^3 (2 - x^2) dx = \left[ 2x - \frac{1}{3}x^3 \right]_{-2}^3 = \left( 6 - \frac{27}{3} \right) - \left( -4 + \frac{8}{3} \right) = 6 - 9 + 4 - \frac{8}{3} = \frac{5}{3} \approx 1.67 \end{aligned}$$

The calculator value 1.67 is close enough to our estimate 4 to provide satisfaction in this case. ■

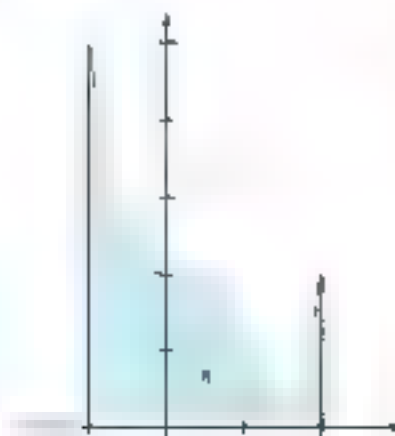
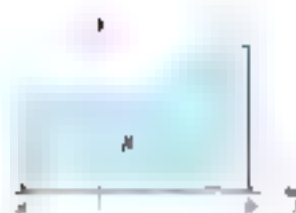
**EXAMPLE 2** Find the area of the region  $R$  bounded by the graph of  $y = f(x) = x^2 + 4$  and the  $x$ -axis,  $x = -2$ , and  $x = 3$ . (See Figure 3.) Since  $y = f(x)$  is always positive, the graph of  $y = f(x)$  is above the  $x$ -axis, then  $\int_{-2}^3 f(x) dx$  is a positive number and therefore cannot be an area. However, it just happens that the area of the region bounded by  $y = f(x)$ ,  $x = -2$ ,  $x = 3$ , and  $y = 0$ .

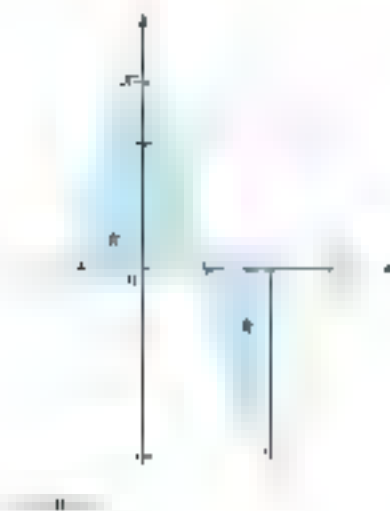
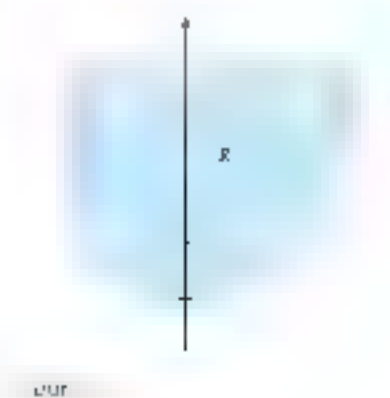
**SOLUTION** Find the area of the region  $R$  bounded by the graph of  $y = f(x) = x^2 + 4$  and the  $x$ -axis,  $x = -2$  and  $x = 3$ .

**SOLUTION** The graph of  $R$  is shown in Figure 4. Our rough estimate for its area is  $(\frac{5}{2})(3) = 15$ . The exact value is

$$\begin{aligned} A(R) &= \int_{-2}^3 (x^2 + 4) dx = \left[ \frac{1}{3}x^3 + 4x \right]_{-2}^3 = \left( \frac{27}{3} + 12 \right) - \left( -\frac{8}{3} - 8 \right) = 9 + 12 + \frac{8}{3} + 8 = \frac{45}{3} = 15 \end{aligned}$$

We are reassured by the nearness of 16.1 to our estimate. ■





**EXAMPLE 1** Find the area of the region  $R$  bounded by  $y = x^2 - 3x + 3$ ,  $x = -1$ , the segment of the  $x$ -axis between  $x = -1$  and  $x = 2$ , and the line  $x = 2$ .

**SOLUTION** The region  $R$  is shown in Figure 5.1.1. Notice that  $R$  is above the  $x$ -axis and part is below. The areas of these two parts,  $R_1$  and  $R_2$ , must be obtained separately. You can check that the curve crosses the  $x$ -axis at  $x = -1$  and  $2$ . Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} A(R) &= A(R_1) + A(R_2) \\ &= \int_{-1}^1 (x^2 - 3x^2 - x + 3) dx + \int_1^2 (x^2 - 3x^2 - x + 3) dx \\ &= \left[ \frac{1}{3}x^3 - \frac{3}{5}x^5 - \frac{1}{2}x^2 + 3x \right]_{-1}^1 + \left[ \frac{1}{3}x^3 - \frac{3}{5}x^5 - \frac{1}{2}x^2 + 3x \right]_1^2 \\ &= \left( \frac{1}{3} - \frac{3}{5} - \frac{1}{2} + 3 \right) - \left( -\frac{1}{3} + \frac{3}{5} - \frac{1}{2} + 3 \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{3} - \frac{3}{5} - \frac{1}{2} + 3 + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{3}{5} + \frac{1}{2} - 3 \\ &= \frac{2}{3} - \frac{6}{5} + \frac{1}{2} = \frac{4}{15} \end{aligned}$$

Notice that we could have written this area as one integral using the absolute value symbol:

$$A(R) = \int_{-1}^2 |x^2 - 3x^2 - x + 3| dx$$

but this is not a simplification since, in order to evaluate it, we would have to split it into two parts, just as we did above.

**EXAMPLE 2** Find the area of the region  $R$  bounded by the parabola  $y = x^2 - 3x + 3$ , the  $x$ -axis, and the line  $x = 2$ . **SOLUTION** The region  $R$  is shown in Figure 5.1.1. Notice that  $R$  is above the  $x$ -axis and part is below. The areas of these two parts,  $R_1$  and  $R_2$ , must be obtained separately. You can check that the curve crosses the  $x$ -axis at  $x = -1$  and  $2$ . Thus,

**Step 1:** Sketch the region.

**Step 2:** Slice it into thin pieces (strips), label a typical piece.

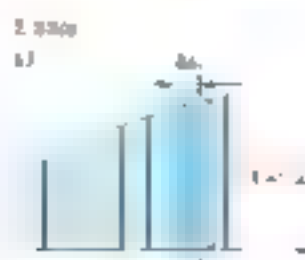
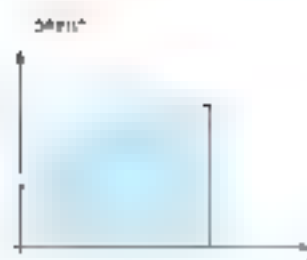
**Step 3:** Approximate the area of this typical piece as if it were a rectangle.

**Step 4:** Add up the approximations to the area of the pieces.

**Step 5:** Take the limit as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  of the sum of the areas of the pieces, which is the definite integral.

In this case, we consider yet another simple example.

**EXAMPLE 3** Set up the integral for the area of the region under  $y = 1 - x^2$  between  $x = 0$  and  $x = 1$  (Figure 5.1.2).



**3. Approximate area of typical piece**

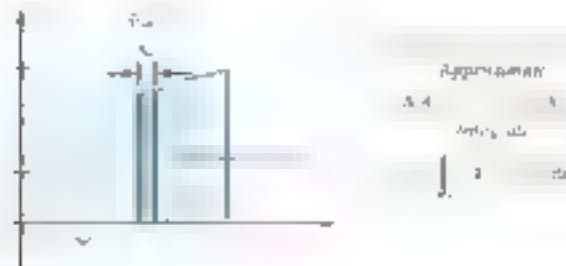
$$\Delta A_i \approx \Delta x (1 - x_i^2)$$

$$\Delta A_i \approx \Delta x (1 - x_i^2)$$

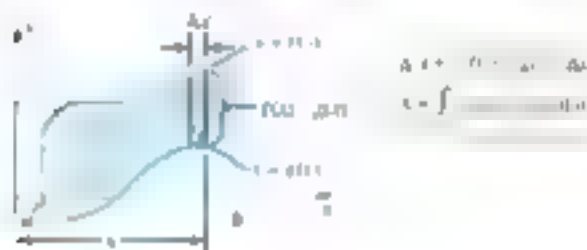
$$\Delta A_i \approx \Delta x (1 - x_i^2)$$

$$\Delta A_i \approx \Delta x (1 - x_i^2)$$

**STEP 11.3X** Once we understand this five-step procedure, we can abbreviate it to three steps: *approximate, partition, integrate*. Think of the word *integrate* as incorporating two steps: (1) add the areas of the pieces and (2) take the limit as the piece width tends to zero. In this process,  $\Delta x$  transforms into  $dx$  as we take the limit. Figure 6 gives the abbreviated form for the same problem.

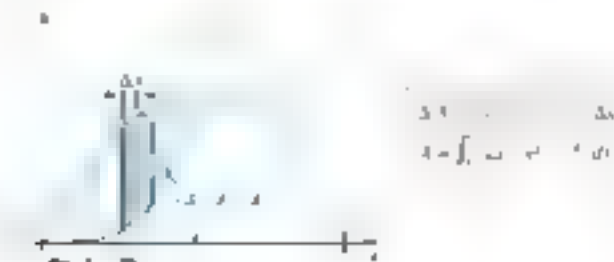


**EXAMPLE 1** Consider curves  $f(x) = x^2$  and  $g(x) = x^3$  on the interval  $[0, 1]$ . Then, to estimate the region shown in Figure 7, we use the five-step procedure. Since  $f(x) \geq g(x)$  on  $[0, 1]$ , the region is bounded above by  $y = f(x) = x^2$  and below by  $y = g(x) = x^3$ . The width of the piece for the  $i$ th subinterval, even when the graph of  $g$  goes below the  $x$ -axis (this case  $i = 1$ ), is  $\Delta x = 1/n$ . The height  $h_i$  is the same as finding a positive number. You can check to it  $f(x_i^*) - g(x_i^*)$  gives the net per height, even when both  $f(x)$  and  $g(x)$  are negative.



**EXAMPLE 2** Find the area of the region between the curves  $y = 2x^2 - 1$  and  $y = 2x^3 - 1$ .

**SOLUTION** We start by finding where the two curves intersect. For this, we need to solve  $2x^2 - 1 = 2x^3 - 1$ , a fourth-degree equation which would usually be difficult to solve. However, in this case  $x = 0$  and  $x = 1$  are rather obvious solutions. On the chart of the curves, together with the region of interest, and the corresponding integral is shown in Figure 8.





One job remains: to evaluate the integral.

$$\int_0^4 (x - x^2) dx = \left[ \frac{x^2}{2} - \frac{x^3}{3} \right]_0^4 = \frac{16}{2} - \frac{64}{3} = \frac{32}{3} \quad \blacksquare$$

**EXAMPLE 6 Horizontal Strips** Find the area of the region between the parabola  $y = 4x - x^2$  and the line  $x = y + 4$ .

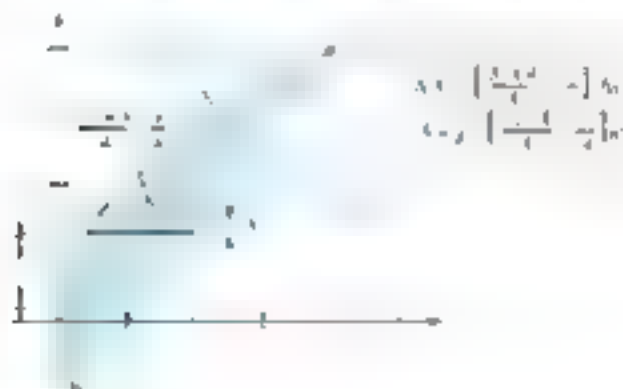
**SOLUTION** We will need the points of intersection of these two curves. The  $x$ -coordinate of these points can be found by writing the second equation as  $4x = 3y + 4$  and then equating the two expressions for  $4x$ :

$$\begin{aligned} y^3 &= 3y + 4 \\ y^3 - 3y - 4 &= 0 \\ (y - 4)(y + 1) &= 0 \\ y &= 4 \end{aligned}$$

When  $y = 4$ ,  $x = 4$  and when  $y = -1$ ,  $x = 4$ , so we conclude that the points of intersection are  $(4, 4)$  and  $(4, -1)$ . The region between the curves is shown in Figure 5.

Now imagine slicing this region vertically. We have a problem because the lower boundary consists of two different curves. One curve is the lower branch of the parabola to its upper branch. For the rest of the region, the lower boundary is the line  $x = y + 4$ . Solving problems with vertical slices requires that we first split the region into two parts, set up an integral for each part, and then evaluate both integrals.

A cleaner approach is to slice the region horizontally, as shown in Figure 6. This avoids the problem that arises in integrating with respect to  $x$ . Note that a vertical slice always goes from the parabola (at the left) to the line (at the right). The length of each vertical slice is the  $y$ -value  $(x = y + 4 \Rightarrow y = x - 4)$  minus the  $y$ -value  $(y = 4 - x^2)$ .



$$\begin{aligned} A &= \int_{-1}^4 (4 - x^2) dx = \left[ 4x - \frac{x^3}{3} \right]_{-1}^4 \\ &= \left( 16 - \frac{64}{3} \right) - \left( -4 + \frac{1}{3} \right) \\ &= \frac{48}{3} - \frac{64}{3} + \frac{12}{3} - \frac{1}{3} \\ &= \frac{15}{3} = 5 \end{aligned}$$

There are two items to note: (1) The integrand resulting from a horizontal slicing involves  $y$  and  $x$  and (2) to get the integrand, solve both equations for  $x$  and subtract the smaller  $x$  value from the larger. ■

Consider an object moving along a straight line with velocity  $v(t)$  at time  $t$ . If  $v(t) \geq 0$ , then  $\int_a^b v(t) dt$  gives the distance traveled during the time interval  $a \leq t \leq b$  (we even find  $v(t)$  is sometimes negative (which corresponds to the object moving in reverse), then

$$\int_a^b v(t) dt = s(b) - s(a)$$

measures the **displacement** of the object that is, the directed distance from its starting position  $s(a)$  to its ending position  $s(b)$ . To get the **total distance** that the object traveled during  $a \leq t \leq b$ , we must calculate  $\int_a^b |v(t)| dt$ , the area between the velocity curve and the  $t$ -axis.

**EXAMPLE 7** An object is at position  $s = 3$  at time  $t = 0$ . Its velocity is  $v(t) = 5 \sin \pi t$  meters per second. What is the position of the object at time  $t = 2$ ? Also, how far did it travel during this time?

**SOLUTION** The object's displacement, that is, change in position, is

$$s(2) - s(0) = \int_0^2 v(t) dt = \int_0^2 5 \sin \pi t dt = -\frac{5}{\pi} \cos \pi t \Big|_0^2$$

Thus,  $s(2) = s(0) = 0 = 3 + 0 = 3$ . The object is at position 3 at time  $t = 2$ . The total distance traveled is

$$\int_0^2 |v(t)| dt = \int_0^2 5 |\sin \pi t| dt$$

To perform this integration we make use of symmetry (see Figure 5.1.10). Thus

$$\int_0^2 |v(t)| dt = 2 \int_0^1 5 \sin \pi t dt = 2 \left( -\frac{5}{\pi} \cos \pi t \Big|_0^1 \right) = \frac{20}{\pi} \approx 6.3662 \quad \blacksquare$$



## Concepts Review

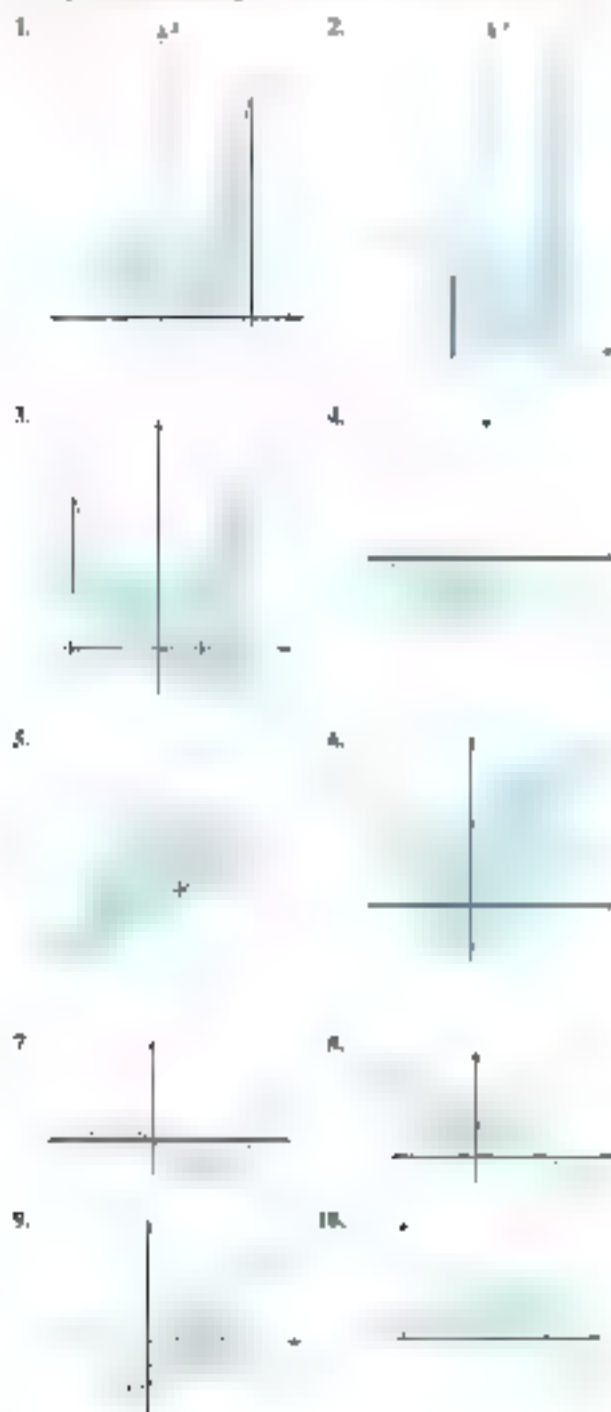
- Let  $R$  be the region between the curve  $y = f(x)$  and the  $x$ -axis on the interval  $[a, b]$ . If  $f(x) \geq 0$  for all  $x$  in  $[a, b]$ , then  $A(R) = \int_a^b f(x) dx$ . But if  $f(x) \leq 0$  for all  $x$  in  $[a, b]$ , then  $A(R) = \int_a^b -f(x) dx$ .
- To find the area of the region between two curves, it is wise to think of the following three-word method:
- Suppose that the curves  $y = f(x)$  and  $y = g(x)$  bound a region  $R$  on which  $f(x) \leq g(x)$ . Then the area of  $R$  is given by

$A(R) = \int_a^b [g(x) - f(x)] dx$  if  $a$  and  $b$  are points on the  $x$ -axis satisfying the equation

- If  $p(y) \leq q(y)$  for all  $y$  in  $[c, d]$ , then the area  $A(R)$  of the region  $R$  bounded by the curves  $x = p(y)$  and  $x = q(y)$  between  $y = c$  and  $y = d$  is given by  $A(R) = \int_c^d [q(y) - p(y)] dy$ .

## Problem Set 5.1

In Problems 1–10, use the three-step procedure (sketch, approximate, integrate) to set up and evaluate an integral (or integrals) for the area of the indicated region.



2] In Problems 11–28, sketch the region bounded by the graphs of the given equations. Approximate the area, set up an integral, and calculate the area of the region. Make an estimate of the area to compare your answer.

11.  $y = 3 - x^2$ ,  $y = 0$ , between  $x = 0$  and  $x = 2$

12.  $y = 1 - x^2$ ,  $y = 0$ , between  $x = -1$  and  $x = 1$

13.  $y = (x - 4)(x - 2)$ ,  $y = 0$ , between  $x = 0$  and  $x = 3$

14.  $y = 1 - x^2$ ,  $y = 0$ , between  $x = 0$  and  $x = 1$

15.  $y = \frac{1}{2}(x^2 - 2)$ ,  $y = 0$ , between  $x = 0$  and  $x = 2$

16.  $y = x^2 + 1$ ,  $y = 0$ , between  $x = -1$  and  $x = 1$

17.  $y = \sqrt{x}$ ,  $y = 0$ , between  $x = 0$  and  $x = 2$

18.  $y = \sqrt{x}$ ,  $y = 0$ , between  $x = 0$  and  $x = 9$

19.  $y = (x - 3)(x - 1)$ ,  $y = 0$

20.  $y = x^2 - 4$ ,  $y = 0$

21.  $y = 2x$ ,  $y = x^2$

22.  $y = x^2$ ,  $y = 0$

23.  $y = x^2$ ,  $y = 0$

24.  $y = x^2$ ,  $y = 0$

25.  $x = -6y + 4$ ,  $x = 3y - 2 = 0$

26.  $x = y^2 - 2$ ,  $x = y - 1 = 0$

27.  $4y^2 - 2x = 0$ ,  $4y^2 + 4x - 12 = 0$

28.  $x = y^2$ ,  $x = 0$ ,  $y = 1$

29. Sketch the region  $R$  bounded by  $y = x + 6$ ,  $y = x^2$  and  $y + x = 0$ . Then find its area. How many  $R$  units is nine?

30. Find the area of the triangle with vertices at  $(-1, 4)$ ,  $(2, -2)$  and  $(3, 1)$  by integration.

31. An object moves along a line so that its velocity at time  $t$  is  $v(t) = 3t^2 - 24t + 36$  feet per second. Find the displacement and total distance traveled by the object for  $-1 \leq t \leq 9$ .

32. Follow the directions of Problem 31 if  $v(t) = \frac{1}{2}t^2 - 3t + 2$  and the interval  $0 \leq t \leq 10$  ft.

33. Starting at  $t = 0$  when  $x = 0$ , an object moves along a line so that its velocity at time  $t$  is  $v(t) = 3t - 4$  centimeters per second. How long will it take to get to  $x = 12$ ? To reach a total distance of 7 centimeters?

34. Consider the curve  $y = 1 - x^2$  for  $-1 \leq x \leq 1$ .

(a) Calculate the area under this curve.

(b) Determine  $c$  so that the line  $x = c$  bisects the area of part (a).

(c) Determine  $d$  so that the line  $y = d$  bisects the area of part (a).

35. Calculate area  $A$ ,  $B$ ,  $C$ , and  $D$  in Figure 2. Check by calculating  $1 + B + C + D$  in one integration.



36. Prove Cavalieri's Principle. (Bonaventura Cavalieri (1598–1657) developed this principle in 1635.) If two regions have the same height at every  $x$  in  $[a, b]$  then they have the same area (see Figure 13).

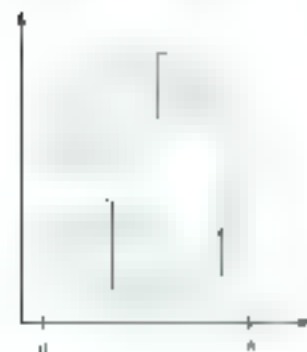


Figure 13

37. Use Cavalieri's Principle (not integration; see Problem 36) to show that the shaded regions in Figure 14 have the same area.



38. Find the area of the region trapped between  $y = \sin x$  and  $y = \cos x$  for  $0 \leq x \leq \pi/4$ .

1.  $\int_a^b f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a)$
2. slice approximate integral  $\Delta V \approx f(x) \Delta x$
3.  $V \approx \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i) \Delta x$
4.  $\int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i) \Delta x$

## § 2 Volumes of Solids: Slabs, Disks, Washers

Consider an ordinary coin (say a quarter).



A quarter has a radius of about 1 centimeter and a thickness of about 0.2 centimeter. Its volume is the area of the face  $A = \pi(1)^2$  times the thickness  $h = 0.2$  that is,

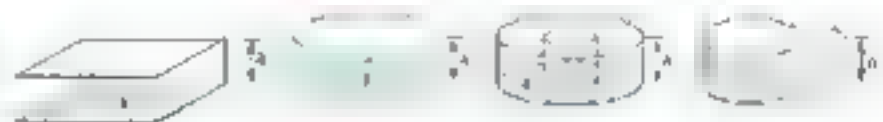
$$V = (\pi)(1)^2(0.2) \approx 0.63$$

cubic centimeters.

The definite integral can be used to calculate area and, for simplicity, was introduced for surface. But now it becomes useful for volume as well as for area. Many quantities can be thought of as a result of slicing something into small pieces, approximating each piece, adding up, and taking the limit as the pieces become smaller. The method of slice approximation can be used to find the volume of solids provided that the volume of each slice is easy to approximate.

What is volume? We start with simple solids called *right cylinders*, four of which are shown in Figure 1. In each case the solid is generated by moving a plane region  $R$  through a distance  $h$  in a direction perpendicular to the region. And in each case the volume of the solid is defined to be the area  $A$  of the base times the height  $h$ ; that is,

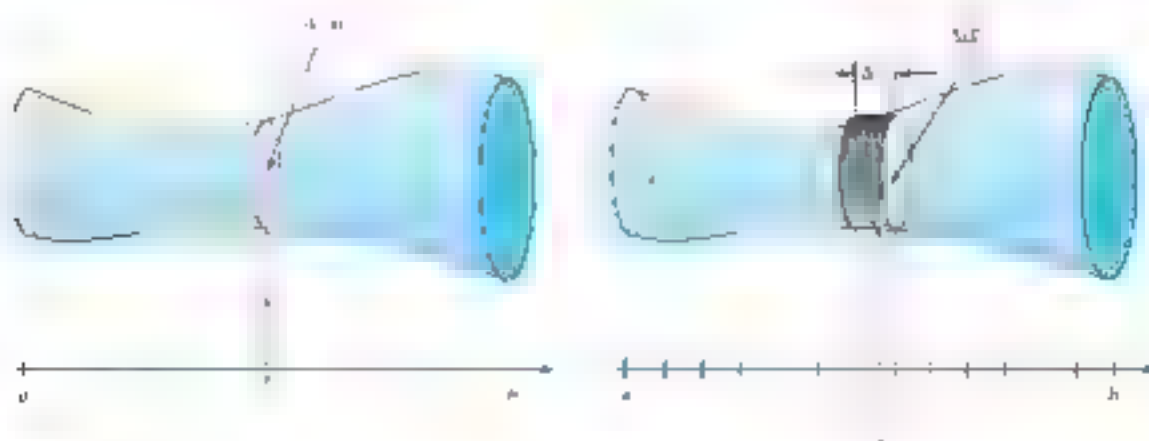
$$V = A h$$



Now we consider a solid with the property that cross sections perpendicular to a given line have known area. In particular, suppose the line is the  $x$ -axis and that the area of the cross section at  $x$  is  $A(x)$ ,  $a \leq x \leq b$  (Figure 2). We partition the interval  $[a, b]$  by inserting points  $x_0 = a < x_1 < x_2 < \dots < x_n = b$ . We then pass planes through these points perpendicular to the  $x$ -axis, thus slicing the solid into  $n$  slabs (Figure 3). The volume  $\Delta V_i$  of a slab should be approximately the volume of a cylinder that is,

$$\Delta V_i \approx A(x_i) \Delta x$$

Recall that  $\Delta x$  with a sample point  $x_i^*$  can be written as  $\Delta x = x_i - x_{i-1}$ .



The volume  $V$  of the solid should be given approximately by the Riemann sum

$$V \approx \sum_{i=1}^n A(x_i^*) \Delta x.$$

When we let the norm of the partition approach zero, we obtain the definite integral. This integral is defined to be the **volume** of the solid.

$$V = \int_a^b A(x) dx$$

Whether this formula approximates the better, volume is still the volume. We will get this in each part of our program. In each part, we will get a definite integral. We call this process **disc approximation**. **Integration** is the process of the examples that follow.

**Section 5.2: Solids of Revolution** When a plane region  $R$  is revolved about a fixed line in its plane, we have a **solid of revolution**. The fixed line is called the **axis of revolution**.

As an illustration, if the region bounded by a semicircle and its diameter is revolved about that diameter, it will produce a sphere. Since the region is a semicircle, it is revolved about one of its legs, generating a sphere. When a region is revolved about a line, the volume of the solid is given by the definite integral.

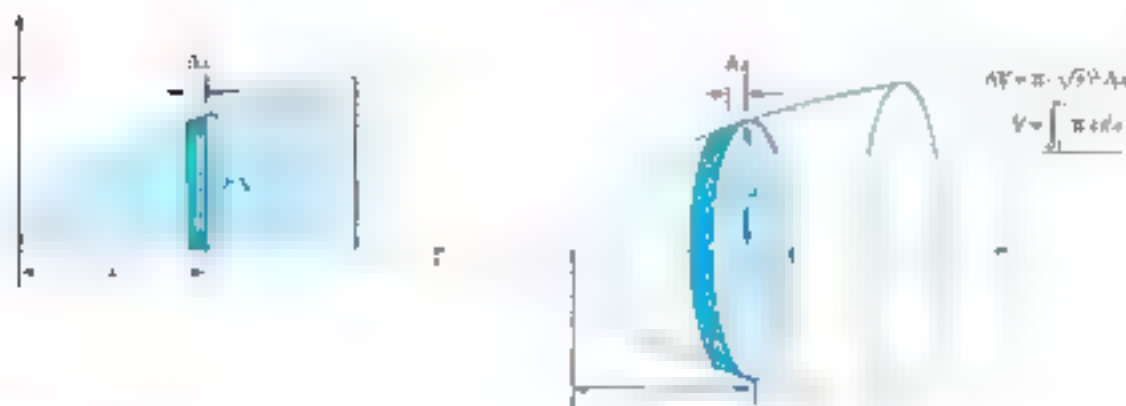


FIGURE 5.26

FIGURE 5.27

**EXAMPLE 1** Find the volume of the solid of revolution obtained by revolving the plane region  $R$  bounded by  $y = \sqrt{x}$ , the  $x$ -axis, and the line  $x = 4$  about the  $y$ -axis.

**SOLUTION** The region  $R$  with a typical line is displayed as the left part of Figure 7. When revolved about the  $y$ -axis, this region generates a solid of revolution and the slice generates a disk, a thin coin-shaped object.



Revolving that slice, a volume of a circular cylinder is formed. We approximate the volume  $\Delta V$  of this disk with  $\Delta V \approx \pi(\sqrt{x})^2 \Delta x$  and then integrate:

$$V \approx \pi \int_0^4 x \, dx = \pi \left[ \frac{x^2}{2} \right]_0^4 = \pi \left[ \frac{16}{2} \right] = 8\pi \approx 25.13.$$

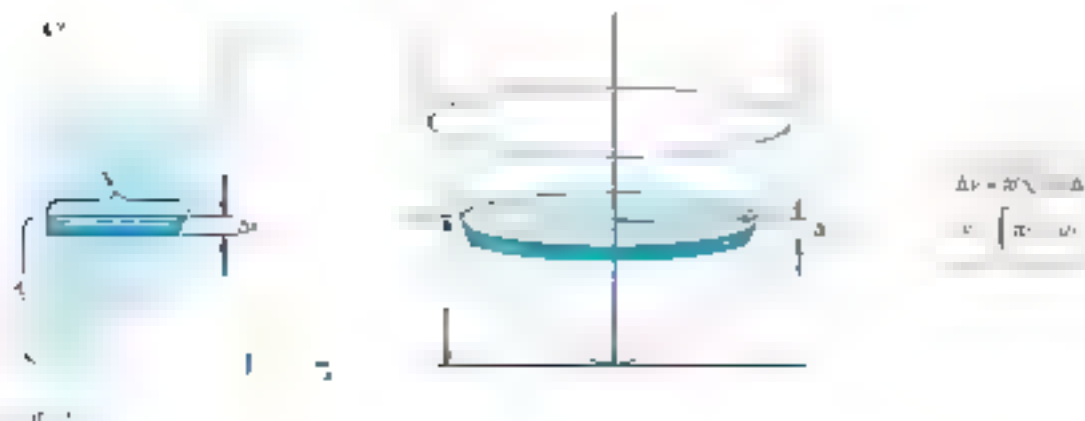
Is this answer reasonable? The right circular cylinder that contains the solid has volume  $V = \pi 2^2 \cdot 4 = 16\pi$ . Half this number seems reasonable. ■

**EXAMPLE 2** Find the volume of the solid generated by revolving the region bounded by the curve  $y = x^3$ , the  $y$ -axis, and the line  $y = 8$  about the  $y$ -axis (Figure 8).

**SOLUTION** Here we slice horizontally, which makes  $y$  the better choice for the integration variable. Note that  $y = x^3$  is equivalent to  $x = \sqrt[3]{y}$  and  $\Delta V \approx \pi(\sqrt[3]{y})^2 \Delta y$ .

The volume is therefore

$$V \approx \pi \int_0^8 y \, dy = \pi \left[ \frac{y^2}{2} \right]_0^8 = \pi \left[ \frac{64}{2} \right] = 32\pi.$$



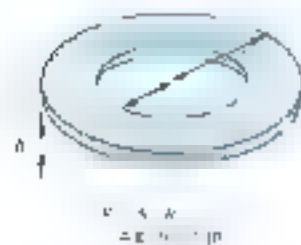


Figure 9

**FIGURE 9** Some times slicing a solid of revolution in results in disks with a hole in the middle. We call them washers. See the diagram and accompanying volume formula shown in Figure 9.

**EXAMPLE** Find the volume of the solid generated by revolving the region bounded by the parabolas  $y = x^2$  and  $y^2 = 8x$  about the  $x$ -axis.

**SOLUTION** The key words are *still slices*, *approximate*, *volume* (see Figure 10).

$$V = \pi \int_0^2 (8x - x^4) dx = \pi \left[ 4x^2 - \frac{x^5}{5} \right]_0^2 = \frac{68\pi}{5} \approx 41.77$$

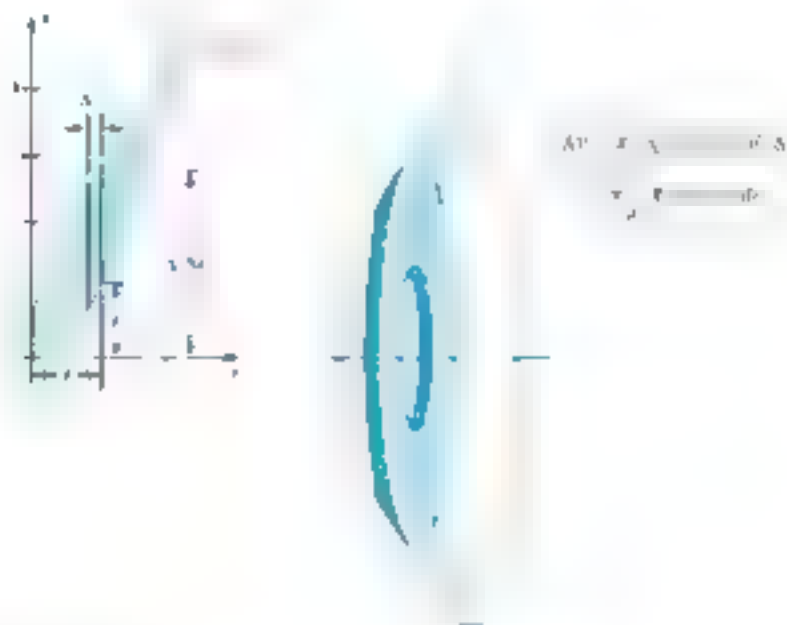


Figure 10

**EXAMPLE** The semi-elliptical region bounded by the curve  $y = \sqrt{4 - x^2}$  and the  $x$ -axis is revolved about the line  $x = -4$ . Set up the integral that represents its volume.

**SOLUTION** Here, the outer radius of the washer is  $4 - \sqrt{4 - x^2}$  (in fact, the inner radius is 0; Figure 11 exhibits the solution). The integral, as he's applying it, the part above the  $x$ -axis has the same volume as the part below it (which is an even function). Thus we may integrate from 0 to 2 and double the result.

$$V = \pi \int_0^2 (4 - \sqrt{4 - x^2})^2 dx$$

$$= 2\pi \int_0^2 (2\sqrt{4 - x^2} - x + 4) dx$$

Now see Problem 35 for a way to evaluate this integral.

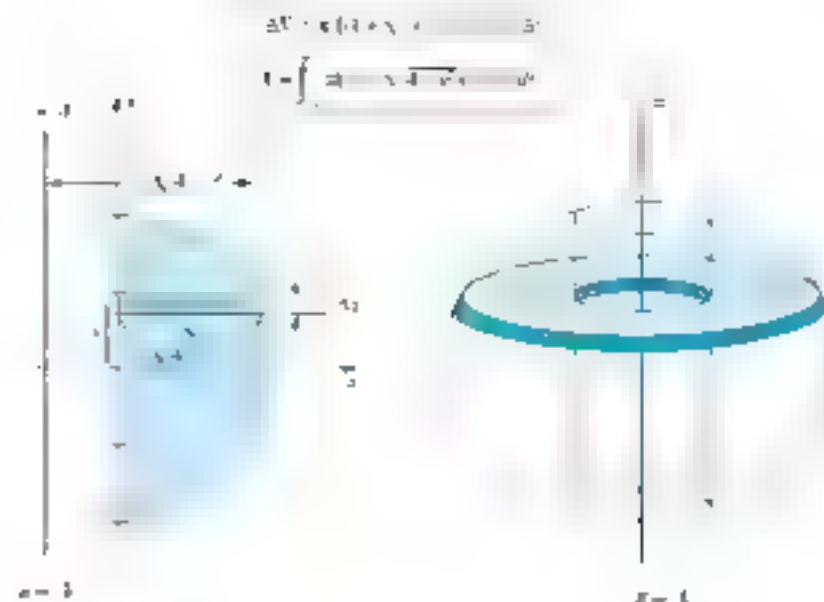


Figure 11

**Other Solids with Known Cross Sections** So far our solids have had their cross sections perpendicular to the  $x$ -axis. It is well to note that solids whose cross sections are perpendicular to the  $y$ -axis or the  $z$ -axis are also possible. All that is needed is that the areas of the cross sections can be determined. Since, in this case, we can also approximate the volume of the solid by summing the volumes of the slices, the volume is then found by integrating.

**EXAMPLE 1** Find the volume of a solid the first quadrant plane region bounded by  $y = 1 - x^2$ , the  $x$ -axis, and the  $y$ -axis. Suppose that cross sections perpendicular to the  $x$ -axis are squares. Find the volume of the solid.

**SOLUTION** When we slice this solid perpendicular to the  $x$ -axis, we get 11 square bases (Figure 7) like slices of cheese.

$$\begin{aligned}
 V &= \int_0^1 \left(1 - \frac{x^2}{4}\right)^2 dx = \int_0^1 \left(\frac{4}{4} - \frac{x^2}{4}\right)^2 dx = \int_0^1 \left(\frac{16}{16} - \frac{2x^2}{8} + \frac{x^4}{16}\right) dx \\
 &= \int_0^1 \left(\frac{16}{16} - \frac{2x^2}{8} + \frac{x^4}{16}\right) dx = \left[\frac{16}{16}x - \frac{2x^3}{24} + \frac{x^5}{80}\right]_0^1 = \frac{16}{16} - \frac{2}{24} + \frac{1}{80} = \frac{107}{80}
 \end{aligned}$$

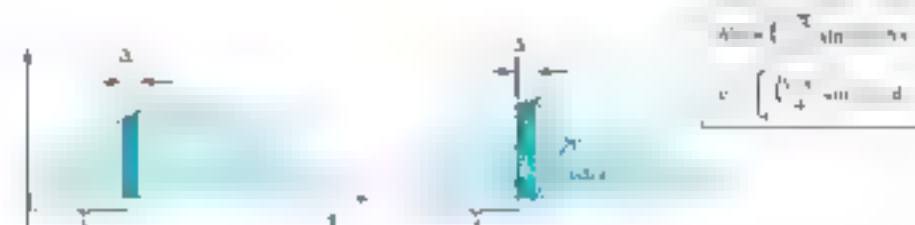






**EXAMPLE 5.1.6** The base of a solid is the region between one arch of  $y = \sin x$  and the  $x$ -axis. Each cross section perpendicular to the  $x$ -axis is an equilateral triangle sitting on this base. Find the volume of the solid.

**SOLUTION** We need the fact that the area of an equilateral triangle of side  $s$  is  $\frac{\sqrt{3}}{4}s^2$  (see Figure 5.17). We proceed as follows in Figure 5.18.



To perform the indicated integration, we use the half-angle formula  $\sin^2 x = (1 - \cos 2x)/2$ :

$$\begin{aligned} V &= \int_0^{\pi} \int_0^{\sin x} \frac{\sqrt{3}}{4} s^2 dx = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{4} \int_0^{\pi} \int_0^{\sin x} s^2 dx \\ &= \frac{\sqrt{3}}{4} \left[ \int_0^{\pi} \sin^2 x dx \right] \\ &= \frac{\sqrt{3}}{4} \left[ \int_0^{\pi} \frac{1 - \cos 2x}{2} dx \right] = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{8} \pi \approx 0.64 \text{ units}^3 \end{aligned}$$

## Concepts Review

1. If a function  $f$  is continuous on the interval  $[a, b]$ , then

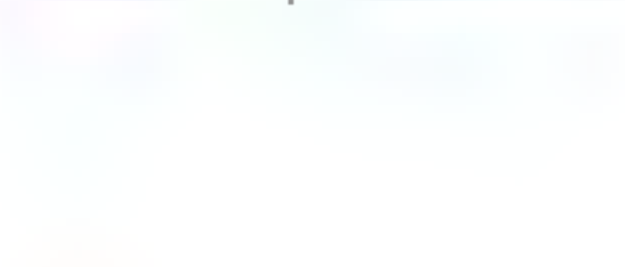
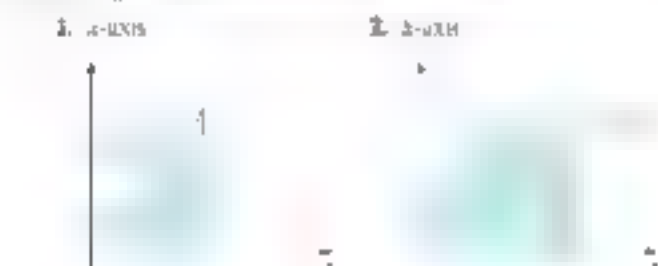
1. the definite integral  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$  exists and is a real number  $R$  and  $|R| \leq M(b-a)$ .

2. If the region  $R$  bounded by  $y = f(x)$  from  $x = a$  to  $x = b$  is revolved about the  $x$ -axis, the volume of the solid that will form is  $\pi \int_a^b f^2(x) dx$ .

3. If the region  $R$  of Question 2 is revolved about the line  $y = c$ , the volume of the solid that will form is  $\pi \int_a^b [f(x) - c]^2 dx$ .

## Problem Set 5.2

**19. Problem Set** Evaluate the definite integral or use the definite integral to find the area of the region. Round your answer to two decimal places.



13. In Problems 1–12, sketch the region  $R$  bounded by the graphs of the given equations, and show a typical vertical slice. Then find the volume of the solid generated by revolving  $R$  about the  $x$ -axis.

5.  $y = x^2$ ,  $x = 1$

6.  $y = x^2$ ,  $y = 1$

7.  $y = x^2$ ,  $x = 0$ ,  $y = 0$

8.  $y = x^2$ ,  $x = 0$ , between  $x = -2$  and  $x = 2$

9.  $y = \sqrt{1-x^2}$ ,  $y = 0$ , between  $x = -1$  and  $x = 1$

10.  $y = x^2$ ,  $y = 0$ , between  $x = -2$  and  $x = 2$

14. In Problems 13–16, sketch the region  $R$  bounded by the graphs of the given equations and show a typical horizontal slice. Find the volume of the solid generated by revolving  $R$  about the  $y$ -axis.

11.  $x = y^2$ ,  $x = 1$

12.  $x = y^2$ ,  $x = 1$ ,  $y = 0$ ,  $y = 1$

13.  $x = y^2$ ,  $x = 1$ ,  $y = 0$ ,  $y = 1$

15.  $x = y^2$ ,  $x = 1$ ,  $y = 0$ ,  $y = 1$

17. Find the volume of the solid generated by revolving about the  $x$ -axis the region bounded by the upper half of the ellipse

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$$

with its center at the origin, and this find the volume of a prolate spheroid if  $a$  and  $b$  are positive constants with  $a > b$ .

18. Find the volume of the solid generated by revolving about the  $x$ -axis the region bounded by the line  $x = 6$  and the parabola  $y = 4x$ .

19. Find the volume of the solid generated by revolving about the  $x$ -axis the region bounded by the line  $x = 2$ ,  $y = 0$  and the parabola  $y = 4x$ .

20. Find the volume of the solid generated by revolving about the  $x$ -axis the region in the first quadrant bounded by the circle  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$ . For this problem, assume that the solid is a spherical segment of height  $h$ , of a sphere of radius  $r$ .

21. Find the volume of the solid generated by revolving about the  $y$ -axis the region bounded by the line  $x = 4$  and the parabola  $y = 4x$ .

22. Find the volume of the solid generated by revolving about the line  $y = 2$  the region in the first quadrant bounded by the parabolas  $x^2 + 4y = 0$  and  $x^2 + 4y = 0$  and the  $y$ -axis.

23. The base of a solid is the region inside the circle  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$ . Find the volume of the solid if every cross section by a plane perpendicular to the  $x$ -axis is a square. *Hint:* See Examples 3 and 6.

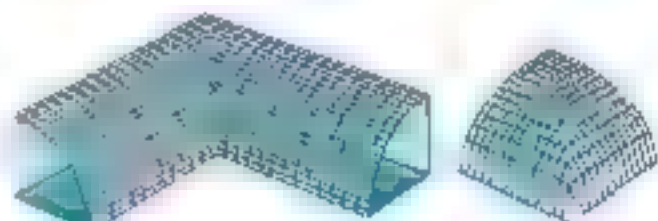
24. On Problem 23 assuming that every cross section by a plane perpendicular to the  $x$ -axis is an isosceles triangle with base in the  $xy$ -plane and altitude 4. *Hint:* To complete the calculation,

(a)  $\int_{-2}^2 \sqrt{4-x^2} dx$  is the area of a semicircle.

25. The base of a solid is bounded by the arch  $y = \sqrt{4-x^2}$ ,  $x = -2$ ,  $x = 2$ , and the  $x$ -axis. Each cross section by a plane perpendicular to the  $x$ -axis is a square. Find the volume of the solid.

26. The base of a solid is the region bounded by  $y = \sqrt{4-x^2}$ ,  $x = -2$ ,  $x = 2$ , and the  $x$ -axis. Each cross section by a plane perpendicular to the  $x$ -axis is a square. Find the volume of the solid.

27. Find the volume of one eighth (one-eighth) of the solid common to two right circular cylinders of radius  $r$  whose axes intersect at right angles. *Hint:* Horizontal cross sections are equal to the figure below.



28. Find the volume inside the “+” shown in Figure 16. Assume that both cylinders have radius 2 inches and height 4 inches. *Hint:* The volume is equal to the volume of the first cylinder plus the volume of the second cylinder minus the volume of the region common to both. Use the result of Problem 27.

29. Find the volume inside the “+” in Figure 16 assuming that both cylinders have radius  $r$  and length  $l$ .

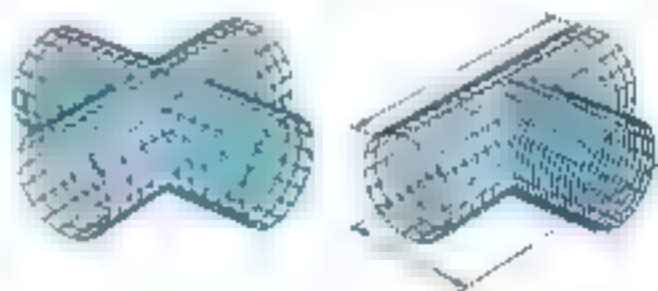


Figure 16

30. Find the volume inside the “+” in Figure 17, assuming that each cylinder has radius  $r = 2$  inches and that the lengths are  $l_1 = 12$  inches and  $l_2 = 8$  inches.

31. Repeat Problem 30 for arbitrary  $r$ ,  $l_1$ , and  $l_2$ .

32. The base of a solid is the region  $R$  bounded by  $y = \sqrt{1-x^2}$ ,  $x = -1$ ,  $x = 1$ , and the  $x$ -axis. Each cross section by a plane perpendicular to the  $x$ -axis is a square. Find the volume of the solid.

33. Find the volume of the solid generated by revolving the region in the first quadrant bounded by the curve  $y^2 = x^2$  the line  $x = 1$  and the  $x$ -axis

(a) about the line  $x = 4$  (b) about the line  $y = 4$

34. Find the volume of the solid generated by revolving the region bounded by the curve  $y^2 = x^2$  the line  $y = 4$ , and the  $x$ -axis

(a) about the line  $x = 4$  (b) about the line  $y = 4$

35. Complete the evaluation of the integral in Example 4 by noting that

$$\int_0^1 \sqrt{4-x^2} \, dx = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^1 \sqrt{4-x^2} \, dx + \frac{1}{2} \int_0^1 \sqrt{4-x^2} \, dx$$

Now interpret the last integral as the area of a quarter circle.

36. An open barrel of radius  $r$  and height  $h$  is initially full of water. It is tilted and water pours out until the water level coincides with a diameter of the base and the surface of the water is the top. Find the volume of water left in the barrel when it is tilted.

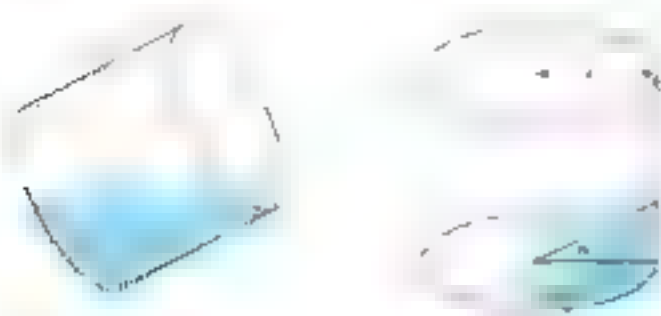


Figure 8

37. A wedge is cut from a right circular cylinder of radius  $r$  (Figure 9). The upper surface of the wedge is a plane through a diameter of the circular base and makes an angle  $\theta$  with the base. Find the volume of the wedge.

38. (The Water Clock) A water tank is obtained by revolving the curve  $y = kx^2$ ,  $k > 0$ , about the  $y$ -axis.

(a) Find  $V(t)$ , the volume of water in the tank as a function of its depth.

(b) Water drains through a small hole according to Torricelli's Law:  $dy/dt = -a\sqrt{y}$ . Show that the water level falls at a constant rate.

39. Show that the volume of a general cone (Figure 10) is  $\frac{1}{3}Ah$ , where  $A$  is the area of the base and  $h$  is the height. Use this result to give the formula for the volume of

(a) a right circular cone of radius  $r$  and height  $h$ .

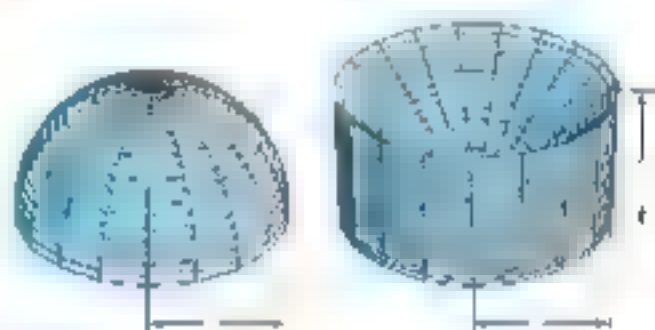
(b) a conical frustum, with the length



Figure 10

40. State the version of Cavalieri's Principle for volume (see Problem 36 of Section 5.1).

41. Apply Cavalieri's Principle for volumes to the two solids shown in Figure 7. (One is a hemisphere of radius  $r$ ; the other is a cylinder of radius  $r$  and height  $r$  with a right circular cone of radius  $r$  and height  $r$  removed.) Assuming that the volume of a right circular cone is  $\frac{1}{3}\pi r^2 h$ , find the volume of a hemisphere of radius  $r$ .



$$V = \frac{1}{3} \pi r^2 h = \frac{1}{3} \pi r^2 \cdot r = \frac{1}{3} \pi r^3$$

## Volumes of Solids of Revolution: Shells

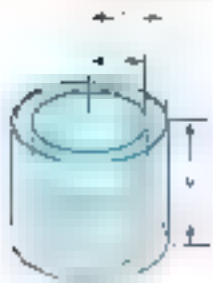


Figure 11

There is another method for finding the volume of a solid of revolution: the method of cylindrical shells. For many problems it is easier to apply this method than the method of disks or washers.

A **cylindrical shell** is a solid formed by revolving a rectangular region (Figure 11) about an axis. If the inner radius is  $r_1$  and the outer radius is  $r_2$ , the volume is given by

$$V = (\text{area of base}) \cdot (\text{height})$$

$$= \pi(r_2^2 - r_1^2)h$$

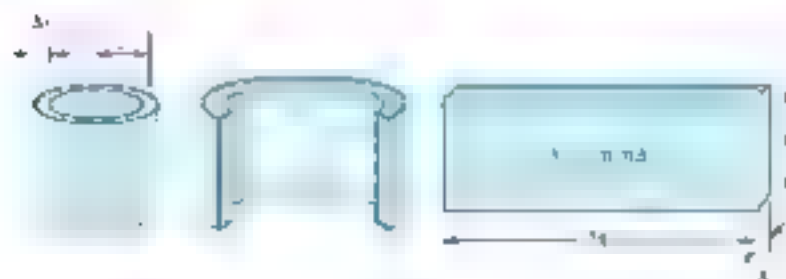
$$= \pi(r_2 + r_1)(r_2 - r_1)h$$

$$= 2\pi \left( \frac{r_2 + r_1}{2} \right) (r_2 - r_1)h$$

The expression  $r = r + \Delta r$  which we would have in the average of  $r$  and  $r + \Delta r$ . Thus

$$\begin{aligned} V &= 2\pi r (\text{average radius}) (\text{height}) (\text{thickness}) \\ &= 2\pi rh \Delta r \end{aligned}$$

Here is a good way to remember this formula. If the shell were very thin and flexible like paper, we could roll it down the side, open it up to form a rectangular sheet and then calculate its volume by pretending that this sheet forms a tin box of length  $2\pi r$ , height  $h$ , and thickness  $\Delta r$  (Figure 2).



**EXAMPLE 1** Consider now a region of height  $h$  shown in Figure 3. Slice it with disks and revolve it about the  $y$ -axis. We get a solid of revolution and each slice will resemble a thin tin can with height  $h$  and thickness  $\Delta x$ . To get the volume of the solid we calculate the volume  $\Delta V$  of a typical slice and take the limit as the thickness of the shells tends to zero. The latter is, of course, an integral. Again, the strategy is *slice, approximate, integrate*.

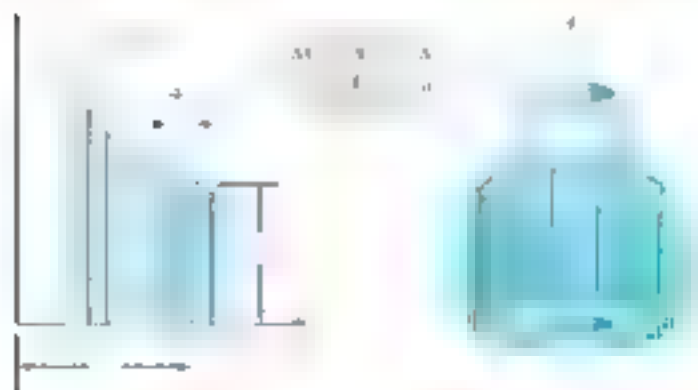


Figure 3

**EXAMPLE 2** The region bounded by  $y = 1/x$ ,  $x = 1$ , the  $y$ -axis, and  $y = 4$  is revolved about the  $y$ -axis. Find the volume of the resulting solid.

**SOLUTION** From Figure 4 we see that the volume of the shell generated by the slice is

$$\Delta V \approx 2\pi x f(x) \Delta x$$

which, for  $f(x) = 1/x$ , becomes

$$\Delta V \approx 2\pi \frac{1}{x} x \Delta x$$

The volume is then found by integrating

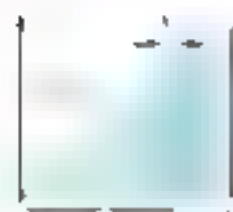
$$V = 2\pi \int_1^4 x \sqrt{x-1} \, dx = \int_1^4 x^{\frac{3}{2}} \, dx \\ = \frac{2}{5} x^{\frac{5}{2}} \Big|_1^4 = \pi \left( \frac{2}{5} (4)^{\frac{5}{2}} - \frac{2}{5} (1)^{\frac{5}{2}} \right) = \frac{28\pi}{3} \approx 29.32$$

**EXAMPLE 1** The region bounded by the line  $y = 2 - x$ , the  $y$ -axis, and  $x = 4$  is revolved about the  $x$ -axis, thereby generating a cone. Assume that  $x \in [0, 4]$ . Find its volume by (a) disk method and by the shell method.

### SOLUTION

**Disk Method** Follow the steps suggested by Figure 5.10. In slice applications, the slice is

$$V = \pi \int_a^b r^2 \, dx = \pi \int_0^4 (2-x)^2 \, dx = \frac{\pi x^3}{3} \Big|_0^4 = \frac{64\pi}{3}$$



(a)



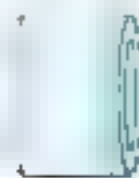
$$V = \pi \int_0^4 (2-x)^2 \, dx$$

**Shell Method** Follow the steps suggested by Figure 5.11. The volume is then

$$V = \int_0^4 2\pi x(2-x) \, dx = \frac{4\pi}{3} x^3 - \frac{2\pi}{2} x^2 \Big|_0^4 \\ = \frac{4\pi}{3} (4)^3 - \frac{2\pi}{2} (4)^2 = \frac{64\pi}{3}$$



(a)



$$V = \int_0^4 2\pi x(2-x) \, dx$$

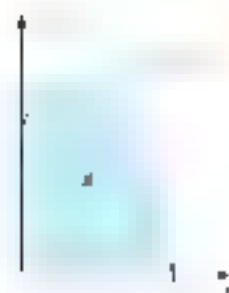
Figure 5

As should be expected, both methods yield the well-known formula for the volume of a right circular cone.

**EXAMPLE 2** Find the volume of the solid generated by revolving the region in the first quadrant that is above the parabola  $y = x^2$  and below the parabola  $y = 2 - x^2$  about the  $y$ -axis.

**STUDENT NOTE** One look at the region (left part of Figure 6) should convince you that horizontal slices (either for the disk method or the shell method) are not the best choice, because the right boundary consists of parts of two curves that are  $x = f(y)$  and  $x = g(y)$  (needing  $y$  and  $y^2$  integrals). However, vertical slices resulting in cylindrical shells will work fine.

$$V = \int_0^1 2\pi xy^2 \, dy = 2\pi \int_0^1 y^3 \, dy = 4\pi \int_0^1 y^2 \, dy = 4\pi \left[ \frac{y^3}{3} \right]_0^1 = \frac{4\pi}{3}.$$

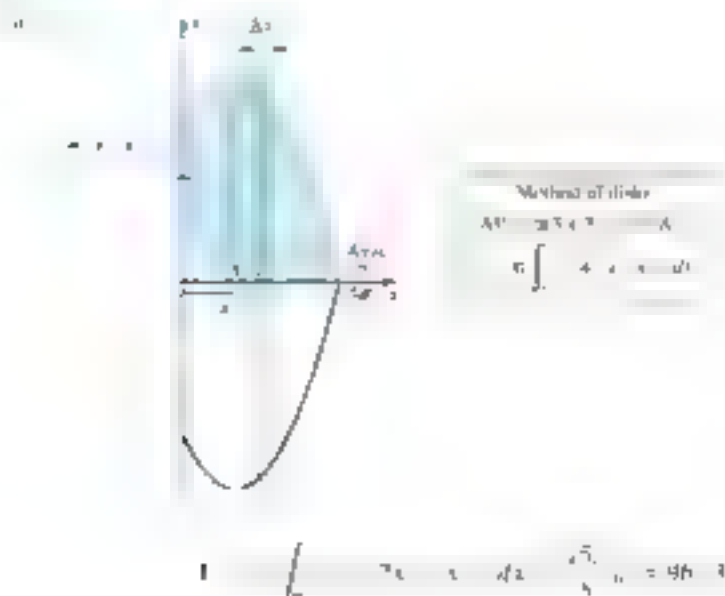


**EXAMPLE 1** Although the method of disks or shells is parallel to the plane (Figure 6), it is not as useful as the disk method when the region is not the lowest such that we have to know a second function to describe the boundary of the plane (area will be needed) or we can't stop at the  $y$ -axis (the  $x$ -axis is needed). In the next example, we are going to integrate revolving the region  $R$  in Figure 7 about various axes. Our job will be to find the volume of the solid  $R$  if the volume of the resulting solid and we are going to do this by the disk method.

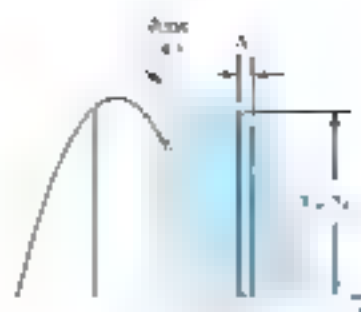
**EXAMPLE 2** Set up and evaluate an integral for the volume of the solid that results when the region  $R$  shown in Figure 7 is revolved about

- (a) the  $x$ -axis, (b) the  $y$ -axis,
- (c) the line  $y = 1$ , (d) the line  $x = 4$ .

**SOLUTION**



(b)



Method of disks

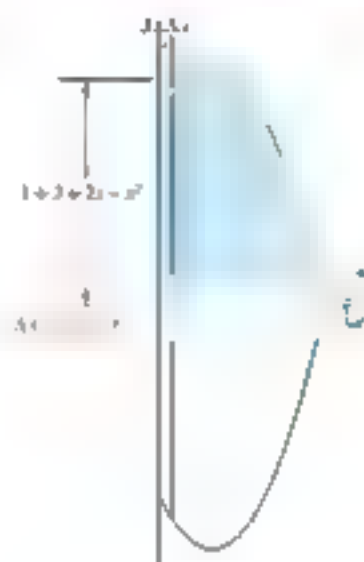
$$\Delta V = \pi r^2 \Delta x = \pi (3 - x^2) \Delta x$$

$$V = \pi \int_{-1}^1 (3 - x^2) dx$$

$$V = \pi \int_{-1}^1 (3 - x^2) dx = \pi \left[ 3x - \frac{x^3}{3} \right]_{-1}^1 = \frac{8\pi}{3} \approx 8.38 \text{ m}^3$$

In all three parts of this example, the integrals worked out to be a polynomial, but finding the polynomial involved some tricky algebra. Once the integrals are set up, evaluating them is quite straightforward.

(c)



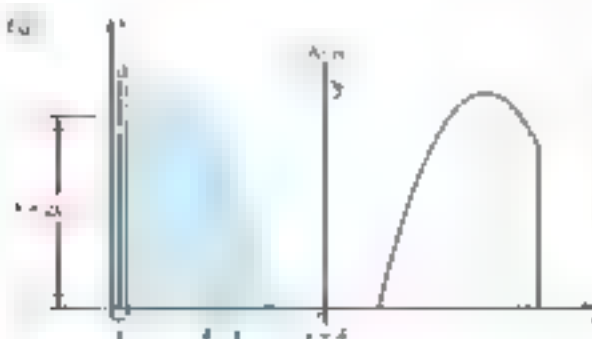
Method of disks

$$\Delta V = \pi r^2 \Delta x = \pi (1 + 3 + 2x - x^2) \Delta x$$

$$V = \pi \int_{-2}^2 (4 + 2x - x^2) dx$$

$$V = \pi \int_{-2}^2 (4 + 2x - x^2) dx = \frac{24\pi}{3} \approx 25.13 \text{ m}^3$$

(d)



Method of disks

$$\Delta V = \pi r^2 \Delta x = \pi (4 - x^2) \Delta x$$

$$V = \pi \int_{-1}^1 (4 - x^2) dx$$

$$V = \pi \int_{-1}^1 (4 - x^2) dx = \frac{32\pi}{3} \approx 33.51 \text{ m}^3$$

Note that in all four cases, the limits of integration are the same as the original plane region that determines these disks.

## Concepts Review

1. The volume  $\Delta V$  of a thin cylindrical shell of radius  $r$ , height  $h$ , and thickness  $\Delta r$  is given by  $\Delta V =$  \_\_\_\_\_.
2. The triangular region  $R$  bounded by  $y = x$ ,  $y = 0$ , and  $x = 2$  is revolved about the  $y$ -axis, generating a solid. The method of \_\_\_\_\_ shells gives the integral \_\_\_\_\_ as its volume; the method of washers gives the integral \_\_\_\_\_ as its volume.

3. The region  $R$  of Question 2 is revolved about the line  $x = 1$ , generating a solid. The method of shells gives the integral \_\_\_\_\_ as its volume.
4. The region  $R$  of Question 2 is revolved about the line  $y = 1$ , generating a solid. The method of shells gives the integral \_\_\_\_\_ as its volume.

## Problem Set 5.3

In Problems 1–12, find the volume of the solid generated when the region  $R$  bounded by the given curves is revolved about the indicated axis. Do this by performing the following steps.

- (a) Sketch the region  $R$ .
- (b) Show a typical representative slice properly labeled.
- (c) Write a formula for the approximate volume of the shell generated by this slice.
- (d) Set up the corresponding integral.
- (e) Evaluate this integral.

1.  $y = \frac{1}{x}$ ,  $x = 1$ ,  $x = 4$ ,  $y = 0$ ; about the  $y$ -axis

2.  $y = \sqrt{x}$ ,  $y = 0$ ,  $x = 0$ ; about the  $y$ -axis

3.  $y = \sqrt{x}$ ,  $x = 3$ ,  $y = 0$ ; about the  $y$ -axis

4.  $y = 4 - x^2$ ,  $x = 0$ ,  $x = 2$ ,  $y = 0$ ; about the  $x$ -axis

5.  $x = y$ ,  $x = 1$ ,  $y = 0$ ; about the  $x$ -axis

6.  $y = 4 - x^2$ ,  $x = 0$ ,  $x = 2$ ,  $y = 0$ ; about the line  $x = 3$

7.  $y = \frac{1}{x}$ ,  $y = 1$ ,  $x = 1$ ; about the  $y$ -axis

8.  $y = x^2$ ,  $x = 0$ ; about the  $x$ -axis

9.  $x = y^2$ ,  $y = 1$ ,  $x = 0$ ; about the  $x$ -axis

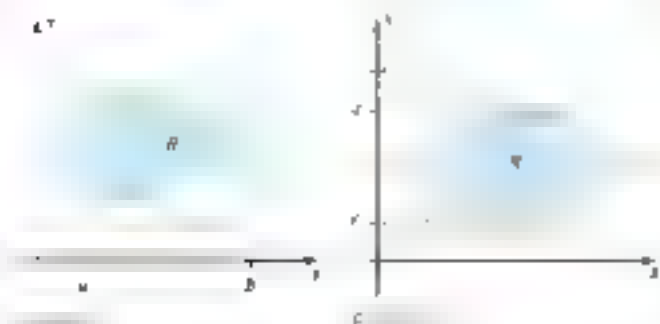
10.  $x = y^2$ ,  $y = 0$ ,  $y = 1$ ; about the  $x$ -axis

11.  $x = y^2$ ,  $y = 2$ ,  $x = 0$ ; about the line  $y = 2$

12.  $y = x^2$ ,  $x = 0$ ; about the line  $x = 1$

13. Consider the region  $R$  (Figure 8). Set up an integral for the volume of the solid obtained when  $R$  is revolved about the given line using the indicated method.

- (a) The  $x$ -axis (washers)
- (b) The  $x$ -axis (shells)
- (c) The line  $x = a$  (shells)
- (d) The line  $x = b$  (shells)



14. A region  $R$  is shown in Figure 9. Set up an integral for the volume of the solid obtained when  $R$  is revolved about each of the following axes. Use the indicated method.

- (a) The  $x$ -axis (washers)
- (b) The  $x$ -axis (shells)
- (c) The line  $y = 3$  (shells)

15. Sketch the region  $R$  bounded by  $y = 1 - x^2$ ,  $x = 1$ ,  $x = 2$ , and  $y = 0$ . Set up (but do not evaluate) integrals for each of the following.

- (a) Area of  $R$
- (b) Volume of the solid obtained when  $R$  is revolved about the  $x$ -axis
- (c) Volume of the solid obtained when  $R$  is revolved about the  $y$ -axis
- (d) Volume of the solid obtained when  $R$  is revolved about the line  $x = 1$

16. Follow the directions of Problem 5 at the region  $R$  bounded by  $x = y^2$ ,  $x = 1$ , and  $y = 0$  and between  $x = 0$  and  $x = 1$ .

17. Find the volume of the solid generated by revolving the region  $R$  bounded by the curves  $x = \sqrt{y}$  and  $x = y^2/2$  about the  $x$ -axis.

18. Follow the directions of Problem 17, but revolve  $R$  about the line  $x = 1$ .

19. A solid hole of radius  $a$  is drilled through the center of a solid sphere of radius  $b$  (assume that  $b > a$ ). Find the volume of the solid that remains.

20. Set up the integral (using shells) for the volume of the torus obtained by revolving the region inside the circle  $x^2 + y^2 = a^2$  about the line  $x = b$ , where  $b > a$ . Then evaluate the integral. *Hint:* As you simplify, it may help to think of part of this integral as an area.

21. The region in the first quadrant bounded by  $x = 0$ ,  $y = \sin(x^2)$ , and  $y = \cos(x^2)$  is revolved about the  $y$ -axis. Find the volume of the resulting solid.

22. The region bounded by  $x = 2 - \sin x$ ,  $y = 0$ ,  $x = 0$ , and  $y = 2$  is revolved about the  $x$ -axis. Find the volume. *Hint:*  $\int x \sin x \, dx = -\sin x - x \cos x + C$ .

23. Let  $R$  be the region bounded by  $y = x^2$  and  $y = x$ . Find the volume of the solid that results when  $R$  is revolved around

- (a) the  $x$ -axis,
- (b) the  $y$ -axis,
- (c) the line  $y = 4$ .

24. Suppose that we know the formula  $S = 4\pi r^2$  for the surface area of a sphere, but do not know the corresponding formula for its volume  $V$ . Obtain this formula by slicing the solid sphere into thin concentric spherical shells (Figure 10). Find the volume  $\Delta V$  of a thin spherical shell of outer radius  $r$  is  $\Delta V = 4\pi r \, \Delta r$ .



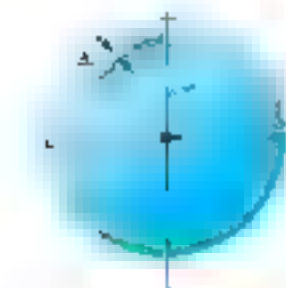


Figure 10



Figure 11

25. Consider a region of area  $R$  on the surface of a sphere of radius  $r$ . Find the volume of the solid that results when each point of this region is connected to the center of the sphere by a unit segment (Figure 11). *Hint:* Use the method of spherical shells (Section 6.6 Problem 4).

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Ans. } & \int_0^{\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} r \sin \theta \, d\theta \, d\phi = 4\pi r^2 \int_0^{\pi} \sin \theta \, d\theta = 4\pi r^2 [-\cos \theta]_0^{\pi} = 4\pi r^2 (1 - (-1)) = 8\pi r^2 \end{aligned}$$

## Length of a Plane Curve

How long is the spiral curve shown in Figure 12? We're going to find, more or less, the length of a curve, a measure of width, you say. But if it is the graph of a function, this is a little hard to do.

A little reflection suggests a prior question: What is a plane curve? We have used the term quite liberally until now, often in connection with the graph of a function. Now it's time to be more precise: curves that are not graphs of functions. We begin with several examples.

The graph of  $y = \sin x$ ,  $0 \leq x \leq \pi$  is a plane curve (Figure 2). So is the graph of  $x = 2 - y^2$ ,  $-2 \leq y \leq 2$  (Figure 3). In both cases, the curve is the graph of a function, the first of the form  $y = f(x)$ , the second of the form  $x = g(y)$ . However, in spiral curves does not fit either pattern. Neither does the circle. Although in this case we could think of it as the combined graph of the two functions  $y = f(x) = \sqrt{a^2 - x^2}$  and  $y = g(x) = -\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}$ .



The circle suggests another way of thinking about curves. Recall from trigonometry that

$$x = a \cos t, \quad y = a \sin t, \quad 0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$$

describe the circle  $x^2 + y^2 = a^2$ . (Figure 4) Think of  $t$  as time and  $x$  and  $y$  as the position of a particle at time  $t$ . The variable  $t$  is called a **parameter**. Both  $x$  and  $y$  are expressed in terms of this parameter. We say that  $x = a \cos t$ ,  $y = a \sin t$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$ , are **parametric equations** describing the circle.

If we were to graph the parametric equations  $x = t \cos t$ ,  $y = t \sin t$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq \pi$ , we would be plotting something like the spiral with which we started. And we can even think of the full curve (Figure 5) and its half (Figure 6) in parametric form. We write

$$x = t \cos t, \quad y = t \sin t, \quad 0 \leq t \leq \pi$$

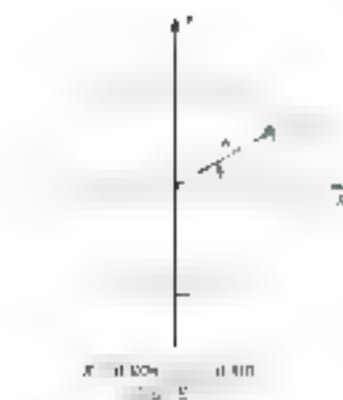


Figure 4

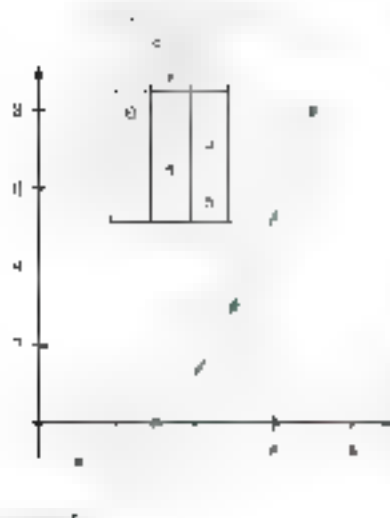


FIGURE 5.4.1

$$x = t^2, \quad y = t^3, \quad 0 \leq t \leq 2$$

Take for us a **plane curve** is determined by a pair of parametric equations  $x = f(t)$ ,  $y = g(t)$ ,  $a \leq t \leq b$ , where we assume that  $f$  and  $g$  are continuous on the given interval. As  $t$  increases from  $a$  to  $b$ , the point  $(x, y)$  traces out a curve in the plane. Here is another example.

**EXAMPLE 1** Sketch the curve determined by the parametric equations  $x = 2 - t$ ,  $y = t^2 - 1$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq 3$ .

**SOLUTION** We make a list of values of  $t$  and then list the ordered pairs and finally connect the points in the order of increasing  $t$ , as shown in Figure 5.4.2. A graphing calculator or a CAS can be used to produce such a graph. Such software usually produces a graph by “drawing” a line just as we do in hand-drawing, connecting the points.

Actually, the definition we have just used for an **arc** in the plane does not require that we intend to think of what is called a **smooth curve**. The adjective **smooth** is chosen to indicate that as an object moves along the curve, at each point at time  $t$  is  $(x, y)$  it suffers no sudden changes of direction (to illustrate,  $f'$  and  $g'$  ensures this) and does not stop or double back ( $f'(t)$  and  $g'(t)$  not simultaneously zero ensures this).

### Definition

A **plane curve** is **smooth** if it is determined by a pair of parametric equations  $x = f(t)$ ,  $y = g(t)$ ,  $a \leq t \leq b$ , where  $f'$  and  $g'$  exist and are continuous on  $[a, b]$ , and  $f'(t)$  and  $g'(t)$  are not simultaneously zero on  $(a, b)$ .

The way a curve is parameterized (that is the way we choose  $f(t)$  and  $g(t)$ ) on a domain  $I$  can be chosen so it traces a path **directionally** so called when  $t = 0$  in Example 1 (Figure 5.4.1), the curve is at the point  $(1, 0)$  and when  $t = 2$ , the curve is at  $(0, 8)$ . As  $t$  increases from  $t = 0$  to  $t = 2$ , the curve traces a path from  $(1, 0)$  to  $(0, 8)$ . This **direction**, which is also indicated by an arrow on the curve, is called the **orientation** of the curve. The **orientation** of a curve is irrelevant as far as determining its **length**, but a problem that we will encounter later in this book the **orientation** does matter.

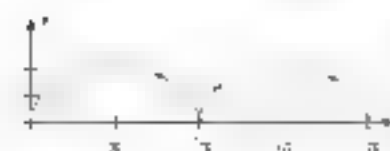
**EXAMPLE 2** Sketch the curve determined by the parametric equations  $x = t - \sin t$ ,  $y = 1 - \cos t$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq 4\pi$ . Indicate the orientation of this curve.

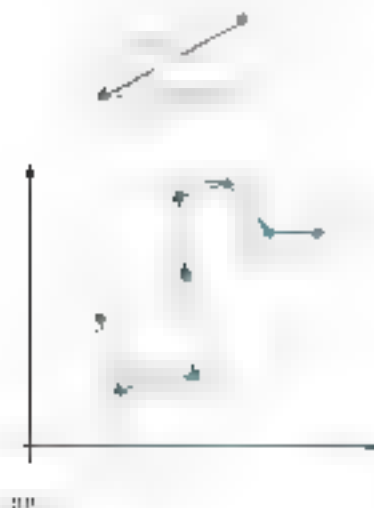
**SOLUTION** The plot, which shows the values of  $x$  and  $y$  for several values of  $t$  from 0 to  $4\pi$ , leads to the graph in Figure 5.4.3. This curve is not smooth even though  $x$  and  $y$  are both differentiable functions of  $t$ . The problem is that  $dx/dt = 1 - \cos t$  and  $dy/dt = \sin t$  are simultaneously 0 when  $t = 2\pi$ . The object slows down to a stop at time  $t = 2\pi$  then starts up in a new direction.

The curve described in Example 2 is called the **cycloid**. It describes the path a fixed point on the rim of a wheel of radius 1 can follow as it rolls along the  $x$ -axis. (See Problem 18 for a derivation of this result.)

Finally we are ready for the main question: What is meant by the **length** of the smooth curve given parametrically by  $x = f(t)$ ,  $y = g(t)$ ,  $a \leq t \leq b$ ?

| $t$      | $x$   | $y$ |
|----------|-------|-----|
| 0        | 1.000 | 0   |
| $\pi/2$  | 0.5   | 0.5 |
| $\pi$    | 0     | 1   |
| $3\pi/2$ | 0.5   | 1.5 |
| $2\pi$   | 1.000 | 2   |
| $5\pi/2$ | 1.5   | 2.5 |
| $3\pi$   | 2.000 | 3   |
| $7\pi/2$ | 2.5   | 3.5 |
| $4\pi$   | 3.000 | 4   |





Partition the interval  $[a, b]$  into  $n$  subintervals by means of points  $t_i$ .

$$a = t_0 < t_1 < \cdots < t_{n-1} < t_n = b$$

This cuts the curve into  $n$  pieces with corresponding end points  $Q_0, Q_1, \dots, Q_n$ .  $Q_{i-1}Q_i$  is shown in Figure 5.6.1.

Our idea is to approximate the curve by the indicated polygonal line segments, calculate their total length, and then take the limit as the norm of the partition approaches zero. In particular we approximate the length  $\Delta s_i$  of the  $i$ th segment (see Figure 7) by

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta s_i &\approx \Delta s_i = \sqrt{(\Delta x_i)^2 + (\Delta y_i)^2} \\ &= \sqrt{[f(t_i) - f(t_{i-1})]^2 + [g(t_i) - g(t_{i-1})]^2}\end{aligned}$$

From the Mean Value Theorem for Derivatives (Theorem 3.6A), we know that there are points  $\xi_i$  and  $\bar{\xi}_i$  in  $(t_{i-1}, t_i)$  such that

$$\begin{aligned}f(t_i) - f(t_{i-1}) &= f'(\xi_i) \Delta t_i \\ g(t_i) - g(t_{i-1}) &= g'(\bar{\xi}_i) \Delta t_i\end{aligned}$$

where  $\Delta t_i = t_i - t_{i-1}$ . Thus,

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta s_i &= \sqrt{[f'(\xi_i) \Delta t_i]^2 + [g'(\bar{\xi}_i) \Delta t_i]^2} \\ &= \sqrt{[f'(\xi_i)]^2 + [g'(\bar{\xi}_i)]^2} \Delta t_i\end{aligned}$$

and the total length of the polygonal line segments is

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \Delta s_i = \sum_{i=1}^n \sqrt{[f'(\xi_i)]^2 + [g'(\bar{\xi}_i)]^2} \Delta t_i$$

The same expression is obtained a Riemann sum, the only difference being that  $\xi_i$  and  $\bar{\xi}_i$  are not necessarily the same point. However, it is convenient to write this as  $\xi_i$  and to have the same symbol in both places, as we do in (5.6.1), but it makes no difference. Thus we may define the arc length  $L$  of the curve  $\mathbf{r}$  by the limit of the expression above as the norm of the partition approaches zero; that is,

$$L = \lim_{\|\Delta\| \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^n \sqrt{[f'(\xi_i)]^2 + [g'(\bar{\xi}_i)]^2} \Delta t_i = \int_a^b \sqrt{[f'(x)]^2 + [g'(x)]^2} dx$$

Two special cases are of great interest. If the curve is given by  $\mathbf{r} = f(x)\mathbf{i} + g(x)\mathbf{j}$ ,  $a \leq x \leq b$ , we treat  $x$  as the parameter and the boxed result takes the form

$$L = \int_a^b \sqrt{1 + [f'(x)]^2 + [g'(x)]^2} dx$$

Similarly if the curve is given by  $\mathbf{r} = g(y)\mathbf{i} + f(y)\mathbf{j}$ ,  $c \leq y \leq d$  we treat  $y$  as the parameter, obtaining

$$L = \int_c^d \sqrt{1 + [f'(y)]^2 + [g'(y)]^2} dy$$

These formulas extend the familiar results for circles and line segments as the following two examples illustrate.

**EXAMPLE 1** Find the arc length of the circle  $x = 4 \cos t$ ,  $y = 4 \sin t$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$ .

**SOLUTION** We write the equation of the circle in parametric form  $x = 4 \cos t$ ,  $y = 4 \sin t$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$ . Then  $dx/dt = -4 \sin t$ ,  $dy/dt = 4 \cos t$ , and, by the first of our formulas,

$$L = \int_0^{2\pi} \sqrt{(-4 \sin t)^2 + (4 \cos t)^2} dt = \int_0^{2\pi} 4 dt = 4t \Big|_0^{2\pi} = 8\pi. \quad \blacksquare$$

**EXAMPLE 2** Find the length of the line segment from  $A(1, 5)$  to  $B(5, 3)$ .

**SOLUTION** The given line segment is shown in Figure 8. Note that the equation of the corresponding line is  $y = \frac{2}{3}x + 1$ , so  $dy/dx = \frac{2}{3}$ , and so, by the second of the three length formulas,

$$\begin{aligned} L &= \int_1^5 \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^2} dx = \int_1^5 \sqrt{\frac{13}{9}} dx = \frac{\sqrt{13}}{3} \int_1^5 dx \\ &= \left[ \frac{\sqrt{13}}{3} x \right]_1^5 = \frac{4\sqrt{13}}{3}. \end{aligned}$$

This agrees with the result obtained by use of the distance formula.  $\blacksquare$

**EXAMPLE 3** Find the length of the arc of the curve  $y = x^{3/2}$  from the point  $(1, 1)$  to the point  $(4, 8)$  (see Figure 9).

**SOLUTION** We begin by estimating this length by finding the length of the segment from  $(1, 1)$  to  $(4, 8)$ .  $\sqrt{(4-1)^2 + (8-1)^2} = \sqrt{58} \approx 7.6$ . The actual length should be slightly larger.

For the exact calculation, we note that  $dy/dx = \frac{3}{2}x^{1/2}$ , so

$$L = \int_1^4 \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{3}{2}\right)^2 x} dx = \int_1^4 \sqrt{\frac{13}{4}x} dx = \frac{\sqrt{13}}{4} \int_1^4 x^{1/2} dx$$

Let  $u = 1 + \frac{3}{4}x$ , then  $du = \frac{3}{4}dx$ . Hence

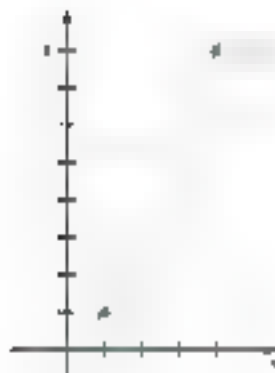
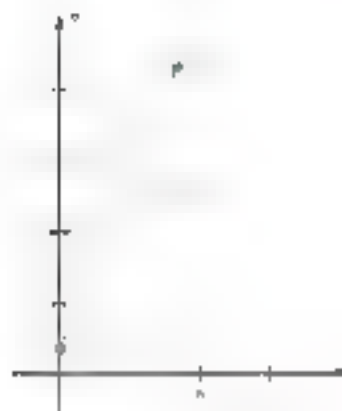
$$\begin{aligned} \int \sqrt{\frac{13}{4}x} dx &= \frac{2}{3} \int \sqrt{u} du = \frac{2}{3} \cdot \frac{2}{3} u^{3/2} + C \\ &= \frac{4}{9} \left(1 + \frac{3}{4}x\right)^{3/2} + C. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$\int_1^4 \sqrt{\frac{13}{4}x} dx = \frac{4}{9} \left(1 + \frac{3}{4}x\right)^{3/2} \Big|_1^4 = \frac{4}{9} \left( \frac{25}{4} - \frac{1}{4} \right) = \frac{4}{9} \cdot \frac{24}{4} = \frac{8}{3} \approx 2.67. \quad \blacksquare$$

For many arc length problems it is difficult to do the integration that gives the length. This is just a matter of scheduling the required derivatives in the formula. However, it is often difficult or impossible to find an antiderivative using the Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus because of the difficulty of finding antiderivatives. For many problems we must resort to using a numerical technique such as the Riemann sum described in Section 4.6 in order to obtain an approximation to the definite integral.

**EXAMPLE 4** Sketch the graph of the curve given parametrically by  $x = 2 \cos t$ ,  $y = 4 \sin t$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq \pi$ . Set up a definite integral that gives the arc length of the curve and approximate this definite integral using the Riemann sum with  $n = 4$ .



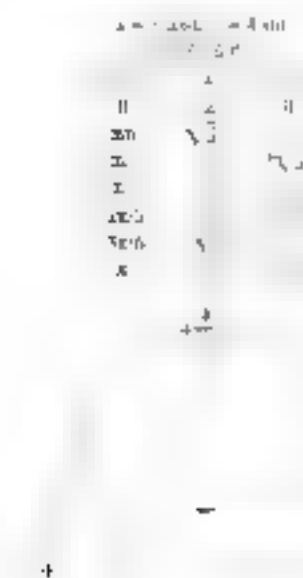


Figure 11

**SOLUTION** The graph (Figure 11) is drawn, as in previous examples, by first making a three-column table of values. The definite integral that gives the arc length is

$$\begin{aligned} L &= \int_0^{\pi} \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{dt}\right)^2} dt \\ &= \int_0^{\pi} \sqrt{(-2 \sin t)^2 + (4 \cos t)^2} dt \\ &= \int_0^{\pi} \sqrt{4 \sin^2 t + 4 \cos^2 t} dt \\ &= 2 \int_0^{\pi} \sqrt{1 + 3 \cos^2 t} dt \end{aligned}$$

This definite integral cannot be evaluated exactly by Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus. Let  $r(x) = \sqrt{1 + 3 \cos^2 x}$ . The approximation using the Parabolic Rule with  $n = 8$  is

$$\begin{aligned} L &\approx \sqrt{1 + 3 \cos^2 \left(\frac{\pi}{8}\right)} + \sqrt{1 + 3 \cos^2 \left(\frac{3\pi}{8}\right)} + \sqrt{1 + 3 \cos^2 \left(\frac{5\pi}{8}\right)} + \sqrt{1 + 3 \cos^2 \left(\frac{7\pi}{8}\right)} \\ &\quad + \sqrt{1 + 3 \cos^2 \left(\frac{9\pi}{8}\right)} + \sqrt{1 + 3 \cos^2 \left(\frac{11\pi}{8}\right)} + \sqrt{1 + 3 \cos^2 \left(\frac{13\pi}{8}\right)} + \sqrt{1 + 3 \cos^2 \left(\frac{15\pi}{8}\right)} \\ &\approx \frac{\pi}{2} [2.0 + 4 + 1.5670 + 2 + 1.58 + 4 + 1.997 + 2] = 9.6915 \end{aligned}$$

$$1 + 3 \cos^2 \left(\frac{\pi}{8}\right) \approx 2.0 \quad 1 + 3 \cos^2 \left(\frac{3\pi}{8}\right) \approx 4 \quad 1 + 3 \cos^2 \left(\frac{5\pi}{8}\right) \approx 1.5670$$

$$1 + 3 \cos^2 \left(\frac{7\pi}{8}\right) \approx 2$$

Let  $f$  be continuous on the interval  $[a, b]$ . For each  $t$  in  $(a, b)$ , define  $s(t)$  by

$$s(t) = \int_a^t \sqrt{1 + [f'(u)]^2} du$$

Then  $s(t)$  gives the arc length on the curve  $y = f(x)$  from the point  $(a, f(a))$  to  $(t, f(t))$  (see Figure 12). By the First Fundamental Theorem, the derivative of  $s(t)$  is

$$s'(t) = \frac{ds}{dt} = \sqrt{1 + [f'(t)]^2} = \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2}$$

Thus the differential of arc length, can be written as

$$ds = \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2} dx$$

In fact, depending on how a graph is parametrized, we can use the following formulas for  $ds$ :

$$ds = \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2} dx = \sqrt{x'^2 + y'^2} dt = \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{dt}\right)^2} dt$$

Some people prefer to remember these formulas by writing (see Figure 12)

$$(ds)^2 = (dx)^2 + (dy)^2$$

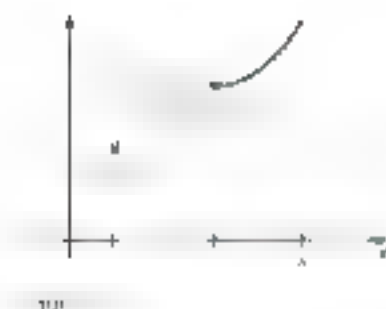


Figure 12



The three forms arise by dividing and multiplying the right-hand side by  $(dx)^2$ ,  $(dy)^2$ , and  $(dz)^2$ , respectively. For example

$$(ds)^2 = \frac{(dx)^2}{1(dx)} + \frac{dy^2}{dx} dx = 1 + \frac{dy}{dx} dx$$

which gives the first of the three formulas.

**DEFINITION** If  $\mathbf{r}(t) = x(t)\mathbf{i} + y(t)\mathbf{j}$  is a smooth plane curve in the  $xy$ -plane, then  $\mathbf{r}(t)$  is the position vector of a point on the curve. If  $\mathbf{r}(t)$  satisfies a surface of revolution as illustrated in Figure 16, our aim is to determine the area of such a surface.

To get started, we introduce the formula for the area of the frustum of a cone. A **frustum** of a cone is that part of the surface of a cone between two planes perpendicular to the axis of the cone, shaded in Figure 17. If a frustum has base radii  $r_1$  and  $r_2$  and slant height  $l$ , then its area  $A$  is given by

$$A = 2\pi \left( \frac{r_1 + r_2}{2} \right) l = (\text{circumference of average radius}) (\text{slant height}).$$

The derivation of this result depends only on the formula for the area of a circle (see Problem 21).

Let  $y = f(x)$ ,  $a \leq x \leq b$ , determine a smooth curve in the upper half of the  $xy$ -plane, as shown in Figure 18. Partition the interval  $[a, b]$  into  $n$  subintervals by means of points  $a = x_0 < x_1 < \cdots < x_n = b$ , thereby also dividing the curve into  $n$  pieces. Let  $\Delta x_i$  denote the length of the  $i$ th piece, and let  $\bar{x}_i$  be the midpoint of the  $i$ th piece. When the curve is revolved about the  $x$ -axis, it generates a surface, and the  $i$ th piece generates a frustum of a cone. The area of this frustum ought to be approximately that of a frustum of a cone with radii  $f(\bar{x}_i)$  and  $f(\bar{x}_i)$  and slant height  $\Delta s_i$ , where we approximate  $\Delta s_i$  by the arc length of the piece. Adding the areas of all the frustums, and taking the limit as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , we obtain approximately the area of the surface of revolution. All this is indicated in Figure 16. The surface area is thus

$$\begin{aligned} A &= 2\pi \sum_{i=1}^n f(\bar{x}_i) \Delta s_i \\ &= 2\pi \int_a^b f(x) \sqrt{1 + [f'(x)]^2} dx \\ &= 2\pi \int_a^b f(x) \sqrt{1 + [f'(x)]^2} dx \end{aligned}$$

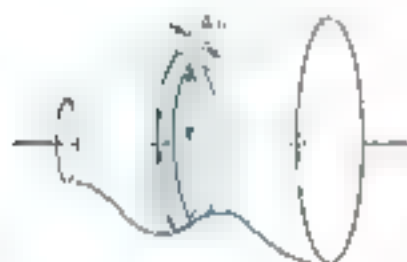
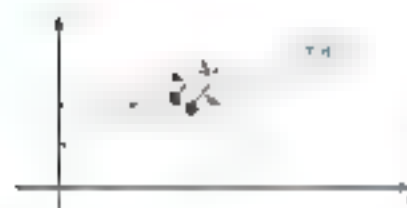
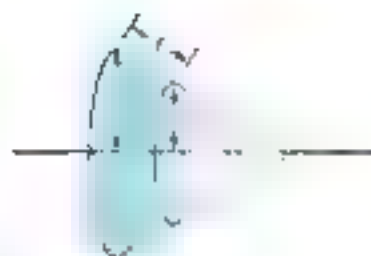
**EXAMPLE 1** Find the area of the surface of revolution obtained by revolving the curve  $y = \sqrt{x}$ ,  $0 \leq x \leq 4$ , about the  $x$ -axis (Figure 17).

**SOLUTION** Here,  $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$  and  $f'(x) = 1/(2\sqrt{x})$ . Thus

$$\begin{aligned} A &= 2\pi \int_0^4 \sqrt{x} \sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{4x}} dx = 2\pi \int_0^4 \sqrt{x} \sqrt{\frac{4x+1}{4x}} dx \\ &= \pi \int_0^4 \sqrt{4x+1} dx = \pi \left[ \frac{1}{3} (4x+1)^{3/2} \right]_0^4 \\ &= \frac{\pi}{3} (5\sqrt{17} - 1) \approx 46.20. \end{aligned}$$

If the curve is given parametrically by  $x = f(t)$ ,  $y = g(t)$ ,  $a \leq t \leq b$ , then the surface area formula becomes

$$A = 2\pi \int_a^b g(t) \sqrt{[f'(t)]^2 + [g'(t)]^2} dt$$



## Concepts Review

1. The graph of the parametric equations  $x = 4 \cos t$ ,  $y = 4 \sin t$ ,  $0 \leq t < 2\pi$  is a curve called a           .
2. The curve defined by  $y = x^2 + 1$ ,  $0 \leq x \leq 4$ , can be put in parametric form using  $x$  as the parameter by writing  $r = \frac{y}{x^2 + 1}$ .

3. The formula for the length  $L$  of the curve  $x = f(t)$ ,  $y = g(t)$ ,  $a \leq t \leq b$ , is           .
4. The proof of the formula for the length of a curve depends strongly on an earlier theorem with the name           .

## Problem Set 5.4

201 In Problems 1–6, find the length of the indicated curve.

1.  $y = 4x^{3/4}$  between  $x = 1$  and  $x = 5$
  2.  $y = \frac{3}{2}(x^2 + 1)^{3/4}$  between  $x = 1$  and  $x = 2$
  3.  $y = (4 - x)^{3/4}$  between  $x = 1$  and  $x = 3$
  4.  $y = (x^2 + 3)^{3/4}$  between  $x = 1$  and  $x = 5$
  5.  $x = y^4 + 1$ ,  $(2y^2)$  between  $y = 3$  and  $y = 5$
- For each curve,  $x = g(t)$  when  $t = \frac{\pi}{2}$ .
6.  $3(xy)^2 = y^4 - 15$  between  $y = 1$  and  $y = 3$

202 In Problems 7–10, sketch the graph of the given parametric equations and find its length.

7.  $x = t$ ,  $y = t^2$
8.  $x = 1 - t$ ,  $y = 2 - t^2$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq 1$
9.  $x = \sin t$ ,  $y = \cos t$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq \pi$
10.  $x = 1 + \sin t$ ,  $y = 2 + \cos t$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq \pi$
11. Use an  $x$ -integration to find the length of the segment of the line  $y = 3x - 2$  between  $x = 1$  and  $x = 3$ . Check by using the distance formula.
12. Use a  $y$ -integration to find the length of the segment of the line  $3y = 2x + 3 = 0$  between  $y = 1$  and  $y = 3$ . Check by using the distance formula.

203 In Problems 13–16, set up a definite integral that gives the arc length of the given curve. Approximate the integral using the function  $\text{Riemann}(\Delta t, n) = M$ .

13.  $x = t$ ,  $y = t^2$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq 4$
14.  $x = t^2$ ,  $y = \sqrt{t}$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq 4$
15.  $x = \sin t$ ,  $y = \cos 2t$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq \pi/2$
16.  $x = t$ ,  $y = \tan t$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq \pi/4$
17. Sketch the graph of the four-cusped hypocycloid  $x = a \sin t$ ,  $y = a \cos t$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$ , and find its length. Hint: By symmetry, you can quadruple the length of the first quadrant portion.
18. A point  $P$  on the rim of a wheel of radius  $a$  is initially at the origin. As the wheel rolls on the right along the  $x$ -axis,  $P$  traces out a curve called a cycloid (see Figure 18). Derive parametric equations for the cycloid as follows. The parameter is  $\theta$ .
  - (a) Show that  $\sqrt{x'^2 + y'^2} = a$ .
  - (b) Assume you've found that  $\overline{PQ} = a \sin \theta$ ,  $\overline{QR} = a \cos \theta$ ,  $0 \leq \theta \leq \pi$ .
  - (c) Show that  $x = a(\theta - \sin \theta)$ ,  $y = a(1 - \cos \theta)$ .

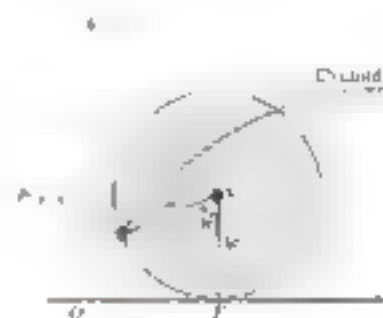


Figure 18

19. Find the length of one arch of the cycloid in Problem 18. Hint: First show that

$$\left(\frac{dx}{d\theta}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{d\theta}\right)^2 = 4a^2 \sin^2\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)$$

20. Suppose that the wheel of Problem 18 rotates at a constant rate  $\omega$  rad/sec, where  $t$  is time. Then  $\theta = \omega t$ .
  - (a) Show that the speed  $ds/dt$  of  $P$  along the cycloid is

$$\frac{ds}{dt} = 2a\omega \sin\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)$$

- (b) When is the speed a maximum and when is it a minimum?
- (c) Explain why a bug on a wheel of a car going 60 miles per hour is not sometimes traveling at 20 miles per hour.

204 Find the length of each curve.

$$(a) \quad y = \int_1^x \sqrt{t^2 + 1} \, dt, \quad 1 \leq x \leq 3$$

$$(b) \quad x = \cos t, \quad y = \cos 2t, \quad 0 \leq t \leq \pi$$

205 Find the length of each curve.

$$(a) \quad x = \int_0^t \cos u \, du, \quad y = \int_0^t \sin u \, du, \quad 0 \leq t \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$$

$$(b) \quad x = a \cos t^2, \quad y = a \sin t^2, \quad 0 \leq t \leq \sqrt{\pi}$$

206 In Problems 21–24, find the area of the surface generated by revolving the given curve about the  $x$ -axis.

$$21. \quad y = \sec t, \quad 0 \leq t \leq \frac{\pi}{4}$$

$$22. \quad y = \sqrt{1 - x^2}, \quad -\frac{1}{2} \leq x \leq \frac{1}{2}$$

$$23. \quad y = x^2, \quad 0 \leq x \leq \sqrt{2}$$

$$24. \quad x^2 = y^2 - 1, \quad 1 \leq y \leq 2$$

$$25. \quad x = y^2, \quad 0 \leq y \leq 1$$







package moves upward and as the package moves the height of 2 feet is a force slightly less than 2 newtons required to a short distance is great as speed. Even in this case, the work is 6 newtons, but this is harder to show.) Similarly, a weightlifter pushing a bar with a constant force of 150 pounds upward to a constant force a distance of 20 feet does  $3000 = 1500 \cdot 2$  foot-pounds of work (Figure 2).

In many practical situations, force is not constant, but rather varies as the object moves along the line. Suppose that a 1000-lb car is pushed along the x-axis from  $x = 0$  to  $x = 10$  by a variable force of magnitude  $F(x)$  at the point  $x$ , where  $F(x)$  is a continuous function. Then how much work is done? Since  $F(x)$  varies along  $x$ , the approximation and integrate leads us to an answer. Here *slice* means to partition the interval  $[a, b]$  into small pieces. Approximate means to suppose that in a small piece from  $x_i$  to  $x_{i+1} = \Delta x$ , the force is constant with value  $F(x_i)$ . If the force is constant with value  $F(x_i)$  over the interval  $[x_i, x_{i+1}]$ , then the work required to move the object from  $x_i$  to  $x_{i+1}$  is  $F(x_i)(x_{i+1} - x_i) = F(x_i)\Delta x$  (Figure 3). Integrate means to add up all the bits of work and if  $\Delta x$  is the length of the small pieces, the work approaches zero. Thus the work done is most of the slices from  $x = a$  to  $x = b$ :

$$W = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n F(x_i) \Delta x = \int_a^b F(x) dx$$

$$\Delta x = x_{i+1} - x_i$$

$$W = \int_a^b F(x) dx$$

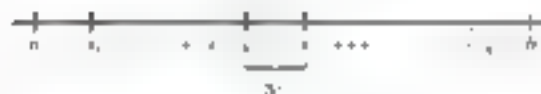


Figure 3

According to Hooke's Law in physics, the force  $F(x)$  needed to keep a spring stretched  $x$  meters from its natural length (Figure 4) is given by

$$F(x) = kx$$

Here the constant  $k$ , the spring constant, is positive and depends on the particular spring under consideration. The stiffer the spring, the greater the value of  $k$ .

**EXAMPLE** If the natural length of a spring is 0.2 meter and it takes a force of 10 newtons to keep it stretched 0.6 meter from the work done in stretching the spring from its natural length to a length of 0.3 meter

**SOLUTION** By Hooke's Law, the force  $F(x)$  required to keep the spring stretched  $x$  meters is given by  $F(x) = kx$ . To determine the spring constant  $k$  for this particular spring we note that  $F(0.4) = 7$ . Thus  $k(0.4) = 7$  or  $k = 400$  and so

$$F(x) = 400x$$

Natural length

0

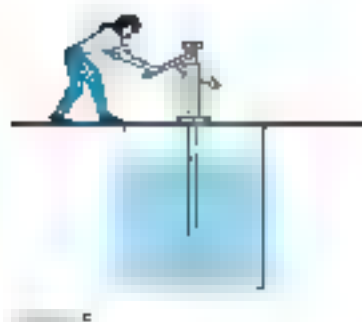
Stretched 0.4 m

0.4

0.6

0.8

0.2

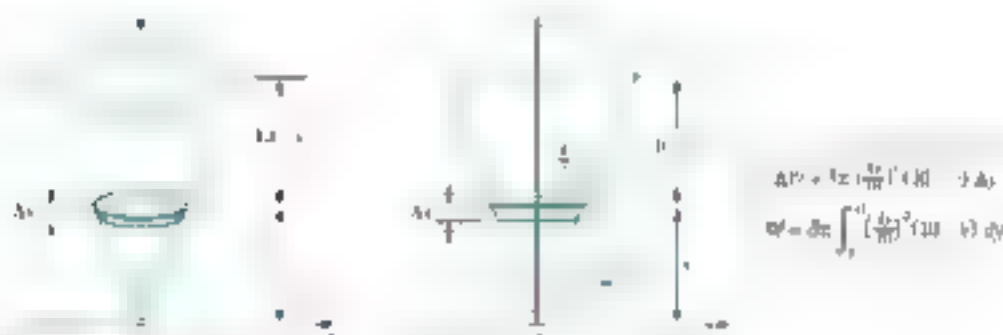


When the spring is at its natural length of 0.5 meter,  $x = 0$ , when it is 0.3 meter long  $x = 0.1$ . Therefore the work done in stretching the spring is

$$W = \int_0^{0.1} 300x \, dx = \left[ 150x^2 \right]_0^{0.1} = 1.5 \text{ joules}.$$

**FIGURE 5.5.1** To pump water out of a tank requires work, as anyone who has ever tried a hand pump will know (Figure 5). On how much work. The answer to this question rests on the same basic principles presented in the previous discussion.

**EXAMPLE 2** A tank in the shape of a right circular cone (Figure 6) is full of water. If the height of the tank is 10 feet and the radius at its top is 4 feet, find the work done in (a) pumping the water over the top edge of the tank and (b) pumping the water to a height 10 feet above the top of the tank.



### SOLUTION

(a) Position the tank at a coordinate system as shown in Figure 6, with a fixed origin at the vertex and a vertical axis passing through the vertex. To pump the water into the tank, we divide the water into disks each of which must be lifted to the edge of the tank. A disk of thickness  $\Delta y$  at height  $y$  has radius  $r$ . If the volume is  $\pi r^2 \Delta y$ , then its weight is approximately  $\pi r^2 \Delta y$  (since the weight of water is about 62.4 lb/ft<sup>3</sup>). The force necessary to lift this disk of water is its weight, and the distance it must be lifted a distance  $10 - y$ . Thus, the work  $\Delta W$  done on this disk is approximately

$$\Delta W = (\text{force}) \cdot (\text{distance}) \approx 8\pi \left( \frac{4y}{10} \right)^2 \Delta y \cdot (10 - y).$$

Thus

$$W = \int_0^{10} 8\pi \left( \frac{4y}{10} \right)^2 (10 - y) \, dy = 8\pi \cdot \frac{4}{25} \int_0^{10} (10y^2 - y^3) \, dy$$

$$= \frac{32\pi}{25} \left[ \frac{10y^3}{3} - \frac{y^4}{4} \right]_0^{10} \approx 26,318 \text{ foot-pounds}.$$

(b) Part (b) is just like (a), except that each disk of water must now be lifted a distance  $20 - y$ , rather than  $10 - y$ . Thus,

$$W = 8\pi \int_0^{10} \left( \frac{4y}{10} \right)^2 (20 - y) \, dy = 8\pi \cdot \frac{4}{25} \int_0^{10} (20y^2 - y^3) \, dy$$

$$= \frac{128\pi}{25} \left[ \frac{20y^3}{3} - \frac{y^4}{4} \right]_0^{10} \approx 130,690 \text{ foot-pounds}.$$

Note that the limits are still 0 and 10 (no, 0 and 20. Why?)

**EXAMPLE 3** Find the work done in pumping the water over the rim of a tank that is 5 feet long and has a semicircular end of radius 10 feet. The tank is filled to a depth of 7 feet (Figure 7).

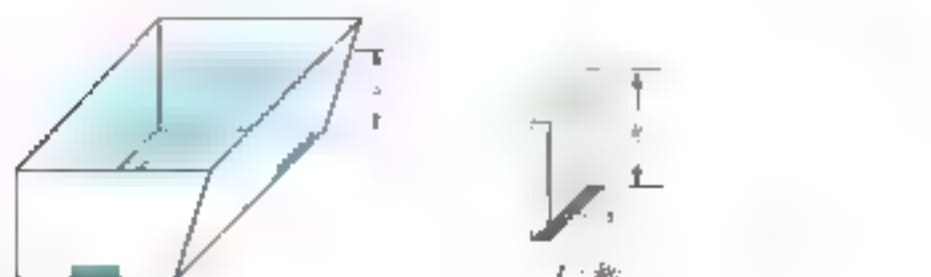
**SOLUTION** We position the end of the tank in a coordinate system as shown in Figure 8. A vertical horizontal slice is shown by the rectangle in the plane and in the three-dimensional view in Figure 9. The slice is a rectangle in this box so we calculate its volume by multiplying length, width, and thickness. Its weight is the area  $A = \pi y^2/4$  times its volume. Then, if we move this slice the distance  $x$  feet through a distance  $x$  (the minus sign results from the fact that  $x$  is negative in our diagram)

$$\begin{aligned} W &= \int_0^{10} \left( \frac{\pi y^2}{4} \right) (100x) (-dx) \\ &= 50\pi \int_0^{10} (100 - x^2)^{1/2} (-2x) dx \\ &= \left[ -(300x^{3/2}) + (100 - x^2)^{3/2} \right]_0^{10} \\ &= \frac{400}{3}(9)^{3/2} \approx 1,805.51 \text{ foot-pounds} \end{aligned}$$



Imagine the tank shown in Figure 9 is the end of a dam with a fluid of density  $\rho$ . Then the force exerted by the fluid on a horizontal rectangle of area  $A$  on the bottom is equal to the weight of the column of fluid that is directly over that rectangle (Figure 10) that is,  $F = \rho hA$ .

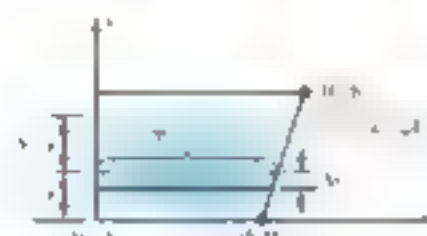
It is a fact first stated by Blaise Pascal (1623–1662) that the pressure exerted by a fluid on a surface is the same in all directions. An important consequence of this fact is that the pressure on a surface whose area is the same is the same, no matter how the surface is oriented. The force against each of the three small rectangles in Figure 9 is approximately the



same, assuming they have the same area. We say “approximately the same” because not all points of the two side rectangles are at the same depth (though the narrower these rectangles are, the closer this is to being true). It is this approximation that allows us to calculate the total force exerted by the fluid against the end of the tank.

**EXAMPLE 4** Suppose that the vertical end of the tank in Figure 9 has the shape shown in Figure 11 and that the tank is filled with water ( $\delta = 62.4$  pounds per cubic foot) to a depth of 5 feet. Find the total force exerted by the water against the end of the tank.

**SOLUTION** Place the end of the tank in the coordinate system as shown in Figure 12. Note that the right edge has shape  $3$  and hence has equation  $y = 0 = 3(x - 6)$  or, equivalently,  $x = \frac{1}{3}y + 6$ . The force against a narrow rectangle at depth  $5 - y$  is approximately  $\delta h A = \delta(5 - y)(\frac{1}{3}y + 6) \Delta y$ .



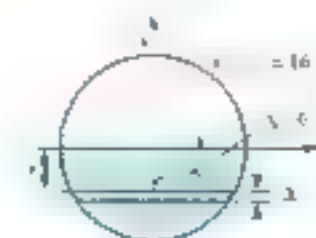
$$\begin{aligned} A &= \delta(5 - y)(\frac{1}{3}y + 6) \Delta y \\ F &= \int_0^5 \delta(5 - y)(\frac{1}{3}y + 6) dy \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} F &= \delta \int_0^5 (40 - \frac{1}{3}y^2) dy = \delta [40y - \frac{1}{18}y^3 + \frac{1}{9}y^3]_0^5 \\ &= \delta [200 - \frac{125}{18} + \frac{125}{9}] \approx 6673 \text{ pounds} \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 5** A barrel half full of oil is lying on its side (Figure 13). If each end is at least 5 feet in diameter, find the force against one end. Assume the density of oil is  $\delta = 50$  pounds per cubic foot.

**SOLUTION** Place the circular end in the coordinate system as shown in Figure 14. Then proceed as in Example 4.

$$\begin{aligned} F &= \delta \int_{-5}^0 (16 - y^2)^{3/2} (-2y dy) = \delta \int_0^5 (16 - y^2)^{3/2} dy \\ &= (50) \int_0^5 (16 - y^2)^{3/2} dy \approx 2133 \text{ pounds} \end{aligned}$$



$$\begin{aligned} A &= \delta \int_0^5 (16 - y^2)^{3/2} dy \\ F &= \delta \int_0^5 (16 - y^2)^{3/2} dy \end{aligned}$$



Figure 11

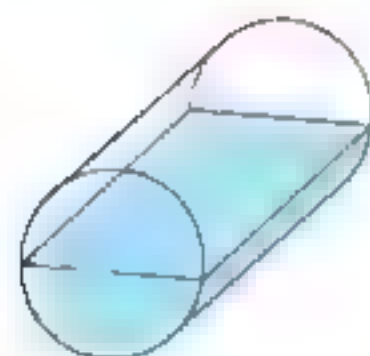


Figure 13

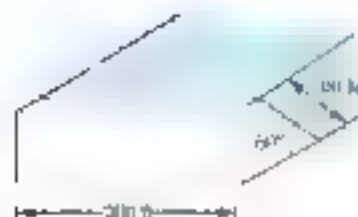
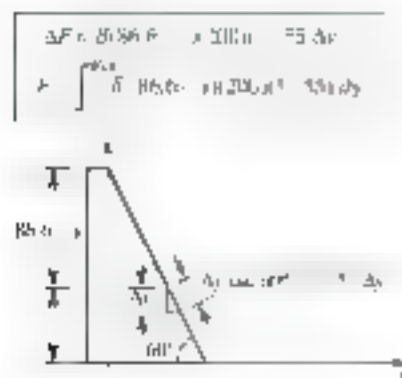


Figure 14

**EXAMPLE 6** The water face of a dam is a 70-foot by 30-foot rectangle inclined at  $40^\circ$  from the horizontal, as shown in Figure 15. Find the total force exerted by the water against the dam when the water level is at the top of the dam.



**FIGURE 5.13.18** Place the end of the dam in the coordinate system, as shown in Figure 5.13.18. Note that the vertical height of the dam is 150, not 151.355.

$$\begin{aligned}
 F &= (62.4)(200)(1.355) \int_0^{150} (86.6 - y) dy \\
 &= (62.4)(200)(1.355) \left[ 86.6y - \frac{y^2}{2} \right]_0^{150} \\
 &\approx 54,100,000 \text{ pounds}
 \end{aligned}$$

## Concepts Review

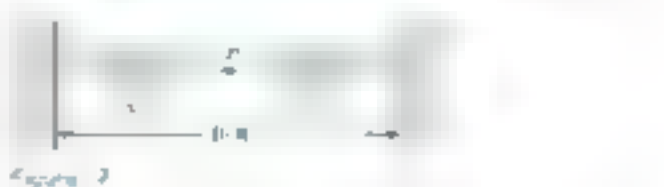
1. The work done by a force  $F$  in moving an object along a straight line from  $x = a$  to  $x = b$  is constant, but is \_\_\_\_\_ if  $F = f(x)$  is variable.
2. The work done in lifting an object weighing 10 pounds from ground level to a height of 4 feet is \_\_\_\_\_ foot-pounds.

## Problem Set 5.5

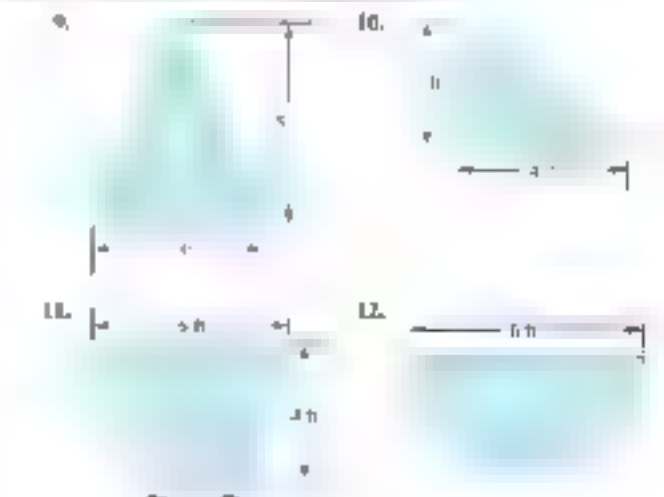
1. A force of 4 pounds is required to keep a spring stretched beyond its natural length. Find the work done in stretching the spring 1 foot beyond its natural length.
2. For the spring of Problem 1, how much work is done in stretching the spring 2 feet?
3. A force of 60 pounds is required to keep a spring with a natural length of 20 ft stretched to a length of 30 ft. Find the work done in compressing the spring from its natural length to a length of 10 ft. (Hint: Hooke's Law applies to compressing as well as to stretching.)
4. It requires 645 joules (newton-meters) of work to stretch a spring from a length of 8 centimeters to 9 centimeters and another 450 joules to stretch it from 9 centimeters to 10 centimeters. Determine the spring constant and find the natural length of the spring.
5. For any spring obeying Hooke's Law show that the work done in stretching a spring a distance  $d$  is given by  $W = \frac{1}{2}kd^2$ .
6. For a certain type of nonlinear spring, the force required to keep the spring stretched a distance  $x$  is given by the formula  $F = kx^{3/2}$ . If the force required to keep it stretched 8 inches is 2 pounds, how much work is done in stretching this spring 2 inches?
7. A spring is such that the force required to keep it stretched  $x$  feet is given by  $F = 9x$  pounds. How much work is done in stretching it 2 feet?
8. Two similar springs  $S_1$  and  $S_2$ , each 3 feet long, are such that the force required to keep either of them stretched a distance of  $x$  feet is  $F = 8x$  pounds. One end of one spring is fastened to an end of the other and the combination is stretched

3. The force exerted on a small dam by a given water level is 16,000 pounds.
4. If a weight of 100 pounds is suspended from a spring with a constant of 10 lb/ft, how much work is done in stretching the spring 2 feet?

We work the exercises in this section in the "Work Problems" section of the textbook.



**FIGURE 5.5.1** The work done in stretching a spring from its natural length to a length  $x$  is the area under the curve  $F(x)$  from 0 to  $x$ . The work done in stretching a spring from its natural length to a length  $x$  is the area under the curve  $F(x)$  from 0 to  $x$ .



13. Find the work done in pumping all the oil (density  $\delta = 50$  pounds per cubic foot) over the edge of a cylindrical tank that stands on one of its bases. Assume that the radius of the base is 4 feet, the height is 10 feet, and the tank is full of oil.

14. In Problem 13, assuming that the tank has conical cross sections of radius  $\delta + x$  feet at height  $x$  feet above the base.

15. A volume  $v$  of gas is contained in a cylinder, one end of which is closed by a movable piston. If  $A$  is the area in square inches of the face of the piston and  $x$  is the distance in inches from the cylinder head to the piston, then  $v = Ax$ . The pressure of the contained gas is a continuous function  $p$  of the volume and  $p(v) = p$  will be denoted by  $p$ . Show that the work done by the gas in compressing the gas from a volume  $V_1$  to a volume  $V_2$  is

$$W = \int_{V_1}^{V_2} p \, dv.$$

*Hint:* The total force on the face of the piston is  $p(x) \cdot A = p \, dv/dx$ .

16. A cylinder and piston, whose cross-sectional area is 1 square inch, contain 16 cubic inches of gas under a pressure of 40 pounds per square inch. If the pressure and the volume of the gas are related adiabatically (i.e., without loss of heat) by the law  $pv^{1.4} = c$  (a constant), how much work is done by the piston in compressing the gas to 2 cubic inches?

17. Find the work done by the piston in Problem 16 if the area of the face of the piston is 2 square inches.

18. One cubic foot of gas under a pressure of 50 pounds per square inch expands isobarically to 4 cubic feet according to the law  $pv^{1.4} = c$ . Find the work done by the gas.

19. A cable weighing 2 pounds per foot is used to haul a 200-pound weight to the top of a shaft that is 500 feet deep. How much work is done?

20. A 10-pound monkey hangs at the end of a 20-foot chain that weighs  $\frac{1}{2}$  pound per foot. How much work does it do in pulling the chain to the top? Assume that the end of the chain is attached to the monkey.

21. A space capsule weighing 5000 pounds is propelled to an altitude of 100 miles above the surface of the earth. How much work is done against the force of gravity? Assume that the earth is a sphere of radius 4000 miles and that the force of gravity is  $F = \frac{1600}{x^2}$ , where  $x$  is the distance from the center of the earth to the capsule (the inverse square law). Thus, the lifting force required is  $\frac{1600}{x^2}$  and this equals 5000 when  $x = 4000$ .

22. Accelerating  $+1.6$  coulomb  $\times 1.6 \times 10^{-19}$  like electric charges repel each other with a force that is inversely proportional to the square of the distance between them. If the force of repulsion is 10 dynes (1 dyne =  $10^{-5}$  newtons) when they are 2 centimeters apart, find the work done in bringing the charges from 5 centimeters apart to 1 centimeter apart.

23. A bucket weighing 60 pounds is filled with sand weighing 50 pounds. A crane lifts the bucket from the ground to a point 60 feet in the air at a rate of 2 feet per second, but sand simultaneously leaks out through a hole at 3 pounds per second. Neglecting friction and the weight of the cable, determine how much work is done. *Hint:* Begin by estimating 30% the work required to lift the bucket from  $x$  to  $x + \Delta x$ .

24. Center City has just built a new water tower. Figure 48 illustrates its main elements: a spherical tank having an outer radius of 10 feet and a 10-inch-long filler pipe. The cylindrical filler pipe has inner diameter 1 foot. Assume that water is pumped from ground level up through the pipe into the tank. How much work is done in filling the pipe and the tank with water?



In Problems 25–30, assume that the shaded region is part of a curve of the form  $y = c\sqrt{x}$  and  $c$  pounds per cubic foot is the weight density. Find the total force exerted by the water against the dam.

25.

26.

27.

28.

29.

30.

31. Show that if a vertical dam in the shape of a rectangle is divided in half by means of a diagonal, the total force exerted by the water on one half of the dam is twice that on the other half. Assume the top edge of the dam is at water level and the water is on the left.

32. Find the total force exerted by the water on all sides of a cube of edge length 2 feet if its top is horizontal and 10 feet below the surface. *Hint:* Use the result of Problem 31.

33. Find the total force exerted by the water against the front wall of the swimming pool shown in Figure 19, assuming it is full of water.

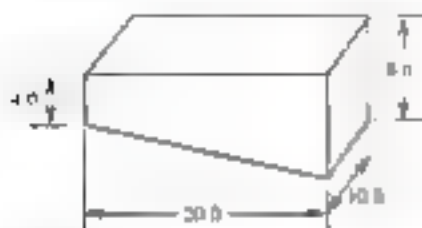
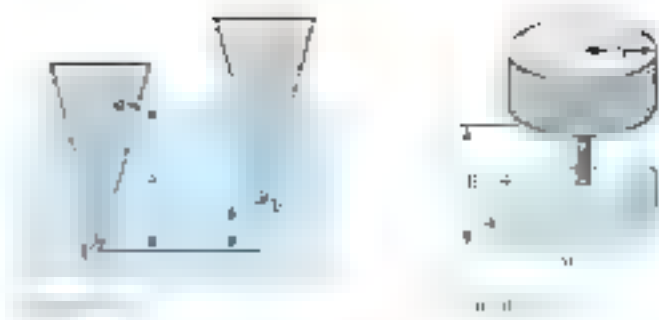


Figure 19

34. Find the total force exerted by the fluid against the water wall of a right circular cylinder of height  $h$  feet, which stands on its circular base of radius  $r$  feet. If it is filled with oil of  $\rho = 50$  pounds per cubic foot.

35. A conical buoy weighs 40 pounds and floats with its vertex 4 feet below the surface of the water (Figure 20). A boat crane lifts the buoy to the deck so that it is 5 feet above the water surface. How much work is done? *Hint:* Use Archimedes' Principle, which says that the force required to hold the buoy  $x$  feet above its original position ( $0 \leq x \leq 4$ ) is equal to its weight minus the weight of the water displaced by the buoy.

36. Initially, the bottom tank in Figure 21 was full of water and the top tank was empty. Find the work done in pumping all the water into the top tank. The dimensions are in feet.



37. Rather than lift the buoy of Problem 35 and Figure 20 out of the water, suppose that we attempt to push it down so it is top-to-top with the water level. Assume that  $h = 8$ , the top of the buoy is originally 7 feet above water level, and that the buoy weighs 100 pounds. How much work is required? *Hint:* You do not need to know  $\rho$  (the radius of water level), but it is helpful to know that  $(\frac{1}{2}\pi r^2)(h) = 300$ . Archimedes' Principle implies that the force needed to hold the buoy  $x$  feet ( $0 \leq x \leq 7$ ) below floating position is equal to the weight of the additional water displaced.

$$1. \int_0^4 2\pi \cdot 2 \cdot 50 \cdot x \, dx = 2000 \text{ ft} \cdot \text{lb}$$

## 5.6 Moments and Center of Mass

Suppose that we have a mass  $m_1$  and a mass  $m_2$  separated by a distance  $d$  (Figure 2). Let  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  be the distances of  $m_1$  and  $m_2$  from a point  $P$ . Then  $m_1x_1 = m_2x_2$  if and only if  $m_1x_1 = m_2x_2$ .

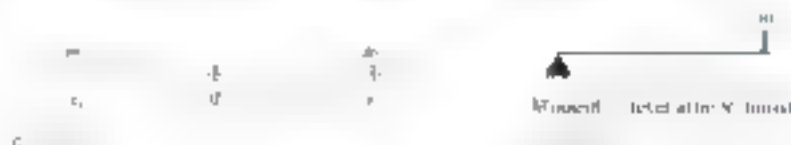
A general horizontal model of a situation is obtained by replacing the two masses with a horizontal coordinate line having its origin at the fulcrum (Figure 2). Then the coordinate  $x_1$  of  $m_1$  is  $x_1 = -d_1$ , that of  $m_2$  is  $x_2 = d_2$ , and the condition for balance is

$$m_1x_1 + m_2x_2 = 0.$$

The product of the mass  $m_i$  of a particle and its distance  $x_i$  from a point is called the **moment** of the point  $m_i$  with respect to the point. If  $x_i$  is measured in feet, then the moment is measured in foot-pounds. The condition for balance along a line is that the sum of these moments with respect to the point be zero.



Figure 2



The situation just described can be generalized to the situation where  $M$  with respect to the origin of a system of  $n$  masses of masses  $m_1, m_2, \dots, m_n$  located at points  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  along the  $x$ -axis is the sum of the individual moments, that is,

$$M = x_1m_1 + x_2m_2 + \dots + x_nm_n = \sum_{i=1}^n x_im_i.$$



The condition for balance at  $x_0$  originates that  $M = 0$ . Of course we should not expect balance at the origin except in special circumstances. In general, any system masses will balance somewhere. The question is where. What is the  $x$ -coordinate of the point where the fulcrum could be placed to make the system in Figure 4 balance?



Call the desired coordinate  $x$ . The total moment with respect to it should be zero. That is,

$$(x_1 - x)m_1 + (x_2 - x)m_2 + \cdots + (x_n - x)m_n = 0$$

or

$$x_1m_1 + x_2m_2 + \cdots + x_nm_n = xm_1 + xm_2 + \cdots + xm_n$$

When we solve for  $x$ , we obtain

$$x = \frac{M}{M} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i m_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n m_i}$$

The point  $x$ , called the **center of mass**, is the balance point. Notice that it is the total moment with respect to the origin divided by the total mass.

**EXAMPLE 1** Masses of 4, 2, 6, and 7 kg hang from a beam at points  $x = 2$ ,  $x = 3$ , and  $x = 4$ , respectively, along the  $x$ -axis (Figure 5). Find the center of mass.

**SOLUTION**

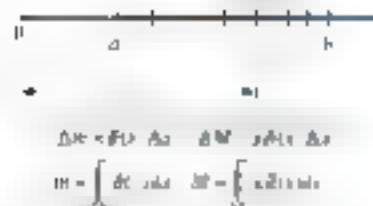
$$\bar{x} = \frac{(4)(2) + (2)(3) + (6)(4) + (7)(5)}{4 + 2 + 6 + 7} = \frac{67}{19} \approx 3.53$$

Your intuition should convince you that  $x \approx 3.5$  is about right for the balance point.

**Continuous Mass Distribution along a Line** Consider now a straight segment of thin wire of varying density  $\delta(x)$  with mass  $M$  and length  $b - a$ , where  $a$  is the balance point. We suppose  $a = 0$  without loss of generality. Our usual procedure of first approximating and integrating applies to this case as well. If  $\Delta x = (b - a)/n$ , we first obtain the total mass  $M$  and then the total moment  $M\bar{x}$  with respect to the origin (Figure 6). This leads to the formula

$$\bar{x} = \frac{M}{M} = \frac{\int_a^b x\delta(x) \, dx}{\int_a^b \delta(x) \, dx}$$

Two comments are in order. First, remember this formula by analogy with the formula for point masses.





$$\frac{\sum x_i m_i}{\sum m_i} = \frac{\sum x \Delta m}{\sum \Delta m} = \frac{\int x \delta(x) dx}{\int \delta(x) dx}$$

Remember, that we have assumed that moments of small pieces of wire, put together to give the total moment, just as was the case for finite masses. This should seem reasonable to you. You imagine the mass of the typical piece of length  $\Delta x$  to be concentrated at the point  $x$ .

**EXAMPLE 7** The density  $\delta(x)$  of a wire of length 10 units is given by the function  $\delta(x) = 1 + 2x$  for  $0 \leq x \leq 10$  grams per centimeter. Find the center of mass of the piece between  $x = 0$  and  $x = 10$ .

**SOLUTION** We expect it to be nearer to  $x = 0$  since the wire is much heavier (denser) toward the right end (Figure 7).

$$\bar{x} = \frac{\int_0^{10} x \delta(x) dx}{\int_0^{10} \delta(x) dx} = \frac{\int_0^{10} x(1+2x) dx}{\int_0^{10} (1+2x) dx} = \frac{750}{130} \approx 5.77 \text{ cm}$$

**EXAMPLE 8** Find the center of mass of a system of four masses of sizes  $m_1, m_2, m_3, m_4$  situated at points  $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), (x_3, y_3), (x_4, y_4)$  in the coordinate plane. Figure 8 shows the coordinates of each of the masses as well as the  $x$ -axis, respectively, are given by

$$x = \sum x_i m_i \quad y = \sum y_i m_i$$

The coordinates  $(\bar{x}, \bar{y})$  of the center of mass (balance point), are

$$\bar{x} = \frac{M_x}{m} = \frac{\sum x_i m_i}{\sum m_i} \quad \bar{y} = \frac{M_y}{m} = \frac{\sum y_i m_i}{\sum m_i}$$

**EXAMPLE 9** Five particles having masses 4, 2, 3, and 1 units are located at  $(-1, 1), (2, 1), (3, -1)$  and  $(-2, 2)$ , respectively. Find the center of mass.

**SOLUTION**

$$\bar{x} = \frac{(6)(1) + (2)(4) + (-4)(2) + (-2)(3) + (2)(2)}{1 + 4 + 2 + 3 + 1} = -\frac{1}{5}$$

$$\bar{y} = \frac{(-1)(1) + (3)(4) + (2)(2) + (4)(3) + (-2)(2)}{1 + 4 + 2 + 3 + 1} = \frac{23}{13}$$

We next consider the problem of finding the center of mass of a lamina (thin plane sheet). For simplicity we suppose that  $\delta$  is homogeneous that is,  $\delta$  has constant mass per unit area. For a homogeneous rectangular sheet, the center of mass coincides with the center of gravity (as if the geometric center of the rectangle and (b) in Figure 9 suggest.



FIGURE 7



FIGURE 8

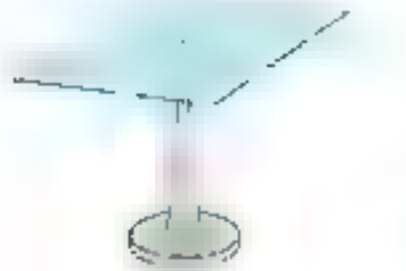


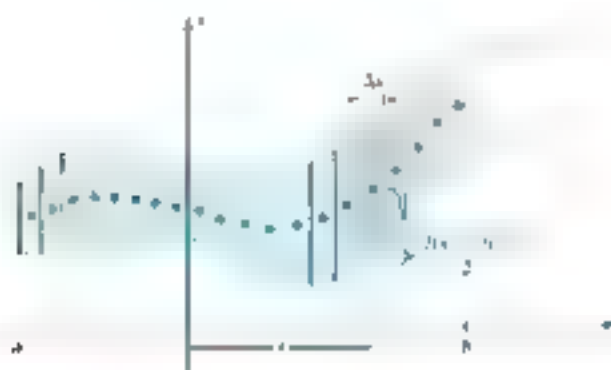
FIGURE 9

FIGURE 9

FIGURE 9

Consider the homogeneous lamina bounded by  $x = a$ ,  $x = b$ ,  $y = f(x)$  and  $y = g(x)$ , with  $g(x) \leq f(x)$ . Slice this lamina into narrow strips parallel to the  $y$ -axis, which are therefore nearly rectangular in shape and imagine the mass of each strip to be concentrated at its geometric center. Then *approximate* and *integrate* (Figure 10). From this we can calculate the coordinates  $\bar{x}$  of the center of mass using the formulae

$$\bar{x} = \frac{M_y}{M} \quad \bar{y} = \frac{M_x}{M}$$



|  |  |  |
|--|--|--|
| $\Delta m = \delta(x) \Delta x = \delta(x) \Delta x$ | $\Delta M = \delta(x) \Delta x = \delta(x) \Delta x$ | $\Delta M = \frac{\delta}{h} \int_a^b f(x)g(x) dx$     |
| $m = \delta \int_a^b (f(x) - g(x)) dx$               | $M = \delta \int_a^b (f(x) - g(x)) dx$               | $M_x = \frac{\delta}{2} \int_a^b (f(x)^2 - g(x)^2) dx$ |

Figure 10

When we do the same  $\Delta x$  strips below a horizontal line  $y = c$  (Figure 11), we obtain

$$\bar{x} = \frac{\int_a^b x[f(x) - g(x)] dx}{\int_a^b (f(x) - g(x)) dx}$$

$$\bar{y} = \frac{\int_a^b \frac{y(x) + g(x)}{2} (f(x) - g(x)) dx}{\int_a^b (f(x) - g(x)) dx} = \frac{\int_a^b \frac{y(x) + g(x)}{2} (f(x) - g(x)) dx}{\int_a^b (f(x) - g(x)) dx}$$

Sometimes slicing parallel to the  $x$ -axis works better than slicing parallel to the  $y$ -axis. The *same* formulae for  $\bar{x}$  and  $\bar{y}$  will work for the variable of integration. Do not try to memorize all these formulae; it is much better to remember how they were derived!

The center of mass of a homogeneous lamina with no density holes is the same as the mass per unit area on the shape of the corresponding region in the plane. Thus, the problem becomes a geometric problem rather than a physics one. Accordingly, we often speak of the *centroid* of a planar region, which becomes the *center of mass* of a homogeneous lamina.

**EXAMPLE 1** Find the centroid of the region bounded by the curves  $y = x^2$  and  $y = 1 - x^2$ .

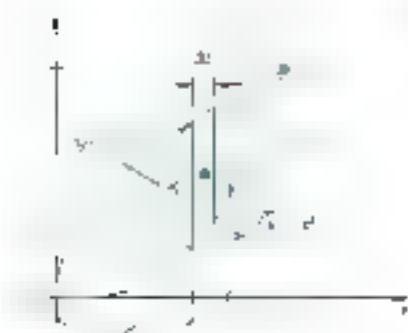


FIGURE 12

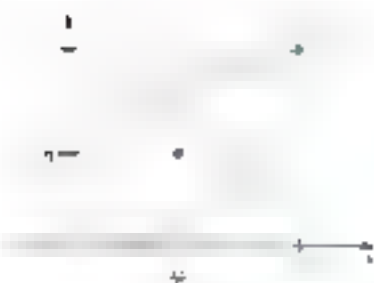


FIGURE 13

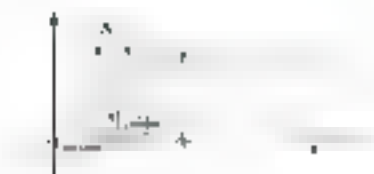


FIGURE 14

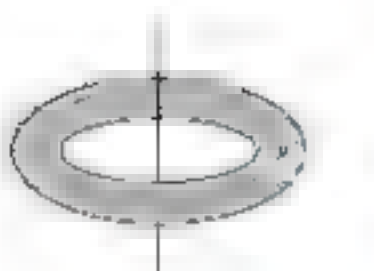


Figure 15

**SOLUTION** Note the diagram in Figure 12.

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{x} &= \frac{\int_0^1 x(1-x^2) dx}{\int_0^1 (1-x^2) dx} = \frac{\left[ \frac{1}{2}x^2 - \frac{1}{4}x^4 \right]_0^1}{\left[ x - \frac{1}{3}x^3 \right]_0^1} = \frac{\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{4}}{1 - \frac{1}{3}} = \frac{\frac{1}{4}}{\frac{2}{3}} = \frac{3}{8} \\ \bar{y} &= \frac{\int_0^1 \frac{1}{2}(1+x)(1-x^2)(1-x^2) dx}{\int_0^1 (1-x^2) dx} = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^1 (1-x^2)(1-x^2) dx \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left[ \frac{1}{2}x^2 - \frac{1}{4}x^4 \right]_0^1 = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{4} \right) = \frac{1}{8}\end{aligned}$$

The centroid is shown in Figure 12. ■

**EXAMPLE 5** Find the centroid of the region under the curve  $y = \sin x$ ,  $0 \leq x \leq \pi$  (Figure 13).

**SOLUTION** This region is symmetric about the line  $x = \pi/2$ , in which case we can use without an integral the fact that  $\bar{x} = \pi/2$ . In fact, we can find  $\bar{y}$  by observing also that the region has a horizontal line of symmetry. If so, the centroid will lie on that line.

Your intuition should also suggest that  $\bar{y}$  will be  $\pi/4$ , since, more or less, the region is  $\pi/4$  units above the  $x$ -axis. But to find this number exactly, we make calculations.

$$\bar{y} = \frac{\int_0^\pi \frac{1}{2}(\sin x + \sin x) dx}{\int_0^\pi \sin x dx} = \frac{\frac{1}{2} \int_0^\pi 2 \sin x dx}{\int_0^\pi \sin x dx} = \frac{\int_0^\pi \sin x dx}{\int_0^\pi \sin x dx} = 1$$

The denominator in the formula for  $\bar{y}$  has value 2. To calculate the numerator, we use the half-angle formula  $\sin^2 x = (1 - \cos 2x)/2$ .

$$\begin{aligned}\int_0^\pi \sin^2 x dx &= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^\pi (1 - \cos 2x) dx = \frac{1}{2} \left[ x - \frac{1}{2} \sin 2x \right]_0^\pi \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left( \pi - \frac{1}{2} \sin 2\pi \right) = \frac{\pi}{2}\end{aligned}$$

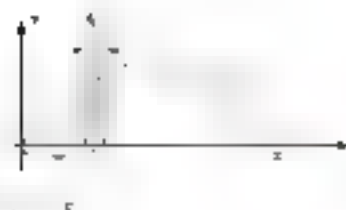
Thus,

$$\bar{y} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{\pi}{2} = \frac{\pi}{4} \approx 0.79$$

**EXAMPLE 6** About 300 BC the Greek geometer Pappus stated a novel result, which connects centroid with a number of kinds of revolution (Figure 14).

### Thinking It Through Pappus's Theorem

If a region  $R$  lying on one side of a line in its plane is revolved about this line, then the volume of the resulting solid is equal to the area of  $R$  multiplied by the distance traveled by its centroid.



Rather than prove his theorem, which is really quite easy, see Problem 26, we illustrate it.

**EXAMPLE 14** Verify Pappus's Theorem for the region under  $y = \sin x$ ,  $0 \leq x \leq \pi$ , when it is revolved about the  $x$ -axis (Figure 14).

**SOLUTION** This is the region of Example 3 for which  $a = \pi$ . The area  $A$  of this region is

$$A = \int_0^{\pi} \sin x \, dx = [-\cos x]_0^{\pi} = 2$$

The volume  $V$  of the corresponding solid of revolution is

$$V = \pi \int_0^{\pi} \sin^2 x \, dx = \pi \int_0^{\pi} \frac{1 - \cos 2x}{2} \, dx = \frac{\pi}{2} \left[ x - \frac{\sin 2x}{2} \right]_0^{\pi} = \frac{\pi}{2} \cdot \pi = \frac{\pi^2}{2}$$

To verify Pappus's Theorem, we must show that

$$A(\pi/2)^2 = V$$

But that amounts to showing that

$$2 \left( \frac{\pi}{2} \right)^2 = \frac{\pi^2}{2}$$

which is clearly true. ■

## Concepts Review

1. An object of mass 3 is at  $x = 1$  and a second object of mass 6 is at  $x = 3$ . Through geometric intuition tell us that the center of mass will be in the \_\_\_\_\_ of  $x = 2$ . In fact, it is at  $x =$  \_\_\_\_\_.

2. A lamina, whose width, being given by  $\sqrt{a-x}$ , where  $a = 0$  and  $x = 4$  will balance at  $\bar{x} =$  \_\_\_\_\_. If instead of the area law density  $\delta(x) = 1 + x$ , it will balance to the \_\_\_\_\_ of 2.5. In fact, it will balance at  $\bar{x}$  where  $\bar{x} = \int_0^4 \_\_\_\_\_\_ dx / \int_0^4 \_\_\_\_\_\_ dx$ .

3. The  $y$ -coordinate of the centroid of the region bounded by the parabola  $y = 4 - x^2$  and the  $x$ -axis is \_\_\_\_\_ and the  $x$ -coordinate is \_\_\_\_\_.

4. A rectangular plate, with mass of 200 g, is 4 cm by 2 cm. It is attached to a horizontal rod through its center. Assuming all the lamina have the same constant density, the resulting  $I$  through the rod will be \_\_\_\_\_.

## Problem Set 5.6

1. Particles of mass  $m_1 = 5$ ,  $m_2 = 7$ , and  $m_3 = 9$  are located at  $x_1 = 4$ ,  $x_2 = -2$ , and  $x_3 = 1$  along a line. Where is the center of mass?

2. John and Mary weigh 160 and 130 pounds, respectively, sit at opposite ends of a 12-foot teeter board with the fulcrum in the middle. Where should their 100-pound son push on the board for the board to balance?

3. A straight wire 2 units long has density  $\delta(x) = \sqrt{x}$  at  $x$  pounds units from one end. Find the distance from this end to the center of mass.

4. Do Problem 3 for  $\delta(x) = x^2$ .

5. The masses and coordinates of a system of particles in the coordinate plane are given by the following: 2, (1, 1); 3, (7, 3); 4, (5, 5). Find the moment of the system with respect to the coordinate axes, and find the coordinates of the center of mass.

6. The mass and coordinates of a system of particles are given by the following: 5, (0, 1); 6, (4, 4); 4, (5, 4).

7. Find the moment of a system with respect to the coordinate axes, and find the coordinates of the center of mass.

8. Verify the expressions for  $\bar{x}$ ,  $\bar{y}$ ,  $M_x$ , and  $M_y$  in the box in Figure 10.

In Problems 9–16, find the centroid of the region bounded by the given curves. Make a sketch and use symmetry where possible.

9.  $y = x^2$ ,  $x = 4$ ,  $y = 0$

10.  $y = x^2$ ,  $x = 4$ ,  $y = 0$

11.  $y = x^2$ ,  $x = 4$ ,  $y = 0$

12.  $y = x^2$ ,  $x = 4$ ,  $y = 0$

13.  $y = x^2$ ,  $x = 4$ ,  $y = 0$

14.  $y = x^2$ ,  $x = 4$ ,  $y = 0$

15.  $y = x^2$ ,  $x = 4$ ,  $y = 0$

17. For each homogeneous lamina  $R$  and  $R'$  shown in Figure 16, find  $M$ ,  $M'$ ,  $\bar{x}$ ,  $\bar{y}$ ,  $\bar{x}'$ ,  $\bar{y}'$ ,  $\bar{x}_c$ ,  $\bar{y}_c$ ,  $\bar{x}'_c$ ,  $\bar{y}'_c$ ,  $\bar{x}_c'$ , and  $\bar{y}_c'$ .

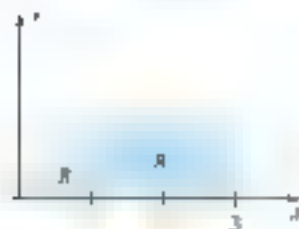


Figure 16

18. For the homogeneous lamina shown in Figure 17 find  $M$ ,  $\bar{x}$ ,  $\bar{y}$ ,  $\bar{x}_c$ , and  $\bar{y}_c$ .

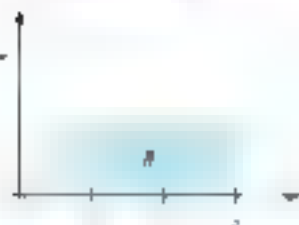


Figure 17

19. Consider the homogeneous lamina  $R_1$  and  $R_2$  shown in Figure 18 and the homogeneous lamina  $R_3$ , which is the union of  $R_1$  and  $R_2$ . For  $s = 1, 2, 3$ , let  $m_s$ ,  $\bar{x}_s$ ,  $\bar{y}_s$ ,  $\bar{x}_c$ , and  $\bar{y}_c$  denote the mass, the moment about the  $y$ -axis, and the moment about the  $x$ -axis, respectively, of  $R_s$ . Show that

$$\begin{aligned} m_3 R_3 &= m_1 R_1 + m_2 R_2 \\ \bar{x}_3 R_3 &= \bar{x}_1 R_1 + \bar{x}_2 R_2 \\ \bar{y}_3 R_3 &= \bar{y}_1 R_1 + \bar{y}_2 R_2 \end{aligned}$$

20.

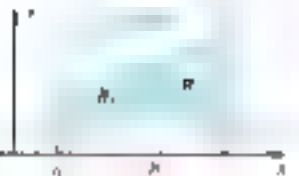


Figure 18

21. Repeat Problem 19 for the lamina  $R$  and  $R_2$  shown in Figure 19.

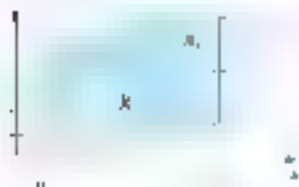
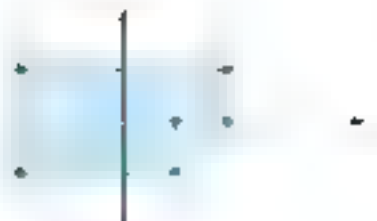


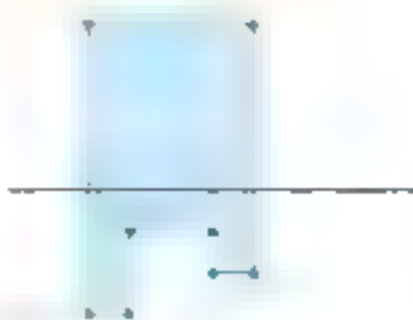
Figure 19

22. By definition, the centroid of a region is the point where the region would balance if it were a homogeneous lamina. Use the method of cylindrical shells to find the centroid of the region  $R$  in the first quadrant bounded by the parabola  $y = 4 - x^2$  and the  $x$ -axis. (The centroid of a region  $R$  is the point  $(\bar{x}, \bar{y})$  such that  $\bar{x} = \frac{1}{A} \int \bar{x}_c dA$  and  $\bar{y} = \frac{1}{A} \int \bar{y}_c dA$ , where  $A$  is the area of  $R$ .)

23.



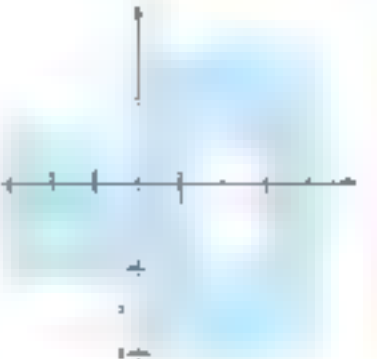
24.



25.



26.



27. Use Pappus's Theorem to find the volume of the solid obtained when the region bounded by  $y = x^2$ ,  $y = 0$ , and  $x = 1$  is revolved about the  $y$ -axis (see Problem 11 for the centroid). Do the same problem by the method of cylindrical shells to check your answer.

28. Use Pappus's Theorem to find the volume of the torus obtained when the region inside the circle  $x^2 + y^2 = a^2$  is revolved about the line  $x = 2a$ .

29. Use Pappus's Theorem together with the known volume of a sphere to find the centroid of a spherical cap of radius  $a$ .

38. Prove Pappus's Theorem by assuming that the area of area  $A$  in Figure 20 is  $A$  and is revolved about the  $x$ -axis from

$$x = \int_a^b x f(x) dx \text{ and } A = \int_a^b (x f(x) dx) A.$$

39. The region of Figure 20 is revolved about the line  $y = K$  giving a solid.

- Use calculus to show that the formula for the volume in terms of  $\pi$  is.
- Show that Pappus's theorem, when simplified, gives the same result.

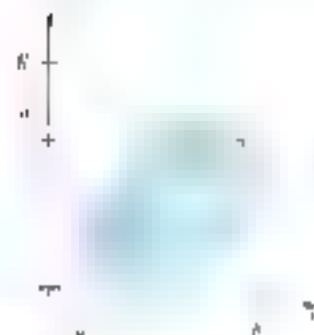


Figure 20

40. Consider the triangle  $T$  of Figure 21.

- Show that  $T = \Delta y$  and show that the centroid of a triangle is at the intersection of the medians.
- Show the volume of the solid obtained when  $T$  is revolved around  $y = k$  (Pappus's Theorem).

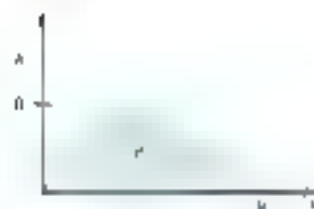


Figure 21

41. A regular polygon  $P$  of  $n$  sides is inscribed in a circle of radius  $r$ .

- Find the volume of the solid obtained when  $P$  is revolved about one of its sides.
- Check your answer by letting  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

42. Let  $f$  be a nonnegative continuous function on  $[0, 1]$ .

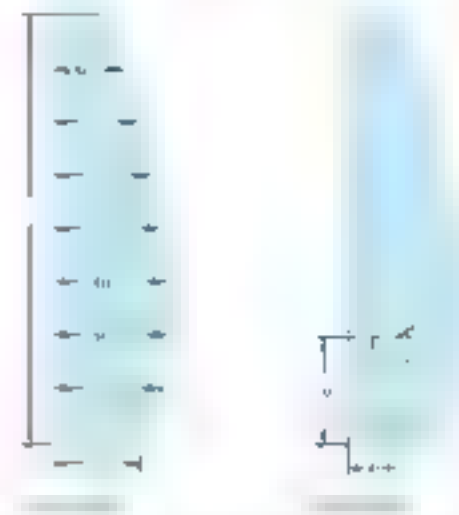
- Show that  $\int_0^1 x f(x) dx = \int_0^1 x f(x) dx$ .

(b) Use part (a) to evaluate  $\int_0^1 x \sin x dx$ .

43. Let  $0 \leq f(x) \leq g(x)$  for all  $x$  in  $[0, 1]$ , and let  $K$  and  $L$  be the regions under the graphs of  $f$  and  $g$ , respectively. Prove or disprove that  $V_K \leq V_L$ .

44. Approximate the centroid of the lamina shown in Figure 22. All measurements are in centimeters (cm).

45. A hole with radius 2.5 centimeters is drilled in the lamina described in Problem 44. The location of the hole is shown in Figure 23. Find the centroid of the resulting lamina.



46. The geographic center of a region (city, state, country) is defined to be the centroid of that region. Use the map in Figure 24 to approximate the geographic center of Illinois. All distances are approximate and are in miles. The given city with distances are 50 miles apart. You will also need the distances between the eastern boundary of the state and the line running north-south through the center of the state. The state is 100 miles wide and 400 miles long. The distances between the eastern boundary of the state and the line running north-south through the center of the state are 50, 100, 150, 200, 250, 300, 350, 400 miles. Assume that all other distances are measured from the center of the state.



Figure 24

Section 5.6 Concepts Review: 1. right

$$4.1 = 6 \cdot \frac{3}{4} \cdot 4 = 6 = 2 \cdot 2.5 \text{ right, if } 1 + x = 1 + y$$

$$1.1 = 4 \cdot \frac{3}{4} \cdot 4$$

## 5.7 Probability and Random Variables

In many situations the outcome of an experiment varies from one trial to the next. For instance, a tossed coin will sometimes land on heads, sometimes on tails; a major league pitcher may pitch 3 innings one game and 7 innings another one; an oil derrick may drill 2 months, another may drill 40 months. We say that the outcome of an experiment is **random** if its outcomes vary from one trial to the next. A trial is called **random** if we run the experiment a large number of repetitions, there is a regular distribution of outcomes.

Some outcomes occur frequently, such as arriving safely at your destination after a flight while in peak years, and some infrequently, such as winning on lottery. We use probability to measure how likely an event or even a set of outcomes is. An event that is almost sure to occur has a probability near 1. An event that will almost never occur has probability near 0. An event that is as likely to occur as not, such as getting a head on one toss of a fair coin, will have a probability of  $\frac{1}{2}$ . In general, the probability of an event is the ratio of the number of occurrences of that event to the total number of trials. If  $A$  is an event that is a set of possible outcomes, then we denote the probability of  $A$  by  $P(A)$ . Probabilities must satisfy the following properties:

1.  $0 \leq P(A) \leq 1$  for every event  $A$ .
2. If  $S$  is the set of all possible outcomes, then  $P(S) = 1$ .
3. If events  $A$  and  $B$  are **disjoint**, that is, they have no outcomes in common, then  $P(A \text{ or } B) = P(A) + P(B)$ . (Actually, a stronger condition is required, but for now this will do.)

From these statements we can deduce the following: If  $A$  denotes the complement of  $A$ , that is, the set of all outcomes in the sample space that are not in  $A$ , then  $P(A') = 1 - P(A)$ . Also, if  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n$  are disjoint then  $P(A_1 \text{ or } A_2 \text{ or } \dots \text{ or } A_n) = P(A_1) + P(A_2) + \dots + P(A_n)$ .

A rule that assigns a numerical value to the outcome of an experiment is called a **random variable**. It is a function that associates each outcome of the experiment with a real number. For example, consider the experiment of tossing a coin three times. The sample space is the set  $\{HHH, HHT, HTH, HTT, THH, THT, TTH, TTT\}$ . We could define the random variable  $X$  to be the number of heads in the three tosses. The **probability distribution** of  $X$  that is, a listing of all possible values of  $X$  together with their corresponding probabilities, would be displayed in a table like the one below.

| $x$ | $P(X = x)$    |
|-----|---------------|
| 0   | $\frac{1}{8}$ |
| 1   | $\frac{3}{8}$ |
| 2   | $\frac{3}{8}$ |
| 3   | $\frac{1}{8}$ |

An important concept in probability and statistics is that of the **expectation** of a random variable. To motivate the definition, which is given below, consider the following thought experiment. Imagine repeatedly tossing three coins a large number of times. Suppose that the three coins are tossed 10,000 times. If our knowledge of probability is correct, we expect to see 2500 heads on each of the three coins. That is,  $\frac{1}{4}(10,000) = 2500$  times in a sequence of 10,000. Similarly we would expect to see  $\frac{1}{4}(10,000) = 2500$  occurrences of one head,  $\frac{1}{4}(10,000) = 2500$  occurrences of two heads, and  $\frac{1}{4}(10,000) = 2500$  occurrences of three heads. How many heads altogether do we expect to see in 10,000 tosses of 3 coins? We expect

- zero heads 2500 times, for a total of 0 heads
- one head 2500 times, for a total of 2500 heads
- two heads 2500 times, for a total of 5000 heads
- three heads 2500 times, for a total of 7500 heads

All in all, we would expect  $0 + 3750 + 7500 + 3750 = 15,000$  heads. Thus, we expect  $15,000/10,000 = 1.5$  heads per coin, using three coins. A nice reflection in the calculations suggests that  $1.5 = 0.001 + 0.01 + 0.01 + 0.01$  washes away! We multiplied each probability by 10,000 to get the expected frequency but then we divided by 10,000. That is,

$$\begin{aligned} 1.5 &= \frac{15,000}{10,000} \\ &= \frac{1}{10,000} [0P(X=0) + 10,000 + 1P(X=1) + 10,000 \\ &\quad + 2P(X=2) + 10,000 + 3P(X=3) + 10,000] \\ &= 0P(X=0) + 1P(X=1) + 2P(X=2) + 3P(X=3) \end{aligned}$$

This last line is what we mean by the expectation.

#### Definition Expectation of a Random Variable

If  $X$  is a random variable with probability distribution

| $X$        | $x_1$ | $x_2$ | $\dots$ | $x_n$ |
|------------|-------|-------|---------|-------|
| $P(X=x_i)$ | $p_1$ | $p_2$ | $\dots$ | $p_n$ |

then the **expectation** of  $X$ , denoted  $E(X)$ , also called the **mean** of  $X$  and denoted  $\mu$ , is

$$\mu = E(X) = x_1p_1 + x_2p_2 + \dots + x_np_n = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i p_i$$

Since  $\sum p_i$  (all probabilities) must sum to one, the formula for  $E(X)$  is the same as the formula for the center of mass of a finite set of particles having masses  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n$  located at positions  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$ .

$$\text{Center of Mass} = \frac{M}{m} = \frac{\sum x_i p_i}{\sum p_i} = \frac{\sum x_i p_i}{1} = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i p_i = E(X)$$

**EXAMPLE 5** Plastic parts are made by a batch by molding plastic into a mold. The weight parts are inspected and defective parts are marked with the number of part and cracks. Suppose that the probability distribution for the number of defective parts in a batch is given in the table below.

| $x_i$ | 0    | 1    | 2    | 3    |
|-------|------|------|------|------|
| $p_i$ | 0.90 | 0.06 | 0.03 | 0.01 |

Find (a) the probability that a batch of 20 parts contains at least one defective part and (b) the expected number of defective parts per batch of 20.

#### SOLUTION

$$(a) P(X \geq 1) = P(X=1) + P(X=2) + P(X=3)$$

$$= 0.06 + 0.03 + 0.01 = 0.10$$

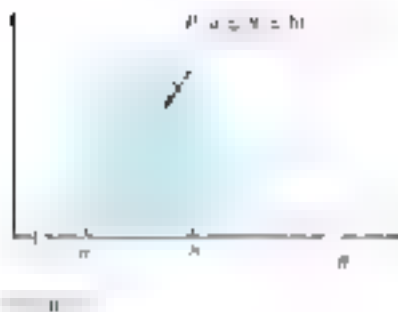
(b) The expected value for the number of defective parts is

$$E(X) = 0 \cdot 0.90 + 1 \cdot 0.06 + 2 \cdot 0.03 + 3 \cdot 0.01 = 0.5$$

This on average we would expect 0.5 defective parts per batch.



A curious statement about small, "N" models are correct, but more are useful. Probability models like those in this section should be regarded as approximations to the real world, not as perfectly accurate representations of the real world.



So far in this section we have dealt with random variables where the number of possible values is finite. This situation is analogous to having probabilities in the previous section. There are other situations where there are infinitely many possible outcomes. In the set of possible values of a random variable  $X$  is finite such as  $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$  or is infinite but can be put in a list such as  $\{x_1, x_2, \dots\}$ , then the random variable  $X$  is said to be **discrete**. If a random variable  $Y$  can take on any value in some interval of real numbers then we say that  $Y$  is a **continuous** random variable. There are many situations where there are  $\infty$  possible outcomes that can be very near to each other but not identical. For example, we may measure the strength of a piece of molded part or the time of a battery. Of course, a procedure always involves rounding off. For example, the nearest second might be 1.23 seconds. But at one time like this the random variable can take discrete values. It is very hard to see the difference between a discrete and a continuous random variable. It is just a good idea to call it

and more generally, variables are ordered in manner analogous to the one presented above at the previous level. It is important to understand that while we must specify the probability density function PDF, a PDF is a function and like all functional values it has a value. It is always non-negative.

2.  $\int_a^b f(x) dx = 1$

3.  $P(a \leq Y \leq b) = \int_a^b f(x) dx$  for all  $a, b$  with  $a < b$  in the interval  $(-\infty, \infty)$ .

The third property says that we can find probabilities for a continuously random variable by finding areas under the PDF (see Figure 5). It is easy to see why the PDF is to be zero outside of the interval  $[A, B]$ .

The expected value,  $\mu$ , of a continuous random variable,  $X$ , is

$$M = \int_0^1 f(x) dx$$

Just as in the case of dense random set grids, this is analogous to the collection of mass of an object with variable density.

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \ln \int_0^1 f^n(x) dx = \frac{1}{n} \ln \int_0^1 f(x) dx = \frac{1}{n} \ln \int_0^1 f(x) dx = \int_0^1 f(x) dx = R(X)$$

**ABSTRACT:** A questionnaire study of 100 young people (18-25 years old) in the UK.

[illegible]

Find (a)  $P(1 \leq X \leq 9)$ , (b)  $P(X \geq 4)$ , (c)  $E(X)$ 

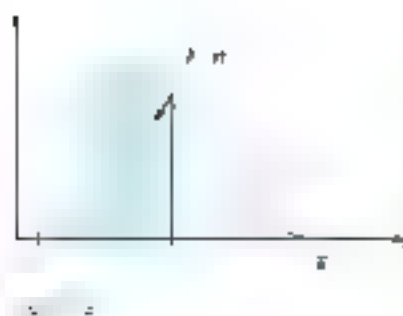
**SOLUTION** The random variable  $X$  takes on values in  $\{0, \dots, 10\}$

$$f(t) = f(t_0) + N = 9.9 \quad / \quad \frac{1}{10} \frac{d^4 x}{dt^4} = 3.5 \quad 4$$

$$(b) P(X \geq 4) = \int_4^{10} \frac{1}{10} ds = \frac{6}{10} = \frac{3}{5}$$

1. *Phragmites* / *Phragmites* 20

Are these answers reasonable? The random variable  $X$  is uniformly distributed on the interval  $[0, 1]$  so  $80\%$  of the probability should be between  $0$  and  $0.8$  as big as  $1 - 0.2$  the mass of a uniform distribution should be between  $0$  and  $1$ . If  $X$  is symmetric we would expect the mean or expectation of  $X$  to be  $0.5$  and as we would expect the center of mass of a uniform bar of length  $1$  to be  $0.5$  units from either side.



A function closely related to the PDF is the **cumulative distribution function (CDF)** which for a random variable  $X$  is the function  $F$  defined by

$$F(x) = P(X \leq x)$$

This function is defined for both discrete and continuous random variables. For a discrete random variable, the function given in Equation 1 is a step function that takes a jump of  $p_i = P(X = x_i)$  at the value  $x_i$  (see Problems 5). For a continuous random variable  $X$  that takes on values on the interval  $[A, B]$  and having PDF  $f(x)$ , the CDF is equal to the definite integral (see Figure 2).

$$F(x) = \int_A^x f(t) \, dt \quad A \leq x \leq B$$

For  $x < A$ , the CDF  $F(x)$  is zero since the probability of being less than or equal to a value less than  $A$  is zero. Similarly, for  $x > B$ , the CDF is one since the probability of being less than or equal to a value that is greater than  $B$  is one.

In Chapter 4 we used the term *accumulation function* to refer to a function defined this way. The CDF is defined as the accumulation function of the PDF since it is an accumulation function. The next theorem gives some properties of the CDF. The proofs are easy and are left as exercises. (See Problem 19.)

### THEOREM

Let  $X$  be a continuous random variable taking on values on the interval  $[A, B]$  and having PDF  $f(x)$  and CDF  $F(x)$ . Then

1.  $f(x) \geq 0$
2.  $F(A) = 0$  and  $F(B) = 1$
3.  $P(a \leq X \leq b) = F(b) - F(a)$

**EXAMPLE 1** A reliability survey of a random variable is often the life time of a machine such as a laptop computer. For example, if all the new laptops produced satisfy the conditions of Theorem 1, then the lifetime of a battery is a continuous random variable  $X$  having PDF:

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{625}x^4(5-x), & \text{if } 0 \leq x \leq 5 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- (a) Verify that this is a valid PDF and sketch its graph.
- (b) Find the probability that the battery lasts at least three hours.
- (c) Find the expected value of the lifetime.
- (d) Find and sketch a graph of the CDF.

**SOLUTION** A graphing calculator or a CAS may be helpful in evaluating the integrals for this problem.

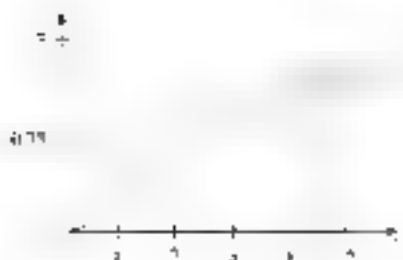
- (a) For all  $x$ ,  $f(x)$  is nonnegative and

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^5 \frac{12}{625}x^4(5-x) \, dx &= \frac{12}{625} \int_0^5 (5x^4 - x^5) \, dx \\ &= \frac{12}{625} \left[ \frac{5x^5}{5} - \frac{x^6}{6} \right]_0^5 \\ &= \frac{12}{625} \left[ \frac{5^6}{6} - 0 \right] = 1 \end{aligned}$$

A graph of the PDF is given in Figure 3.

- (b) The probability is found by integrating

$$\begin{aligned} P(X \geq 3) &= \int_3^5 \frac{12}{625}x^4(5-x) \, dx \\ &= \frac{12}{625} \left[ \frac{5x^5}{5} - \frac{x^6}{6} \right]_3^5 \\ &= \frac{12}{625} \left[ \frac{5^6}{6} - \frac{3^6}{6} \right] = \frac{12}{625} \left[ \frac{15625}{6} - \frac{729}{6} \right] \\ &= \frac{12}{625} \left[ \frac{14896}{6} \right] = \frac{12}{625} \cdot 2482.666\ldots \\ &= 3.9322666\ldots \approx 3.93\% \end{aligned}$$

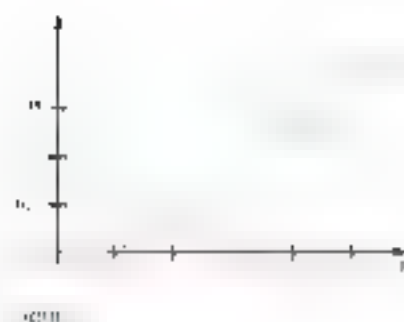


(c) The expected lifetime is

$$\begin{aligned}
 E(X) &= \int_0^5 x \left[ \frac{12}{625} x^3 (5-x) \right] dx \\
 &= \frac{12}{625} \int_0^5 (5x^4 - x^5) dx \\
 &= \frac{12}{625} \left[ \frac{5}{5} x^5 - \frac{1}{6} x^6 \right]_0^5 = \frac{12}{625} \left[ 5^5 - \frac{1}{6} 5^6 \right] = \frac{12}{625} \left[ 5^5 \left( 1 - \frac{5}{6} \right) \right] = \frac{12}{625} \left[ 5^5 \left( \frac{1}{6} \right) \right] = \frac{12}{625} \left[ \frac{1}{6} (3125) \right] = \frac{12}{625} \left[ 518.75 \right] = 9.5 \text{ hours}
 \end{aligned}$$

(d) For  $x$  between 0 and 5

$$\begin{aligned}
 F(x) &= \int_0^x \frac{12}{625} t^3 (5-t) dt \\
 &= \frac{12}{625} \left[ \frac{5}{5} t^5 - \frac{1}{6} t^6 \right]_0^x = \frac{12}{625} \left[ \frac{1}{6} (5x^5 - x^6) \right]
 \end{aligned}$$

For  $x < 0$ ,  $F(x) = 0$ , and for  $x > 5$ ,  $F(x) = 1$ . A graph is given in Figure 4. ■

### Concept Review

1. A random variable whose set of possible outcomes is infinite can be put into an infinite list and is called a \_\_\_\_\_ random variable. A continuous variable whose set of possible outcomes makes up an interval of real numbers is called a \_\_\_\_\_ random variable.

2. For discrete random variables, probabilities and expectations are found by evaluating a sum \_\_\_\_\_, whereas for

continuous random variables, probabilities and expectations are found by evaluating a (sum) \_\_\_\_\_.

3. If a continuous random variable  $X$  takes on values in  $(a, b)$  and has PDF  $f(x)$ , then  $P(a < X < b)$  is found by evaluating

4. If \_\_\_\_\_, then the probability (area under the PDF) is called the \_\_\_\_\_.

### Problem Set 5.7

In Problems 1–8, a discrete probability distribution for a random variable  $X$  is given. Use the given distribution to find (a)  $P(X \geq 2)$  and (b)  $P(X)$ .

|          |      |      |      |      |
|----------|------|------|------|------|
| 1. $x_i$ | 0    | 1    | 2    | 3    |
| $p_i$    | 0.00 | 0.10 | 0.15 | 0.75 |

|          |      |     |      |      |      |
|----------|------|-----|------|------|------|
| 2. $x_i$ | 0    | 1   | 2    | 3    | 4    |
| $p_i$    | 0.70 | 0.5 | 0.05 | 0.15 | 0.05 |

|          |     |     |     |     |     |
|----------|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| 3. $x_i$ | -2  | -1  | 0   | 1   | 2   |
| $p_i$    | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.2 |

|          |   |    |     |   |   |
|----------|---|----|-----|---|---|
| 4. $x_i$ | 2 | -1 | 0   | 1 | 3 |
| $p_i$    | 0 | 0  | 0.4 | 0 | 0 |

|          |     |   |   |   |
|----------|-----|---|---|---|
| 5. $x_i$ | 1   | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| $p_i$    | 0.4 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

|          |      |      |      |
|----------|------|------|------|
| 6. $x_i$ | 0    | 1    | 2    |
| $p_i$    | 0.20 | 0.30 | 0.50 |

|          |     |     |     |     |     |     |
|----------|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| 7. $p_i$ | 0.5 | 0.1 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.4 |
|----------|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|

|          |           |      |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
|----------|-----------|------|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| 8. $p_i$ | $(2-i)^2$ | $10$ | $1$ | $1$ | $0$ | $1$ | $1$ | $1$ | $1$ |
|----------|-----------|------|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|

In Problems 9–16, a PDF for a continuous random variable  $X$  is given. Use the PDF to find (a)  $P(X \geq 2)$ , (b)  $E(X)$ , and (c) the CDF.

$$9. f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} - \frac{x}{2} & 0 \leq x \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$10. f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{20} & 0 \leq x \leq 20 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$11. f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} e^{-x/2} & 0 \leq x \leq 10 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$12. f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{20} e^{-x/20} & 0 \leq x \leq 20 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$13. f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{4} e^{-x/4} & 0 \leq x \leq 4 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$14. f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} e^{-x/2} & 0 \leq x \leq 2 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$15. f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} e^{-x/2} & 0 \leq x \leq 2 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$16. f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} e^{-x/2} & 0 \leq x \leq 2 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$17. f(x) = \begin{cases} kx & \text{if } 0 \leq x \leq 4 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$18. f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{31}{24}x^{-3} & \text{if } 1 \leq x \leq 9 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

19. Prove the three properties of the CDF in Theorem A.

20. A continuous random variable  $X$  is said to have a **uniform distribution** on the interval  $[a, b]$  if the PDF has the form

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a} & \text{if } a \leq x \leq b \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- Find the probability that the value of  $X$  is closer to  $a$  than it is to  $b$ .
- Find the expected value of  $X$ .
- Find the CDF of  $X$ .

21. The **median** of a continuous random variable  $X$  is a value  $x_0$  such that  $P(X \leq x_0) = 0.5$ . Find the median of a uniform random variable on the interval  $[a, b]$ .

22. Without doing any integration, find the median of the random variable that has PDF  $f(x) = \frac{1}{4}(4-x)^2$ ,  $0 \leq x \leq 4$ . *Hint:* Use symmetry.

23. Find the value of  $k$  that makes  $f(x) = kx^5$ ,  $0 \leq x \leq 9$  a valid PDF. *Hint:* The PDF must integrate to 1.

24. Find the value of  $k$  that makes  $f(x) = kx^2(5-x)^2$ ,  $0 \leq x \leq 5$  a valid PDF.

25. The time in minutes that it takes a worker to complete a task is a random variable with PDF  $f(x) = k(2-x)^2$ ,  $0 \leq x \leq 4$ .

- Find the value of  $k$  that makes this a valid PDF.
- What is the probability that it takes more than 3 minutes to complete the task?
- Find the expected value of the time to complete the task.
- Find the CDF  $F(x)$ .
- Let  $Y$  denote the time in seconds required to complete the task. What is the CDF of  $Y$ ? *Hint:*  $P(Y \leq y) = P(60X \leq y)$ .

26. The daily summer air quality index (AQI) in St. Louis is a random variable whose PDF is  $f(x) = kx^2(180-x)$ ,  $0 \leq x \leq 90$ .

- Find the value of  $k$  that makes this a valid PDF.
- A day is an "orange alert" day if the AQI is between 100 and 50. What is the probability that a summer day is an orange alert day?
- Find the expected value of the summer AQI.

**CAS** 27. Holes drilled by a machine have a diameter measured in millimeters, that is a random variable with PDF  $f(x) = kx^9(0.6-x)^8$ ,  $0 \leq x \leq 0.6$ .

- Find the value of  $k$  that makes this a valid PDF.
- Specifications require that the hole's diameter be between 0.35 and 0.45 mm. Those units not meeting this requirement are scrapped. What is the probability that a unit is scrapped?
- Find the expected value of the hole's diameter.
- Find the CDF  $F(x)$ .
- Let  $Y$  denote the hole's diameter in inches. (1 inch = 25.4 mm.) What is the CDF of  $Y$ ?

**CAS** 28. A company monitors the total impurities in incoming batches of chemicals. The PDF for total impurity  $X$  in a batch, measured in parts per million (PPM), has PDF  $f(x) = kx^2(200-x)^3$ ,  $0 \leq x \leq 200$ .

- Find the value of  $k$  that makes this a valid PDF.
- The company does not accept batches whose total impurity is 50 or above. What is the probability that a batch is not accepted?
- Find the expected value of the total impurity in PPM.
- Find the CDF  $F(x)$ .
- Let  $Y$  denote the total impurity in percent, rather than in PPM. What is the CDF of  $Y$ ?

29. Suppose that  $X$  is a random variable that has a uniform distribution on the interval  $[0, 1]$ . (See Problem 20.) The point  $(-X)$  is plotted in the plane. Let  $Y$  be the distance from  $(-X)$  to the origin. Find the CDF and the PDF of the random variable  $Y$ . *Hint:* Find the CDF first.

30. Suppose that  $X$  is a continuous random variable. Explain why  $P(X = x) = 0$ . Which of the following probabilities are the same? Explain.

$$P(a < X < b), \quad P(a \leq X \leq b), \\ P(a < X \leq b), \quad P(a \leq X < b)$$

31. Show that if  $A^c$  is the complement of  $A$ , that is, the set of all outcomes in the sample space  $S$  that are not in  $A$ , then  $P(A^c) = 1 - P(A)$ .

32. Use the result in Problem 31 to find  $P(X \neq 1)$  in Problems 2 and 5.

33. If  $X$  is a discrete random variable then the CDF is a step function. By considering values of  $x$  less than zero, between 0 and 1, etc., find and graph the CDF for the random variable  $X$  in Problem 1.

34. Find and graph the CDF of the random variable  $X$  in Problem 2.

35. Suppose a random variable  $Y$  has CDF

$$F(y) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } y < 0 \\ 2y/(y+1), & \text{if } 0 \leq y \leq 1 \\ 1, & \text{if } y > 1 \end{cases}$$

Find each of the following.

- $P(Y < 2)$
- $P(0.5 < Y < 0.6)$
- the PDF of  $Y$
- Use the Parabolic Rule with  $n = 8$  to approximate  $E(Y)$ .

36. Suppose a random variable  $Z$  has CDF

$$F(z) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } z < 0 \\ z^2/9, & \text{if } 0 \leq z \leq 3 \\ 1, & \text{if } z > 3 \end{cases}$$

Find each of the following:

- $P(Z > 1)$
- $P(1 < Z < 2)$
- the PDF of  $Z$
- $E(Z)$

**[CAS] 37.** The expected value of a function  $g(X)$  of a continuous random variable  $X$  having PDF  $f(x)$  is defined to be  $E[g(X)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x)f(x)dx$ . If the PDF of  $X$  is  $f(x) = \frac{1}{12}x^2(4-x)^2$ ,  $0 \leq x \leq 4$ , find  $E(X)$  and  $E(X^2)$ .

**[CAS] 38.** A continuous random variable  $X$  has PDF  $f(x) = \frac{1}{12}x^2(4-x)^2$ ,  $0 \leq x \leq 4$ . Find  $E(X)$  and  $E(X^2)$ .

**[CAS] 39.** The variance of a continuous random variable, denoted  $V(X)$  or  $\sigma^2$ , is defined to be  $V(X) = E[(X - \mu)^2]$ , where  $\mu$  is

the expected value, or mean, of the random variable  $X$ . Find the variance  $\sigma$  of the random variable in Problem 37.

**[CAS] 40.** Find the variance of the random variable in Problem 38.

**41.** Show that the variance of a random variable is equal to  $E(X^2) - \mu^2$  and use this result to find the variance of the random variable in Problem 37.

4. **area**; 5. **volume**; 6. **centroid**; 7. **discrete**; 8. **torus**; 9. **volume**; 10. **integral**; 11.  $\int_a^b f(x)dx$ ; 12. **cumulative distribution function**

## 5.8 Chapter Review

### Concepts and Vocabulary

Work with your group to work on each of the following statements. Be prepared to justify your answer.

1. The area of the region bounded by  $y = \cos x$ ,  $y = 0$ ,  $x = 0$ , and  $x = \pi$  is  $\pi - \cos \pi$ .

2. The area of a circle is  $\pi \times (\text{radius})^2 = \pi \times (\text{radius})^2 \times \pi$ .

3. The area of the region bounded by  $y = f(x)$ ,  $y = g(x)$ ,  $x = a$ , and  $x = b$  is  $\int_a^b (f(x) - g(x))dx$ .

4. All right cylinders whose bases have the same area and whose heights are the same have identical volumes.

5. If two solids with bases in the same plane have cross-sections of the same area in all planes parallel to their bases, then they have the same volume.

6. If the radius of the base of a cone is doubled while the height is halved, the volume will remain the same.

7. To calculate the volume of the solid obtained by revolving the region bounded by  $y = x^2$ ,  $x = 0$ , and  $y = 0$  about the  $y$ -axis, one should use the method of washers in preference to the method of shells.

8. The solids obtained by revolving the regions of Problem 7 about  $x = 0$  and  $x = 1$  have the same volume.

9. Any antitouch curve in the plane that lies entirely within the unit circle will have finite length.

10. The work required to stretch a spring 2 inches beyond its natural length is twice that required to stretch it 1 inch (assume Hooke's Law).

11. It will require the same amount of work to empty a cone-shaped tank and a cylindrical tank of water by pumping it out the top if both tanks have the same height and volume.

12. A boat contains circular weights of radius 6 inches that are below the surface of the water. The force exerted by the water on a weight is the same regardless of the depth.

13. If  $\vec{x}$  is the center of mass of a system of masses  $m_1, m_2, \dots, m_n$  distributed along a line at points with coordinates  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  respectively, then  $\sum_{i=1}^n x_i m_i = 0$ .

14. The centroid of the region bounded by  $y = \cos x$ ,  $y = 0$ , and  $x = 2\pi$  is  $(\pi, 0)$ .

15. According to Pappus's Theorem, the volume of the solid obtained by revolving the region (of area 2) bounded by  $y = \sin x$ ,  $y = 0$ ,  $x = 0$ , and  $x = \pi$  about the  $y$ -axis is  $2\pi \times 2 = 4\pi$ .

16. The area of the region bounded by  $y = x^2$ ,  $x = 0$ , and  $x = 1$  is  $\frac{1}{3}$ .

17. If the density of a wire is proportional to the square of the distance from its base, then its center of mass is at  $\frac{1}{3}$  of its midpoint.

18. The centroid of a triangle with base on the  $x$ -axis has  $x$ -coordinate equal to one-third the altitude of the triangle.

19. A  $1 \times 2$  rectangle with one corner at the origin has its centroid at  $(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{2}{3})$ .

20. Consider a wire with density  $\delta(x) = x$  on  $[0, 1]$  and a uniform density with PDF  $f(x) = 0 \leq x \leq 1$ . If  $\bar{x} = \int_0^1 x f(x)dx$  for all  $x$  in  $[0, 1]$ , then the center of mass of the wire will equal the expected value of the random variable.

21. A random variable that takes on the value 5 with probability one will have expectation equal to 5.

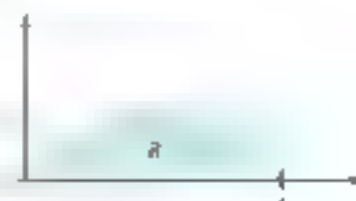
22. If  $F(x)$  is the CDF of a continuous random variable  $X$ , then  $F'(x)$  is equal to the PDF  $f(x)$ .

23. If  $X$  is a continuous random variable, then  $F(x) = 1$ .

### Sample Test Problems

Problems 1–4 refer to the plane region  $R$  bounded by the curve  $y = 2 - x^2$  and the  $x$ -axis. (Figure 1)

1. Find the area of  $R$ .

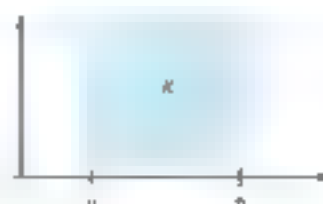


2. Find the volume of the solid  $S_1$  generated by revolving the region  $R$  about the  $x$ -axis.
3. Use the shell method to find the volume of the solid  $S_2$  generated by revolving  $R$  about the  $y$ -axis.
4. Find the volume of the solid  $S_3$  generated by revolving  $R$  about the line
5. Find the volume of the solid  $S_4$  generated by revolving  $R$  about the line
6. Find the coordinates of the centroid of  $R$ .
7. Use Pappus's Theorem and Problems 1 and 6 to find the volumes of the solids  $S_1$ ,  $S_2$ ,  $S_3$ , and  $S_4$  above.
8. The natural length of a certain spring is 16 inches, and a force of 8 pounds is required to keep it stretched 8 inches. Find the work done in each case.
  - (a) Stretching it from a length of 16 inches to a length of 24 inches.
  - (b) Compressing it from its natural length to a length of 12 inches.
9. An upright cylindrical tank is 10 feet in diameter and 40 feet high. If water in the tank is 6 feet deep, how much work is done in pumping all the water over the top edge of the tank?
10. An object weighing 700 pounds is suspended from the top of a building by a uniform cable. If the cable is 100 feet long and weighs 120 pounds, how much work is done in pulling the object and the cable to the top?
11. A region  $R$  is bounded by the line  $y = 4x$  and the parabola  $y = x^2$ . Find the area of  $R$  by
  - (a) taking  $x$  as the integration variable and
  - (b) taking  $y$  as the integration variable.
12. Find the centroid of  $R$  in Problem 11.
13. Find the volume of the solid of revolution generated by revolving the region  $R$  of Problem 11 about the  $x$ -axis. Check by using Pappus's Theorem.
14. Find the total force exerted by the water in a right circular cylinder with height 3 feet and radius 4 feet.
  - (a) on its lateral surface, and
  - (b) on its bottom surface.
15. Find the length of the arc of the curve  $y = x^3 + 1/(4x)$  from  $x = 1$  to
16. Sketch the graph of the parametric equations
 
$$\begin{cases} x = 1 - t^2 \\ y = 2t - t^3 \end{cases}$$

Then find the length of the loop of the resulting curve.

17. A solid with the semicircular base bounded by  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$  and  $z$  has cross sections perpendicular to the  $x$ -axis that are ellipses. Find the volume of this solid.

For Problems 18–24, write an expression involving integrals that represent the volume of the solid  $R$  in the figure.



$$18. \text{ } R = \{(x, y) \mid \dots\}$$

19. The volume of the solid obtained when  $R$  is revolved about the  $x$ -axis.
20. The volume of the solid obtained when  $R$  is revolved about  $x = 2$ .
21. The moments  $M_x$  and  $M_y$  of a homogeneous lamina with shape  $R$  assuming that its density is 1.
22. The total length of the boundary of  $R$ .
23. The total surface area of the solid of Problem 19.
24. Let  $X$  be a continuous random variable with PDF

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} - \frac{x}{2} & \text{if } 0 \leq x \leq 2 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- (a) Find  $P(X \leq 1)$ .
- (b) Find the probability that  $X$  is closer to 0 than it is to 1.
- (c) Find  $E(X)$ .
- (d) Find the CDF of  $X$ .

25. A continuous random variable  $X$  has PDF

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x < 0 \\ (6 - x)^2 & \text{if } 0 \leq x \leq 6 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- (a) Find  $P(X = 3)$ .
- (b) Find the PDF  $f(x)$ .
- (c) Find  $E(X)$ .

# REVIEW & PREVIEW PROBLEMS

Find the antiderivative that has the given value.

1.  $\int_0^1 x^2 dx = 1$

2.  $\int_0^1 x^2 dx = 2$

3.  $\int_0^1 x^2 dx = 0$

4.  $\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^2} dx = 0$

For Problems 5–8, let  $F(x) = \int_0^x \frac{1}{t^2} dt$  and find the following.

5.  $F(1)$

6.  $F^*(x_2)$

7.  $D_x F$

8.  $D_x F$

In Problems 9–12, evaluate the expression as in the given context.

9.  $\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^2} dx$  when  $x = 10$

10.  $\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^2} dx$  when  $x = 1000$

11.  $\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^2} dx$  when  $x = 10,000,000$

12.  $\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^2} dx$  when  $x = 10,000,000,000$

In Problems 13–16, find all solutions that have the given value when  $x = 0$ .

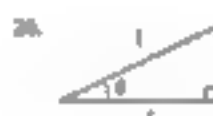
13.  $y = x$

14.  $y = x$

15.  $y = x$

16.  $y = x$

For the triangles shown in Problems 17–20, find all of the following in terms of  $x$ :  $\sin \theta$ ,  $\cos \theta$ ,  $\tan \theta$ ,  $\cot \theta$ ,  $\sec \theta$  and  $\csc \theta$ .



In Problems 21–22, solve the differential equation subject to the given condition.

21.  $y' = x^2$  when  $x = 0$

22.  $y' = x^2$  when  $x = 0$

- 6.1 The Natural Logarithm Function
- 6.2 Inverse Functions and Their Derivatives
- 6.3 The Natural Exponential Function
- 6.4 General Exponential and Logarithmic Functions
- 6.5 Exponential Growth and Decay
- 6.6 First-Order Linear Differential Equations
- 6.7 Approximations for Differential Equations
- 6.8 The Inverse Trigonometric Functions and Their Derivatives
- 6.9 The Hyperbolic Functions and Their Inverses

## 6.1

## The Natural Logarithm Function

The power of calculus, both that of derivative and that of integral, has already been amply demonstrated. As we have seen, it describes the surface of many applications. The deeper we need to expand the class of functions with which we can work. That is the object of this chapter.

We begin by asking you to notice a peculiar gap in our knowledge of derivatives.

$$D_1\left(\frac{x^2}{2}\right) = x^1, D_1(x^3) = x^2, D_1(x^n) = x^{n-1}, D_1\left(x^{-1}\right) = -x^{-2}, \dots$$

Is there a function whose derivative is  $\frac{1}{x}$ ? In other words, is there an antiderivative of  $\frac{1}{x}$ ? The first fundamental theorem of calculus has been of little use in this case.

$$F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$$

is a function whose derivative is  $f(x)$ , provided that  $f$  is continuous on an interval  $I$  that contains  $a$  and  $x$ . In this case we do find an antiderivative if  $f$  is continuous function. The converse is not true.  $\frac{1}{x}$  does not mean that the antiderivative can be expressed in terms of functions that we have already studied. In this chapter we will introduce and study a number of new functions.

Our first new function is chosen to fill the gap noticed above. We call the **natural logarithm function**, and it does not satisfy the conditions which require a unique value for  $f(x)$ , at least if we require  $f(1) = 0$ . If you are going to be fast, you are going to define a new function with the same properties.

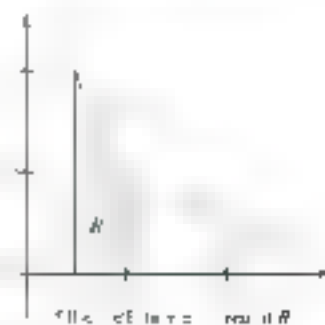
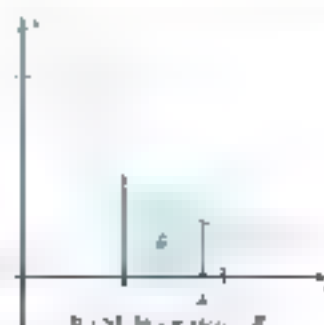
**Definition**

The **natural logarithm function**, denoted by  $\ln$ , is defined by

$$\ln x = \int_1^x \frac{1}{t} dt.$$

The domain of the natural logarithm function is the set of positive real numbers.

The diagrams in Figure 6.1 illustrate the geometric interpretation of  $\ln x$ . The natural logarithm of a natural base function measures the area under the curve between 1 and  $x$  if  $x > 1$  and the negative of the area if  $0 < x < 1$ . The natural logarithm as an accumulation function is the area of accumulation from 1 to  $x$  if  $x > 1$ .





$y = 1/t$ . Clearly,  $\ln x$  is well defined for  $x > 0$ ;  $\ln x$  is not defined for  $x < 0$  because this definite integral does not exist over an interval that includes 0.

And what is the derivative of this new function? Just exactly what we want:

**THEOREM 5.1.1** Let  $f(x) = \int_1^x \frac{1}{t} dt$ . Then  $f'(x) = \frac{1}{x}$ . From the First Fundamental Theorem of Calculus we have

$$D_x \int_1^x \frac{1}{t} dt = D_x \ln x = \frac{1}{x} \quad (x > 0)$$

This can be combined with the Chain Rule. If  $u = f(x) > 0$  and if  $f$  is differentiable, then

$$D_x \ln u = \frac{1}{u} D_x u.$$

**EXAMPLE 1** Find  $D_x \ln \sqrt{x}$ .

**SOLUTION** Let  $u = \sqrt{x} = x^{1/2}$ . Then

$$D_x \ln \sqrt{x} = \frac{1}{x^{1/2}} \cdot D_x (x^{1/2}) = \frac{1}{x^{1/2}} \cdot \frac{1}{2} x^{-1/2} = \frac{1}{2x}.$$

**EXAMPLE 2** Find  $D_x \ln(x^2 - x - 2)$ .

**SOLUTION** This problem makes sense provided the argument of  $\ln$  is positive. Now  $x^2 - x - 2 = (x - 2)(x + 1)$ , which is positive provided that  $x < -1$  or  $x > 2$ . Thus, the domain of  $\ln(x^2 - x - 2)$  is  $(-\infty, -1) \cup (2, \infty)$ . On this domain

$$D_x \ln(x^2 - x - 2) = \frac{1}{x^2 - x - 2} \cdot \frac{d}{dx}(x^2 - x - 2) = \frac{2x - 1}{x^2 - x - 2}.$$

**EXAMPLE 3** Show that

$$D_x \ln|x| = \frac{1}{x} \quad (x \neq 0).$$

**SOLUTION** Two cases are to be considered. If  $x > 0$ ,  $|x| = x$ , and

$$D_x \ln|x| = D_x \ln x = \frac{1}{x}.$$

If  $x < 0$ ,  $|x| = -x$  and so

$$D_x \ln|x| = D_x \ln(-x) = \frac{1}{-x} \cdot D_x(-x) = \left(\frac{1}{-x}\right)(-1) = \frac{1}{x}.$$

We know that for any differentiable function  $f$  there is a corresponding integration formula. Thus, Example 3 implies that

$$\int \frac{1}{x} dx = \ln|x| + C \quad (x \neq 0)$$

or with  $u$  replacing  $x$

$$\int \frac{1}{u} du = \ln|u| + C \quad (u \neq 0).$$

This fills the long-standing gap in the Power Rule  $\frac{d}{dx} u^r = r u^{r-1}$  from which we had to exclude the exponent  $r = 0$ .

**EXAMPLE 4** Find  $\int \frac{5}{x^2 + 7} dx$ .

**SOLUTION** Let  $u = x^2 + 7$  so  $du = 2 dx$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned}\int \frac{5}{x^2 + 7} dx &= \frac{5}{2} \int \frac{2}{x^2 + 7} dx = \frac{5}{2} \int \frac{1}{u} du \\ &= \frac{5}{2} \ln |u| + C = \frac{5}{2} \ln |x^2 + 7| + C.\end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 5** Evaluate  $\int_1^3 \frac{1}{10 - x} dx$ .

**SOLUTION** Let  $u = 10 - x$  so  $du = -dx$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned}\int_1^3 \frac{1}{10 - x} dx &= - \int_{10-1}^{10-3} \frac{1}{u} du = - \int_9^7 \frac{1}{u} du \\ &= \int_7^9 \frac{1}{u} du = \ln |u| \Big|_7^9 = \ln 9 - \ln 7.\end{aligned}$$

Thus, by the Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus,

$$\int_1^3 \frac{1}{10 - x} dx = \left[ \ln |10 - x| \right]_1^3 = \ln |10 - 3| - \ln |10 - 1| = \ln 7 - \ln 9 = \ln \frac{7}{9}.$$

For the above calculation to be valid,  $10 - x$  must never be 0 on the interval  $[1, 3]$ . It is easy to see that this is true.

When we integrate the quotient of two polynomials,  $P(x)$  is a polynomial function and  $Q(x)$  is a polynomial function, we always divide the denominator into the numerator first.

**EXAMPLE 6** Find  $\int \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx$ .

**SOLUTION** Its long division (Figure 2)

$$\begin{array}{r} x^2 + 1 \overline{) 1} \\ \underline{x^2} \phantom{+ 1} \\ 1 \phantom{+ 1} \\ \underline{1} \\ 0 \end{array}$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned}\int \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx &= \int \left( \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} - \frac{x^2}{x^2 + 1} + \frac{x^2}{x^2 + 1} \right) dx \\ &= \int \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx - \int \frac{x^2}{x^2 + 1} dx \\ &= \int \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx - \int \left( 1 - \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} \right) dx \\ &= \int \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx - \int 1 dx + \int \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx \\ &= 2 \int \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx - x + C.\end{aligned}$$

In the next theorem, we give the next theorem the very important properties of the natural log function.

### THEOREM 1

If  $a$  and  $b$  are positive numbers and  $r$  is any rational number, then

- |   |                                 |
|---|---------------------------------|
| (i) $\ln 1 = 0$ ;                         | (ii) $\ln ab = \ln a + \ln b$ ; |
| (iii) $\ln \frac{a}{b} = \ln a - \ln b$ ; | (iv) $\ln a^r = r \ln a$ .      |

Properties (i) and (ii) of common logarithms (base 10 logarithms) were often motivated by the discovery of logarithms (John Napier, 1550).

As I wanted to simplify the complicated calculations for science, astronomy and navigation. To replace multiplication by addition and division by subtraction was his goal—exactly what (i) and (ii) accomplish. For over 350 years, common logarithms were an essential aid in computation, but today we use calculators and computers for this purpose. However, natural logarithms (when the base of  $e$  is used) remain as useful as ever.

**Proof**

$$(i) \quad \ln x = \int_1^x \frac{1}{t} dt = x$$

(ii) Since  $\ln 1 = 0$ ,

$$D_x \ln ax = \frac{1}{ax} \cdot a = \frac{1}{x}$$

and

$$D_x \ln x = \frac{1}{x}$$

it follows from the theorem about two functions with the same derivative (Theorem 3.6B) that

$$\ln ax = \ln x + C$$

To determine  $C$ , let  $x = 1$ , obtaining  $\ln a = C$ . Thus,

$$\ln ax = \ln x + \ln a$$

Finally, let  $a = 1/x$ .

(iii) Replace  $a$  by  $1/b$  in (ii) to obtain

$$\ln \frac{1}{b} = \ln x + \ln \left( \frac{1}{b} \right) = \ln x - \ln b$$

Thus,

$$\ln \frac{1}{b} = \ln b$$

Apply (ii) to  $x = 1/b$  to get (i), so we have

$$\ln \frac{1}{b} = \ln \left( x + \frac{1}{b} \right) = \ln x + \ln \frac{1}{b} \quad \ln \frac{1}{b} = \ln x + \ln \frac{1}{b} + 0$$

(iv) Solve for  $x = 1$ :

$$D_x (\ln x + \ln x) = \frac{1}{x} + \frac{1}{x}$$

and

$$D_x (\ln x + \ln x) = \frac{2}{x}$$

It follows by Theorem 3.6B, which we used in (ii), that

$$\ln x + \ln x = 2 \ln x$$

Let  $x = 1$ , which gives  $C = 0$ . Thus,

$$\ln x^2 = 2 \ln x$$

Finally, let  $x = a$ . ■

**EXAMPLE 7** Find  $dy/dx$  if  $y = \ln \sqrt{x^2 - 1}$ ,  $x^2 - 1 \geq 1$ .

**SOLUTION** Our task is easier if we first use the properties of natural logarithms to simplify

$$y = \ln \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 - 1}} \right) = \frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{1}{x^2 - 1}$$

$$\left[ \frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{1}{x^2 - 1} = \frac{1}{2} \ln (x^2 - 1)^{-1} \right] = \frac{1}{2} \ln (x^2 - 1)^{-1/2}$$

Thus,

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{x} \quad \frac{y}{x} = \frac{y}{x} \cdot \frac{1}{x}$$

Let  $y = u(x) \cdot v(x) \cdot w(x)$ . The order of differentiation exercises involving quotients, products or powers can often be substantially reduced by first applying the natural logarithm function and using its properties. This method, called **logarithmic differentiation**, is illustrated in Example 8.

**EXAMPLE 8** Differentiate  $y = \frac{\sqrt{x+1}}{(x-1)^3}$ .

**SOLUTION** First, we take natural logarithms. Then we differentiate implicitly with respect to  $x$  (recall Section 2.3):

$$\ln y = \frac{1}{2} \ln(x+1) - \frac{3}{1} \ln(x-1)$$

$$\frac{1}{y} \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{x+1} - \frac{3}{1} \frac{1}{x-1} = \frac{1}{2(x+1)} - \frac{3}{x-1}$$

Thus

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{x-1}{2(x+1)} - \frac{3y}{x-1} = \frac{x-1}{2(x+1)} - \frac{3\sqrt{x+1}}{(x-1)^2}$$

Example 8 could have been done directly with the quotient rule, but as the problems become more difficult, you should find it helpful to make the technique appear.

Let  $y = f(x) = \ln x$ . The domain of  $f$  is  $(0, \infty)$ . The domain of  $f$  is a complex number when  $x$  is a positive real number, so the graph of  $f$  is in the  $xy$ -plane. Also for  $x > 0$ ,

$$f'(x) = \frac{1}{x}$$

and

$$f'(x) = \frac{1}{x}$$

The first formula shows that the equation  $y = \ln x$  can be rearranged to  $y = \ln x$  as  $x$  increases the natural logarithm function increases while the second formula shows that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \ln x = \infty$$

and

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \ln x = -\infty$$

Finally  $f'(x) = 0$ . These facts imply that the graph of  $y = \ln x$  is similar in shape to that shown in Figure 6.1.

It is not too difficult to find the natural logarithm of a number. For example,

$$\ln 2 \approx 0.6931$$

$$\ln 5 \approx 1.6094$$

Some trigonometric integrals can be evaluated using the natural log function.

**EXAMPLE 9** Evaluate  $\int \tan x \, dx$ .



**YOU TRY IT** Since  $\tan x = \frac{\sin x}{\cos x}$ , we can make the substitution  $u = \cos x$ ,  $du = -\sin x \, dx$  to obtain

$$\int \tan x \, dx = \int \frac{\sin x}{\cos x} \, dx = \int \frac{-du}{u} = -\ln |u| + C = -\ln |\cos x| + C$$

Similarly,  $\int \cot x \, dx = \ln |\sin x| + C$ .

**EXAMPLE 4** Evaluate  $\int \sec x \csc x \, dx$ .

**SOLUTION** For this one we use the integral results  $\int \sec x \, dx = \ln |\sec x| + C$  and  $\int \csc x \, dx = \ln |\csc x| + C$ . Then

$$\int \sec x \csc x \, dx = \int (\sec x)(\csc x) \, dx = \int (\tan x) \, dx = \ln |\tan x| + C = \ln |\sec x| + \ln |\sin x| + C$$

## Concepts Review

1. The quotient  $\ln a$  is defined only for  $a$  positive. The domain of the function  $y = \ln x$  is all positive  $x$ .
2. From the preceding, determine  $\ln 1$  and  $\ln e$ .  $\ln 1 = 0$  and  $\ln e = 1$
3. Write  $\ln 100$  as  $\ln 10^2$ .  $\ln 100 = 2 \ln 10$
4. Write  $\ln e^{100}$  as  $\ln e^{100}$ .  $\ln e^{100} = 100$
5. Write  $\ln e^{100}$  as  $\ln e^{100}$ .  $\ln e^{100} = 100$
6. Write  $\ln e^{100}$  as  $\ln e^{100}$ .  $\ln e^{100} = 100$

## Problem Set 6.1

1. Use the approximations  $\ln 2 \approx 0.693$  and  $\ln 3 \approx 1.099$  together with the properties stated in Theorem 4 to calculate approximations to each of the following. For example,  $\ln 6 = \ln 2 + \ln 3 \approx 0.693 + 1.099 \approx 1.792$ .

- (a)  $\ln 6$
- (b)  $\ln 1.5$
- (c)  $\ln 8$
- (d)  $\ln \sqrt{2}$
- (e)  $\ln \frac{1}{10}$
- (f)  $\ln 40$

2. Use your calculator to make the computations in Problems 3–6, accurate to four decimal places.

In Problems 3–6, find the indicated derivative (see Examples 1 and 2). Assume in each case that  $x$  is restricted so that  $\ln x$  is defined.

3.  $\frac{d}{dx} \ln(x^2 + 3x + \pi)$
4.  $\frac{d}{dx} \ln(x^2 + 2x)$
5.  $\frac{d}{dx} \ln \frac{1}{x}$
6.  $\frac{d}{dx} \ln \frac{1}{x^2}$
7.  $\frac{d}{dy} \ln y = 3 \ln x$
8.  $\frac{dy}{dx} \ln y = x^2 \ln x$
9.  $\frac{d}{dx} \ln x^2 = x^2 \ln x^2 = 4 \ln x$
10.  $\frac{d}{dx} \ln \frac{1}{x} = \frac{1}{x} \ln \frac{1}{x} = \frac{1}{x} (-\ln x)$
11.  $g'(x)$  if  $g(x) = \ln(x^2 + 1)$
12.  $h'(x)$  if  $h(x) = \ln(x + \sqrt{x^2 - 1})$
13.  $f'(x)$  if  $f(x) = \ln \sqrt[3]{x}$
14.  $\frac{d}{dx} \ln \frac{1}{x} = \frac{1}{x} \ln \frac{1}{x} = \frac{1}{x} (-\ln x)$

In Problems 15–26, find the integrals (see Examples 4, 5, and 6).

15.  $\int \frac{1}{x} \, dx$
16.  $\int \frac{1}{x^2} \, dx$

$$17. \int \frac{\ln x + 1}{x^2 + 1} \, dx$$

$$18. \int \frac{x^2}{x^2 + 1} \, dx$$

$$19. \int \frac{x^2}{x^2 + 1} \, dx$$

$$20. \int \frac{x^2}{x^2 + 1} \, dx$$

$$21. \int \frac{x^2}{x^2 + 1} \, dx$$

$$22. \int \frac{x^2}{x^2 + 1} \, dx$$

$$23. \int \frac{x^2}{x^2 + 1} \, dx$$

$$24. \int \frac{x^2}{x^2 + 1} \, dx$$

$$25. \int \frac{x^2}{x^2 + 1} \, dx$$

$$26. \int \frac{x^2}{x^2 + 1} \, dx$$

$$27. \int \frac{x^2}{x^2 + 1} \, dx$$

$$28. \int \frac{x^2}{x^2 + 1} \, dx$$

$$29. \int \frac{x^2}{x^2 + 1} \, dx$$

$$30. \int \frac{x^2}{x^2 + 1} \, dx$$

$$31. \int \frac{x^2}{x^2 + 1} \, dx$$

$$32. \int \frac{x^2}{x^2 + 1} \, dx$$

In Problems 33–36, use the properties of logarithms to write the expression as the logarithm of a single quantity.

33.  $2 \ln(x + 1) - \ln x$
34.  $\frac{1}{2} \ln x - \ln 2 + \frac{1}{3} \ln x$
35.  $\ln(x + 2) - \ln(x - 2) = 2 \ln x$
36.  $\ln(x^2 + 3) - 3 \ln(x + 3) = \ln(x + 3)$

In Problems 37–44, find  $A$  and  $B$  by logarithmic differentiation (see Examples 7 and 8).

37.  $y = \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$
38.  $y = \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$
39.  $y = \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$
40.  $y = \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$
41.  $y = \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$
42.  $y = \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$
43.  $y = \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$
44.  $y = \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

In Problems 35–38, make use of the known graph of  $y = \ln x$  to sketch the graphs of the equations.

35.  $y = \ln(-x)$

36.  $y = \ln(-x)$

37.  $y = \ln\left(\frac{1}{x}\right)$

38.  $y = \ln(-x)$

39. Sketch the graph of  $y = \ln(x)$  on  $x$ -axis. In set  $S = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid \pi/2 < x < \pi\}$  but think before you begin.

40. Explain why  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \ln(x) = -\infty$ .

41. Find all local extreme values of  $f(x) = \ln(x)$  on its domain.

42. The rate of transmission in a telegraph cable is observed to be proportional to  $x/(1+x)$ , where  $x$  is the ratio of the radius of the core to the thickness of the insulation ( $0 < x < 1$ ). What value of  $x$  gives the maximum rate of transmission?

43. Use the fact that  $\ln(x) > 1/x$  to show that  $\ln(x) > 1/x$  for  $x > 1$ . Conclude that  $\ln(x)$  can be made as large as desired by choosing  $x$  sufficiently large. What does this imply about  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \ln(x)$ ?

44. Use the fact that  $\ln(x) = -\ln(1/x)$ ,  $x > 0$ , and Problem 43 to show that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \ln(x) = -\infty$ .

45. Solve for  $x$ :  $\ln(x) = \ln(1/x)$ .

46. Prove the following statements:

(a) Since  $\ln(x) < \sqrt{x}$  for  $x > 1$ ,  $\ln(x) < 2(\sqrt{x} - 1)$  for  $x > 1$ .

47. Evaluate

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \ln(x)$$

by writing the expression in brackets as

$$\frac{\ln(x)}{1/x} = \frac{\ln(x)}{1/x} \cdot \frac{1}{1/x} = \frac{\ln(x)}{1/x} \cdot \frac{1}{1/x}$$

and applying the limit as a limit with

48. A famous theorem (the Prime Number Theorem) says that the number of primes less than a large  $x$  is approximately  $x/\ln(x)$ . About how many primes are there less than 1,000,000?

49. Find and simplify  $f'(x)$ :

(a)  $f(x) = \ln\left(\frac{ax+b}{cx+d}\right)$  where  $c \neq 0$

(b)  $f(x) = \ln\left(\frac{ax+b}{cx+d}\right)$  where  $c \neq 0$

50. Evaluate  $\int_0^{\pi/2} \tan(x) dx$

51. Evaluate  $\int_0^{\pi/2} \sec(x) dx$

52. Evaluate  $\int_0^{\pi/2} \frac{\cos(x)}{\sin(x)} dx$

53. The region bounded by  $y = 4 - x^2$  and  $y = x^2$  is revolved about the  $y$ -axis. Find its volume.

54. Find the length of the curve  $y = \ln(x)$  from  $x = 1$  to  $x = e$ .

55. By applying the graph of  $y = \ln(x)$  show that

$$\frac{1}{n} = \ln(e) = \ln\left(\frac{e}{1}\right) = \ln(e) - \ln(1)$$

56. Prove Napier's Inequality, which says that, for  $x > 0$ ,  $\ln(1+x) > x/(1+x)$ .

57. Let  $f(x) = \ln(1+x)$ .

(a) Find the absolute extreme points on  $[0, 1]$ .

(b) Find any inflection points on  $[0, 1]$ .

(c) Evaluate  $\int_0^1 \ln(1+x) dx$ .

58. Let  $f(x) = \cos(\ln(x))$ .

(a) Find the absolute extreme points on  $[0, 1]$ .

(b) Find the absolute extreme points on  $[0, 1]$ .

(c) Evaluate  $\int_0^1 \cos(\ln(x)) dx$ .

59. Draw the graphs of  $f(x) = \ln(x)$  and  $g(x) = x^2 \ln(x)$  on  $(0, 1)$ .

(a) Find the area of the region between these curves on  $(0, 1)$ .

(b) Find the absolute maximum values of  $f(x)$  and  $g(x)$  on  $(0, 1)$ .

60. Follow the directions of Problem 59 for  $f(x) = x \ln(x)$  and  $g(x) = x^2 \ln(x)$ .

Answers to Even-Numbered Problems: 2.  $\int_0^1 \ln(x) dx = -1$

3.  $\ln(2)$  4.  $\ln(2)$  5.  $\ln(2)$  6.  $\ln(2)$  7.  $\ln(2)$

8.  $\ln(2)$  9.  $\ln(2)$

## Inverse Functions and Their Derivatives

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There is a problem for this chapter to expand the number of functions that we represent. One way to make better new functions is to take old ones and combine them. While we do this, let's start by asking: if we have a function, we will be led to the natural exponential function. In Section 6.1, this section we study the general problem of reversing (or inverting) a function. Here is the idea.

A function  $f$  takes a number  $x$  from its domain  $D$  and assigns to it a single value  $y$  from its range  $R$ . If we are lucky, as in the case of the two functions

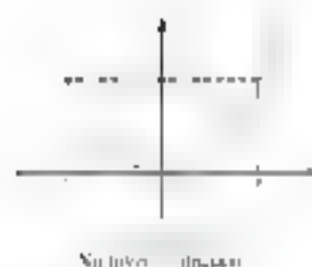
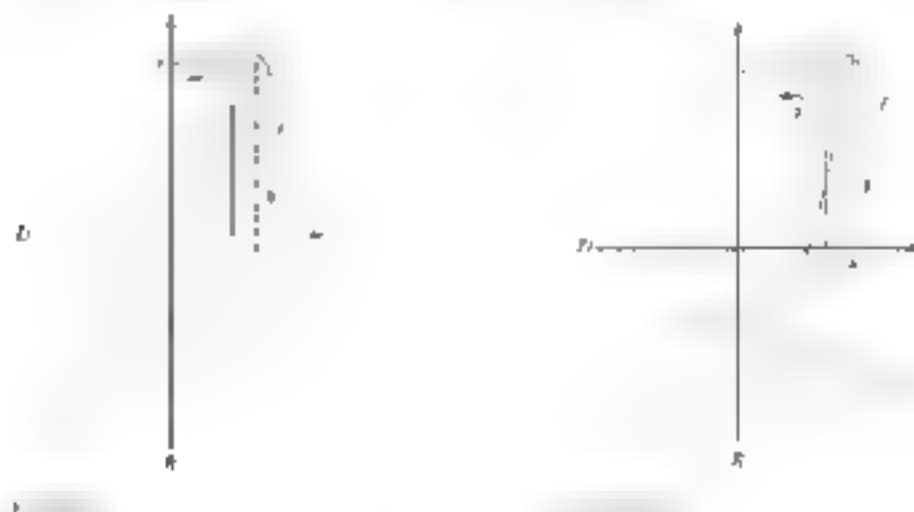
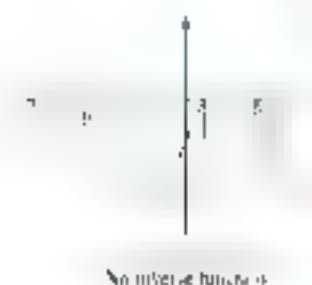
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Figure 1



1111

Sometimes, we can give a formula for  $f^{-1}$ . If  $y = f(x) = 2x$ , then  $x = f^{-1}(y) = \frac{1}{2}y$  (see Figure 1). Similarly, if  $y = f(x) = x^2 + 1$ , then  $x = f^{-1}(y) = \pm\sqrt{y-1}$  (Figure 2). In each case, we simply solve the equation  $y = f(x)$  for  $x$  in terms of  $y$ . The result is  $x = f^{-1}(y)$ .

Let  $\mathcal{P}$  be some computable class of problems. To indicate that every instance can be resolved in an algorithmic way, I consider  $p = f(x) = \neg \exists$  for example. But  $p(x) = \neg \exists y$  is a  $\forall$  and a  $\exists$  conjunction. If you take the function  $f(x) = \neg \exists y$  and it is even worse. For each  $x$  there are finitely many  $y$ 's that respond to  $f$  if you do. Each instance of  $p$  can say  $\neg \exists y$  and  $\exists y$  and  $\forall y$  and unless we somehow restrict the set of  $x$ 's over a subject we will have  $\neg \exists$  in

It would be nice to have a simple criterion for deciding whether a function is concave. One such criterion is the question of **one-to-one**ity: if  $x \neq y$  implies  $f'(x) \neq f'(y)$ , then  $f$  is concave. (The converse is also true, but that's not our business here.) This is equivalent to saying that every function  $f$  is concave if and only if it is **strictly concave**. But this is not a desirable criterion, for it is not very helpful. It demands that we have complete knowledge of the graph. A more practical criterion that covers most examples that arise in this book is that  $f$  has a **concave** or **strictly concave** monotone. But this is not a very useful criterion, for it does not say what is meant by a concave or strictly concave monotone. (See the definitions in Section

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[illegible]

**Proof** Let  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  be distinct numbers in the domain of  $f$  with  $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$ . Since  $f$  is monotonic,  $f(x_1) < f(x_2)$  or  $f(x_1) > f(x_2)$ . Either way,  $f(x_1) \neq f(x_2)$ . Thus,  $x_1 \neq x_2$  implies  $f(x_1) \neq f(x_2)$ , which means that  $f$  is one-to-one and therefore invertible.  $\square$

This is a practical result, because we have an easy way of deciding whether a differentiable function  $f$  is strictly monotonic. We simply calculate the limit of

**EXAMPLE 1** Show that  $f(x) = x^3 + 2x + 1$  has an inverse.

**SOLUTION**  $f'(x) = 3x^2 + 2 > 0$  for all  $x$ . Thus,  $f$  is increasing on the whole real line and so it has an inverse there. ■

We do not claim that we can always give a formula for  $f^{-1}$ . In the example just considered, this would require that we be able to solve  $y = x^3 + 2x + 1$  for  $x$ . Although we could use an ABS (algebraically based solver) to solve this equation for  $x$  for a particular value of  $y$ , there is no simple formula that would give us  $x$  in terms of  $y$  for all values of  $y$ .

There is a way of obtaining the notion of inverse for functions that do not have inverses on their natural domain. We simply restrict the domain to a set on which the graph is either increasing or decreasing. This is for  $f(x) = x^3 + 2x + 1$ . We must be careful to define the  $x$ -interval we would use. For  $x \in [0, \infty)$ ,  $f(x) = x^3 + 2x + 1$  is increasing on the domain of the interval  $[0, \infty)$ . Then  $f$  is strictly increasing on  $[0, \infty)$  (see Figure 5), and we can even give a formula for the first part:  $f^{-1}(y) = \sqrt[3]{y}$ .



Figure 5

If  $f$  has an inverse  $f^{-1}$ , then  $f^{-1}$  also has an inverse, namely,  $f$ . Thus, we may call  $f$  and  $f^{-1}$  a pair of inverse functions. The function  $f$  undoes what  $f^{-1}$  does, and the other did that to.

$$f^{-1}(f(x)) = x \quad \text{and} \quad f(f^{-1}(y)) = y$$

**EXAMPLE 2** Show that  $f(x) = 2x + 6$  has an inverse. Find a formula for  $f^{-1}(y)$ , and verify the results in the box above.

**SOL. (EX. 2)** Since  $f$  is an increasing function, it has an inverse. To find  $f^{-1}$ , we solve  $2x + 6 = y$  for  $x$ , which gives  $x = \frac{y-6}{2}$ . Only, now we

$$f^{-1}(y) = \frac{y-6}{2} = \frac{1}{2}y - 3$$

and

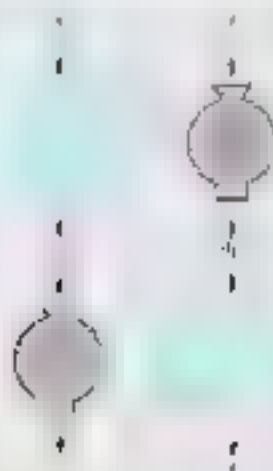
$$f(f^{-1}(y)) = f\left(\frac{y-6}{2}\right) = 2\left(\frac{y-6}{2}\right) + 6 = y$$

**The Graph of  $y = f^{-1}(x)$**  Suppose that  $f$  has an inverse. Then

$$y = f^{-1}(x) \iff x = f(y)$$

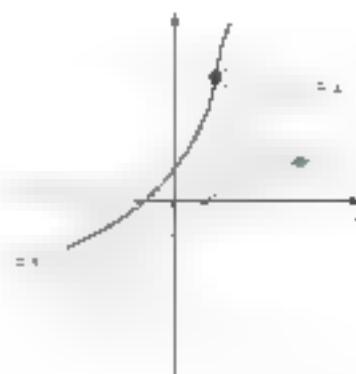
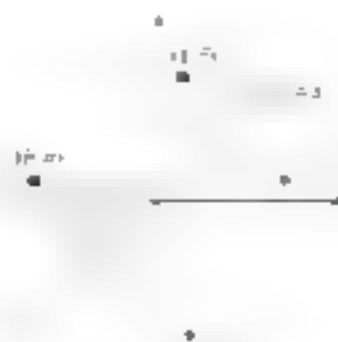
Consequently,  $y = f^{-1}(x)$  and  $x = f(y)$  determine the same  $(x, y)$  point and so have identical graphs. However, it is convenient to use  $x$  as the common variable for both axes so we now require what the graph of  $y = f^{-1}(x)$  means. We have now changed the roles of  $x$  and  $y$ . A note though, convinces us that we can change the roles of  $x$  and  $y$  on a graph is to reflect the graph across the line  $y = x$ .

We may view a function as a machine that accepts all input and produces no output. If the  $f$  machine and the  $f^{-1}$  machine are hooked together as indicated, they undo each other.





Thus the graph of  $y = f^{-1}(x)$  is just the reflection of the graph of  $y = f(x)$  across the line  $y = x$  (Figure 4).



A technical matter is that a finding a formula for  $f^{-1}$  is not always possible. In fact, we are going to find that not every function has an inverse formula. But for the purpose of finding a formula, we will use the following three-step process for finding  $f^{-1}(x)$ .

**Step 1:** Solve the equation  $y = f(x)$  for  $x$  in terms of  $y$ .

**Step 2:** Use  $f^{-1}(y)$  to name the resulting expression in  $y$ .

**Step 3:** Replace  $y$  by  $x$  to get the formula for  $f^{-1}(x)$ .

But, in using the three-step process on a nonlinear function  $f$ , you might think we should first verify that  $f$  has an inverse. However, if we can actually carry out the three-step and get a unique  $x$  for every  $y$ , then  $f^{-1}$  does exist. Note that when we solve for  $x$ ,  $y = f(x)$ , we get  $x = \pm \sqrt{y}$ , which immediately shows that  $f^{-1}$  does not exist, unless, of course, we have restricted the domain to eliminate one of the two signs,  $+$  or  $-$ .

**EXAMPLE 3** Find a formula for  $f^{-1}(x)$  if  $y = f(x) = x/(1 - x)$ .

**SOLUTION** Here are the three steps for this example.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Step 1: } y &= \frac{x}{1-x} \\ y(1-x) &= x \\ y - xy &= x \\ y &= x + xy \\ y &= x(1+y) \\ y(1+y) &= x \\ x &= \frac{y}{1+y} \\ \text{Step 2: } y &= \frac{y}{1+y} \\ \text{Step 3: } x &= \frac{y}{1+y} \end{aligned}$$

So  $f^{-1}(x) = x/(1+x)$ . We can check this result by investigating the relationship between the derivatives of a function and the derivative of its inverse. Consider first what happens to a line  $\ell$  when it is reflected across the line

$y = x$ . As the left half of Figure 7 makes clear,  $f_1$  is reflected into  $g$  and  $f_2$ , moreover their respective slopes,  $m_1$  and  $m_2$ , are related by  $m_2 = 1/m_1$ , provided  $m_1 \neq 0, 1$ ; the points  $b$  and  $c$  tangents line  $g$  to the graph of  $f$  at the point  $a$  and then  $f^{-1}$  is the tangent line to the graph of  $f^{-1}$  at the point  $d$  (see the right half of Figure 7). We are led to the conclusion that

$$(f^{-1})'(f(a)) = \frac{1}{m_1} = \frac{1}{f'(a)}.$$

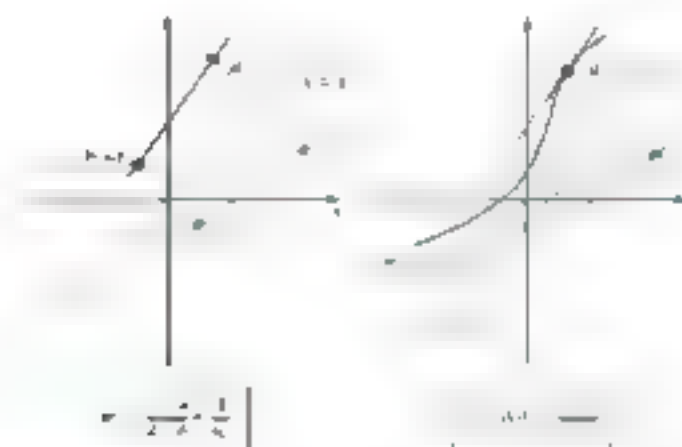


Figure 7

Pictures are sometimes deceptive, so we claim only to have made the following result plausible. For a formal proof, see any advanced calculus book.

### **Theorem B** Inverse Function Theorem

Let  $f$  be differentiable and locally monotonic at point  $a$ , let  $f'(a) \neq 0$ , and let  $y = f(a)$ . Then  $f^{-1}$  is differentiable at the corresponding point  $b = f(a)$  in the range of  $f$  and

$$(f^{-1})'(y) = \frac{1}{f'(x)}.$$

The conclusion in Theorem B is often written symbolically as

$$\frac{dx}{dy} = \frac{1}{\frac{dy}{dx}}.$$

**EXAMPLE 1** Let  $y = f(x) = x^5 + 2x + 1$ , as in Example 1. Then  $(f^{-1})'(4)$

**SOLUTION** Even though we cannot find a formula for  $f^{-1}$  in this case, we note that  $y = 4$  corresponds to  $x = 1$  and, since  $f'(x) = 5x^4 + 2$ ,

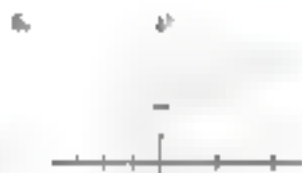
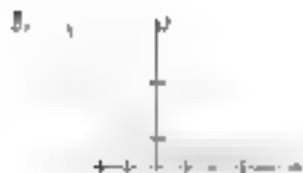
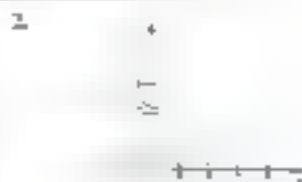
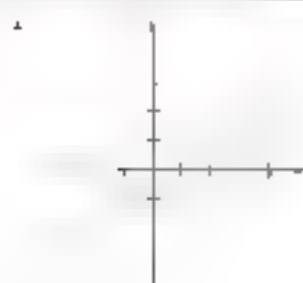
$$(f^{-1})'(4) = \frac{1}{f'(1)} = \frac{1}{5 + 2} = \frac{1}{7}.$$

## Concepts Review

1. A function is one-to-one if and only if its graph passes the **horizontal line test**.
2. A one-to-one function  $f$  has an inverse **function**  $f^{-1}$  satisfying  $f^{-1}(f(x)) = x$  and  $f(f^{-1}(y)) = y$ .
3. A one-to-one function  $f$  is **locally monotonic** at point  $a$  if there is an interval  $I$  containing  $a$  such that  $f$  is either **strictly increasing** or **strictly decreasing** on  $I$ .
4. Let  $y = f(x)$ , where  $f$  has the inverse  $f^{-1}$ . The relation  $\frac{dx}{dy} = \frac{1}{\frac{dy}{dx}}$  is valid for all  $x$  and  $y$  such that  $y = f(x)$ .

## Problem Set 6.2

In Problems 1–6, the graph of  $y = f(x)$  is shown. In each case, determine whether  $f$  has an inverse. Justify your answer.



In Problems 7–14, show that  $f$  has an inverse by showing that it is  $1:1$  in its domain. Sketch the domain of  $f$ .

7.  $f(x) = \sin^{-1} x$

8.  $f(x) = \tan^{-1} x$

9.  $f(x) = \cos^{-1} x$

10.  $f(x) = \sec^{-1} x$

11.  $f(x) = \csc^{-1} x$

12.  $f(x) = x^2 - 8$ ,  $x \geq 2$

13.  $f(x) = \int_0^x \sqrt{t^2 + 1} dt$

14.  $f(x) = \int_1^x \tan^{-1} t dt$

In Problems 15–24, find a formula for  $f^{-1}(x)$  and then verify that  $f^{-1}$  is the inverse of  $f$ .

15.  $f(x) = e^x$

16.  $f(x) = x^2$

17.  $f(x) = \ln x$

18.  $f(x) = \tan x$

19.  $f(x) = \cos x$

20.  $f(x) = \sqrt{x^2 + 1}$

21.  $f(x) = 4 - x^2$

22.  $f(x) = x^2 + 3$

23.  $f(x) = x^3$

24.  $f(x) = x^2 + 1$

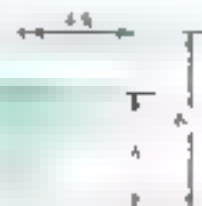
25.  $f(x) = x^2 + 1$

26.  $f(x) = x^2$

27.  $f(x) = x^2 + 1$

28.  $f(x) = x^2$

29. Find the volume  $V$  of water in the conical tank of Figure 8 as a function of the height  $h$ . Then find the height  $h$  as a function of  $V$ . (See Example 1.)



30. A ball is thrown vertically upward with velocity  $v_0$ . Find the maximum height  $H$  of the ball as a function of  $v_0$ . Then find the velocity  $v_0$  required to achieve a height of  $H$ .

In Problems 31–34, find the domain of  $f$  so that  $f$  is  $1:1$  on its domain. Sketch the domain of  $f$ .

31.  $f(x) = x^2$

32.  $f(x) = x^2$

In each of Problems 33–36, the graph of  $y = f(x)$  is shown. Is  $f$   $1:1$  on its domain? Justify your answer.

33.  $f(x) = x^2$

34.  $f(x) = x^2$

35.  $f(x) = x^2$

36.  $f(x) = x^2$

37.  $f(x) = x^2$

38.  $f(x) = x^2$

39.  $f(x) = x^2$

40.  $f(x) = x^2$

41.  $f(x) = x^2$

42.  $f(x) = x^2$

43.  $f(x) = x^2$

44.  $f(x) = x^2$

45.  $f(x) = x^2$

46.  $f(x) = x^2$

47.  $f(x) = x^2$

48.  $f(x) = x^2$

49.  $f(x) = x^2$

50.  $f(x) = x^2$

51.  $f(x) = x^2$

52.  $f(x) = x^2$

53.  $f(x) = x^2$

54.  $f(x) = x^2$

55.  $f(x) = x^2$

56.  $f(x) = x^2$

57.  $f(x) = x^2$

58.  $f(x) = x^2$

59.  $f(x) = x^2$

60.  $f(x) = x^2$

61.  $f(x) = x^2$

62.  $f(x) = x^2$

63.  $f(x) = x^2$

64.  $f(x) = x^2$

65.  $f(x) = x^2$

66.  $f(x) = x^2$

67.  $f(x) = x^2$

68.  $f(x) = x^2$

69.  $f(x) = x^2$

70.  $f(x) = x^2$

In Problems 69–70, find  $(f^{-1})'(2)$  by using Theorem 8 (see Example 3). Note that you can find the  $x$  corresponding to  $y = 2$  by inspection.

71.  $f(x) = x^2$

72.  $f(x) = x^2$

73.  $f(x) = x^2$

74.  $f(x) = x^2$

75.  $f(x) = x^2$

76.  $f(x) = x^2$

77.  $f(x) = x^2$

78.  $f(x) = x^2$

79.  $f(x) = x^2$

80.  $f(x) = x^2$

39.  $\int_0^{\pi} \sin x \, dx = \frac{\pi}{2} - \frac{\pi}{2}$

40.  $\int_0^{\pi} \cos x \, dx = \frac{\pi}{2} - \frac{\pi}{2}$

41. Suppose that both  $f$  and  $g$  have inverses and that  $f(g(x)) = x$  and  $g(f(x)) = x$ . Show that  $f$  has an inverse given by  $f^{-1}(x) = g(x)$ .

42. Verify the result of Problem 41 for  $f(x) = 1 + g(x) = x + 1$ .

43.  $\int_0^1 x \, dx = \frac{1}{2}$  and  $\int_0^1 x^2 \, dx = \frac{1}{3}$ . Find  $\int_0^1 x^3 \, dx$ .

(a)  $\int_0^1 x^4 \, dx = \frac{1}{5}$  (b)  $\int_0^1 x^5 \, dx = \frac{1}{6}$

(c)  $\int_0^1 x^6 \, dx = \frac{1}{7}$

44.  $\int_0^1 x^2 \, dx = \frac{1}{3}$  and  $\int_0^1 x^3 \, dx = \frac{1}{4}$ . Find  $\int_0^1 x^4 \, dx$ .

- Find the formula for  $f^{-1}(x)$ .
- Why is the condition  $h(x) = x$  needed?
- What conditions on  $a$ ,  $b$ ,  $c$ , and  $d$  will make  $f = f^{-1}$ ?

45. Suppose that  $f$  is continuous and strictly increasing on

$$[a, b] \text{ with } f(a) = c \text{ and } f(b) = d. \text{ Evaluate } \int_c^d f^{-1}(y) \, dy. \text{ Hint: Draw a picture.}$$

46. Let  $f$  be continuous and strictly increasing on  $[0, \infty)$  with  $f(0) = 0$  and  $f(x) \rightarrow \infty$  as  $x \rightarrow \infty$ . Use geometric reasoning to establish Young's Inequality. For  $a > 0$ ,  $b > 0$

$$ab \leq \int_0^a f(x) \, dx + \int_0^b f^{-1}(y) \, dy$$

What is the condition on  $f$ ?

47. Let  $f(x) = x^p$  and  $f^{-1}(x) = x^{1/p}$ . Show that the inverse of  $f(x) = x^p$  is  $f^{-1}(x) = x^{1/p}$  and use this together with Problem 46 to prove Minkowski's Inequality:

$$\left( \int_0^1 |f(x) + g(x)|^p \, dx \right)^{1/p} \leq \left( \int_0^1 |f(x)|^p \, dx \right)^{1/p} + \left( \int_0^1 |g(x)|^p \, dx \right)^{1/p}$$

2.  $\int_0^1 x^2 \, dx = \frac{1}{3}$  and  $\int_0^1 x^3 \, dx = \frac{1}{4}$ . Find  $\int_0^1 x^4 \, dx$ .

4.  $\int_0^1 x^2 \, dx = \frac{1}{3}$  and  $\int_0^1 x^3 \, dx = \frac{1}{4}$ . Find  $\int_0^1 x^4 \, dx$ .

## 6.3 The Natural Exponential Function

The graph of  $y = f(x) = \ln x$  was obtained at the end of Section 6.1 and is reproduced in Figure 23. The natural logarithm function is defined as the inverse of the exponential function  $y = e^x$ . The function  $y = e^x$  is strictly increasing and continuous on  $(-\infty, \infty)$  and has the property that  $e^0 = 1$ . It is in fact precisely the kind of function that we need to have in order to have an inverse  $\ln^{-1}$  with domain  $(-\infty, \infty)$  and range  $(0, \infty)$ . The function is so important that it is given a special name and a special symbol.

### Definition

The inverse of  $\ln$  is called the **natural exponential function** and is denoted by  $\exp$ . Thus

$$z = \exp y \iff y = \ln z$$

It follows immediately from this definition that

$$1 = \exp \ln e = e \quad (1)$$

$$2. \ln(\exp y) = y \quad \text{for all } y$$

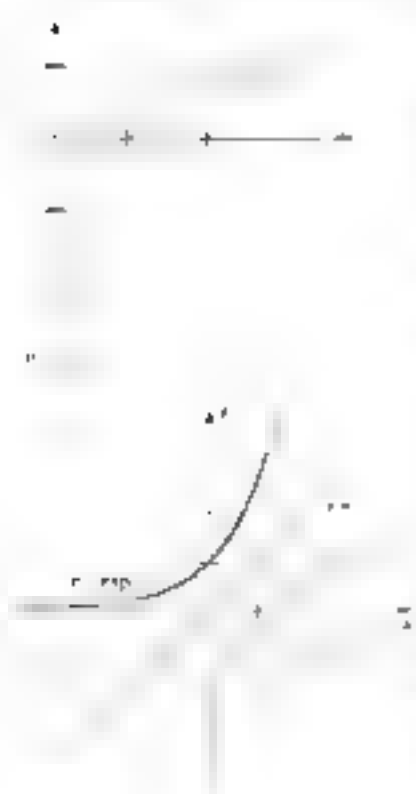
Since  $\exp$  and  $\ln$  are inverse functions, the graph of  $y = \exp x$  is the graph of  $y = \ln x$  reflected across the line  $y = x$  (Figure 23).

But why the name *exponential function*? You will see.

For a number  $a > 0$ , we define  $a^x$  to be the unique number  $y$  such that  $\ln y = x \ln a$ . We begin by introducing a new number which like  $e$  is so important to us here that it gets a special symbol. The letter  $e$  is appropriate since  $e$  is a constant and is also recognized as significance of the number.

### Definition

The letter  $e$  denotes the unique positive real number such that  $\ln e = 1$ .



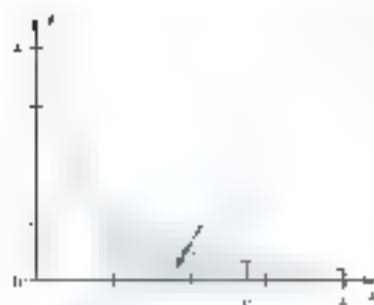


FIGURE 5.10

Figure 5.10 shows the definition, the area under the graph of  $y = e^x$  between  $x = 1$  and  $x = e$  is 1. Since  $\ln e = 1$ , it is also true that  $\exp 1 = e$ . The number  $e$  is irrational. In decimal expansion, it is known to thousands of places; the first few digits are

$$e = 2.71828\ 1828459045\ldots$$

Now we make a crucial observation:  $\exp$  (but depends on!) is in fact a already demonstrated! (1) above and Theorem 6.1A. If  $r$  is any rational number

$$e^r = \exp(\ln e^r) = \exp(r \ln e) = \exp r$$

Let us emphasize the result. For rational  $r$ ,  $\exp r$  is identical with  $e^r$ . What was in evidence with this most abstract way of introducing the natural logarithm (which itself was defined by an integral) has turned out to be a simple power.

But what if  $r$  is irrational? Here we remind you of a gap in all elementary algebra books. Never are irrational powers defined in anything approaching a rigorous manner. What is meant by  $2^{\sqrt{2}}$ ? We will have to leave this problem for number theory, since no elementary algebra. But we must not draw it we can talk of such things as  $D(e^x)$ . Guided by what we learned above, we simply define  $e^x$  for all  $x$  (rational or irrational) by

$$e^x = \exp x$$

Note that (1) and (2) at the beginning of this section now take the following form:

$$(1)' \quad e^{x+y} = e^x e^y, \quad x, y \geq 0$$

$$(2)' \quad \ln(e^x) = x, \quad \text{for all } x$$

Note also the easy fact that  $\ln x$  is the solution you need in order to get  $x$ . This is just the usual definition of the logarithm; the base is given to make everything work.

We can now easily prove two of the familiar laws of exponents:

#### THEOREM A

Let  $a$  and  $b$  be any real numbers. Then  $e^{a+b} = e^a e^b$  and  $e^a e^b = e^a$ .

**Proof** To prove the first, we write

$$\begin{aligned} e^{a+b} &= \exp(\ln e^{a+b}) && \text{(by (1))} \\ &= \exp(\ln e^a + \ln e^b) && \text{(Theorem 6.1A)} \\ &= \exp(a + b) && \text{(by (2))} \\ &= e^{a+b} && \text{(since } \exp x = e^x) \end{aligned}$$

The second fact is proved similarly. ■

Since  $\exp$  and  $\ln$  are inverses we know from Theorem 6.2(1) that  $\exp x = e^x$  is differentiable. To find a formula for  $D(e^x)$  we could use this theorem. Alternatively, let  $y = e^x$  so that

$$x = \ln y$$

Now differentiate both sides with respect to  $x$ . Using the Chain Rule, we obtain

$$1 = \frac{1}{y} D_x y$$

Thus

$$D_x y = y = e^x$$

Another obvious different way to calculate  $e$

$$\begin{aligned} 1 &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n \\ 2 &= e = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^{2n} \\ 1 &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^{1/n} \\ 1 &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^{1/n} \end{aligned}$$

In our next definition 2 and 3 become the same (see Section 6.3, Theorem A and Section 4.7 Example).

A number called the natural logarithm,  $\ln$ , is a way to get more specific in its use as the base for the natural exponential function. And what makes this function so significant?

What has not been noticed so far is that the function  $y = e^x$  like a phoenix rising again from its own ashes, is its own derivative!"

Fransois Le Lionnet

We have proved the remarkable fact that  $e^x$  is its own derivative: that is,

$$D_x e^x = e^x$$

Thus,  $y = e^x$  is a solution of the differential equation  $y' = y$ .

If  $u = f(x)$  is differentiable, then the Chain Rule yields

$$D_x e^u = e^u D_x u$$

### EXAMPLE 1 Find $D_x e^{3x}$

**SOLUTION** Using  $u = 3x$  we obtain

$$D_x e^{3x} = e^{3x} D_x (3x) = e^{3x} \cdot 3 = 3e^{3x}$$

### EXAMPLE 2 Find $D_x e^{-x^2}$

**SOLUTION**

$$\begin{aligned} D_x e^{-x^2} &= e^{-x^2} D_x (-x^2) \\ &= e^{-x^2}(-2x) = -2xe^{-x^2} \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 3** Let  $f(x) = xe^{x^2}$ . Find where  $f$  is increasing and decreasing, and where  $f$  is concave upward and downward. Also find  $f$ 's local extreme values and points of inflection. Then, sketch the graph of  $f$ .

**SOLUTION**

$$f'(x) = \frac{d}{dx} xe^{x^2} = e^{x^2} + e^{x^2} \cdot 2x = e^{x^2}(1 + 2x)$$

and

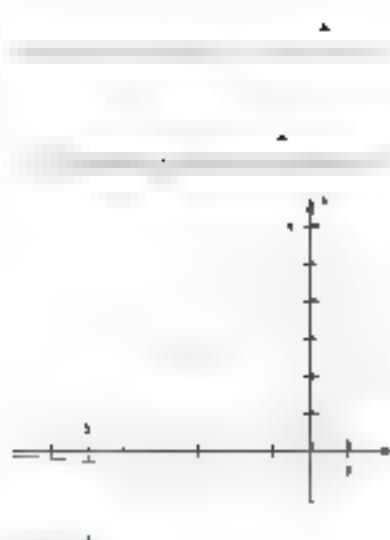
$$f''(x) = \frac{d}{dx} e^{x^2}(1 + 2x) = e^{x^2}(2x)(1 + 2x) + e^{x^2}(2) = e^{x^2}(2x^2 + 4x + 2)$$

Keeping in mind that  $e^{x^2} > 0$  for all  $x$ , we see that  $f'(x) < 0$  for  $x < -2$ ,  $f'(-2) = 0$ , and  $f'(x) > 0$  for all  $x > -2$ . Thus,  $f$  is decreasing on  $(-\infty, -2)$  and increasing on  $(-2, \infty)$ , and has its minimum value at  $x = -2$  of  $f(-2) = -2e^{-4} \approx -0.135$ .

Also,  $f''(x) < 0$  for  $x < -4$ ,  $f''(-4) = 0$ , and  $f''(x) > 0$  for  $x > -4$ , so the graph of  $f$  is concave downward on  $(-\infty, -4)$  and concave upward on  $(-4, \infty)$ , and has a point of inflection at  $x = -4$ ,  $y = -4e^{-16} \approx -0.54$ . Since  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} f(x) = \infty$ , the line  $y = 0$  is a horizontal asymptote. The information is captured in the graph in Figure 4.

The derivative formula  $D_x e^u = e^u D_x u$  automatically yields the integral formula  $\int e^u du = e^u + C$  or with  $x$  replacing  $u$ ,

$$\int e^x dx = e^x + C$$



**EXAMPLE 4** Evaluate  $\int e^{-4x} dx$ .

**SOLUTION** Let  $u = -4x$ , so  $du = -4 dx$ . Then

$$\int e^{-4x} dx = -\frac{1}{4} \int e^u du = -\frac{1}{4} \int du = -\frac{1}{4} e^u + C = -\frac{1}{4} e^{-4x} + C. \quad \blacksquare$$

**EXAMPLE 5** Evaluate  $\int x^2 e^{-x^3} dx$ .

**SOLUTION** Let  $u = -x^3$ , so  $du = -3x^2 dx$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \int x^2 e^{-x^3} dx &= -\frac{1}{3} \int e^u du \\ &= -\frac{1}{3} \int e^u du = -\frac{1}{3} e^u + C \\ &= -\frac{1}{3} e^{-x^3} + C. \end{aligned} \quad \blacksquare$$

**EXAMPLE 6** Evaluate  $\int x e^{-3x} dx$ .

**SOLUTION** Let  $u = -3x$ , so  $du = -3 dx$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \int x e^{-3x} dx &= -\frac{1}{3} \int x e^u du = -\frac{1}{3} \int u e^u du \\ &= -\frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{1}{u} e^u + C \right) = -\frac{1}{3} e^u + C = -\frac{1}{3} e^{-3x} + C. \end{aligned}$$

Thus by the Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus,

$$\int_0^1 x e^{-3x^2} dx = \left( -\frac{1}{6} e^{-3x^2} \right) \Big|_0^1 = -\frac{1}{6} e^{-3} + \frac{1}{6} = \frac{1}{6} \left( 1 - e^{-3} \right). \quad \blacksquare$$

The last result can be obtained directly with a calculator.

**EXAMPLE 7** Evaluate  $\int \frac{de^{1/x}}{x^2} dx$ .

**SOLUTION** Think of  $\int e^u du$ . Let  $u = 1/x$ , so  $du = (-1/x^2) dx$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \int \frac{de^{1/x}}{x^2} dx &= -\int e^u du = -e^u + C \\ &= -e^{1/x} + C = -e^{1/x} + C. \end{aligned} \quad \blacksquare$$

Although the **gamma** function is a very important special function, it is not one of the basic exponential functions frequently used in writing, especially when the exponential is complexified. For example, in statistical mechanics, one often encounters the Maxwell probability density function, which is

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{x^2}{2\sigma^2}\right).$$

## Concepts Review

1. The function  $\ln x$  is \_\_\_\_\_ on  $(0, \infty)$ , and we have an inverse denoted by  $\ln^{-1}x$  or by \_\_\_\_\_.

2. The number \_\_\_\_\_ is called the natural logarithm of  $e$ , and its value to three decimal places is \_\_\_\_\_.

3. Since  $e^x = \exp x$ ,  $\ln e^x$  or it follows that  $e^{\ln x} = x$  for  $x > 0$ , and  $\ln(e^x) = x$ .

4. The \_\_\_\_\_ is called the natural logarithm of  $e$ , and  $\int e^x dx =$  \_\_\_\_\_.

## Problem Set 6.3

1. Use your calculator to calculate each of the following. Note: On some calculators there is an  $e^x$  button. On others you must press the  $[1/x]$  or  $[1/y]$  and  $[e^x]$  buttons.

- (a)  $e^3$  (b)  $e^{-3}$   
 (c)  $e^{3/2}$  (d)  $e^{2/3 \ln 3}$

2. Calculate the following and explain why your answers are not surprising.

- (a)  $e^{\ln 2}$  (b)  $e^{\ln e^{1/2}}$

In Problems 3–10, simplify the given expression.

3.  $e$  (b)  $e^{-1/2}$   
 6.  $\ln e^3$  (b)  $e$   
 7.  $\ln x^{1/2} e^{1/2}$  (b)  $e^{1/2} \ln x$   
 8.  $e^{1/2} \ln x$  (b)  $e^{1/2} \ln x$

In Problems 11–36, find  $f$ , see Examples 1 and 2.

11.  $y = e^{x-2}$  (b)  $y = e^{2x-1}$   
 13.  $y = e^{x^2}$  (b)  $y = e^{x^2+1}$   
 15.  $y = e^{2 \ln x}$  (b)  $y = e^{\ln x}$   
 17.  $y = e^{\ln x}$  (b)  $y = e^{\ln x}$   
 19.  $y = e^{\ln x}$  (b)  $y = e^{\ln x}$   
 21.  $e^x - 1$  (b)  $y = 2$  Find the implicit differentials.  
 23. Use your knowledge of the graph of  $y = e^x$  to sketch the graph of  $y = -e^x$  and  $y = e^{-x}$ .  
 25. Explain why  $e < 3$ .

In Problems 37–50, first find the domain of the given function  $f$  and then find where it is increasing and decreasing, and also where it is concave upward and downward. Identify all extreme values and intervals of inflection. Then sketch the graph of  $y = f(x)$ .

37.  $y = e^{x^2}$  (b)  $y = e^{x^2+1}$   
 39.  $y = e^{\ln x}$  (b)  $y = e^{\ln x}$   
 41.  $y = e^{\ln x}$  (b)  $y = e^{\ln x}$   
 43.  $f(x) = \int_1^x e^t dt$  (b)  $f(x) = \int_1^x e^t dt$

In Problems 51–64, find each integral.

51.  $\int e^{2x} dx$  (b)  $\int e^{x^2} dx$   
 53.  $\int e^{x^2} dx$  (b)  $\int e^{x^2} dx$   
 55.  $\int e^{x^2} dx$  (b)  $\int e^{x^2} dx$   
 57.  $\int e^{x^2} dx$  (b)  $\int e^{x^2} dx$

65. Find the volume of the solid generated by revolving the region bounded by  $y = e^x$ ,  $y = 0$ ,  $x = 0$ , and  $x = 1$  about the  $y$ -axis.

66. The region bounded by  $y = e^{-x}$ ,  $y = 0$ ,  $x = 0$ , and  $x = 1$  is revolved about the  $y$ -axis. Find the volume of the resulting solid.

67. Find the area of the region bounded by the curve  $y = e^x$  and the line through the points  $(0, 1)$  and  $(1, e)$ .

68. Show that  $f(x) = \frac{x}{e^x - 1} - \ln(1 + e^{-x})$  is decreasing for  $x > 0$ .

69. Stirling's Formula says that for large  $n$  we can approximate  $n! = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdots n$  by

$$n! \approx \sqrt{2\pi n} \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n$$

(a) Calculate 30! exactly and then approximately using the above formula.

(b) Approximate 60!

70. It will be shown later (Section 9.9) that for small

$$x, \quad e^x \approx 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{6}$$

Use this result to approximate  $e^{0.1}$  and compare your result with what you get by calculating it directly. (5) sometimes and usually (or we want the (b) to approximate  $e^x$ .)

71. Find the length of the curve given parametrically by  $x = e^t$ ,  $y = e^{-t}$ .

72. If customers arrive at a check-out counter at the average rate of 4 per minute, then (see Exercise 69) the probability that exactly  $n$  customers will arrive in a period of  $t$  minutes is given by the formula

$$P_n(t) = \frac{(4t)^n e^{-4t}}{n!}, \quad n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

Find the probability that exactly 6 customers will arrive during a 10-minute period if the average arrival rate for this check-out counter is 1 customer every 4 minutes.

73. Let  $f(x) = \frac{\ln x}{1 + (\ln x)^2}$  for  $x$  in  $(0, \infty)$ . Find

- (a)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} f(x)$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x)$ ;  
 (b) the maximum and minimum values of  $f(x)$ ;  
 (c)  $P(\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = \int_1^{\infty} f(x) dx$ .

74. Let  $R$  be the region bounded by  $x = 0$ ,  $x = e^y$ , and the horizontal line  $y = e^y$  that goes through the origin. Find

- (a) the area of  $R$ ;  
 (b) the volume of the solid obtained when  $R$  is revolved about the  $y$ -axis.

75. Use a graphing calculator or a CAS to do Problems 75–80.

75. Evaluate

$$(a) \int_0^1 \exp(-x^2) dx \quad (b) \int_0^1 \exp(-x^2) dx$$

76. Evaluate

$$(a) \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x} \quad (b) \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x} \cdot x^{1/2}$$



37. Find the area of the region between the graphs of  $y = \ln x$  and  $y = \ln x^2$  from  $x = 1$  to  $x = e$ .
38. Find the graph of  $y = \ln x$  for  $x > 0$  and  $y = \ln x^2$  for  $x < 0$ . Use the graph to determine the domain and range of  $y = \ln |x|$ .
39. Describe the behavior of  $f(x) = \ln x$  as  $x$  approaches 0 from the right and as  $x$  approaches  $\infty$  from the right.
40. Draw the graph of  $f$  and  $f'$  where  $f(x) = \ln x$  and  $f'(x) = 1/x$ . Use the graph to determine each of the following:
- (a)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} f(x)$  (b)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x)$   
(c)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} f'(x)$  (d)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f'(x)$   
(e) The maximum and minimum values of  $f$ , if they exist.

## General Exponential and Logarithmic Functions

51.  $\downarrow$

We define  $\mathbb{Q} = \mathbb{Q}^+$  and all other rational powers of  $c$  in the previous section. We write about  $\mathbb{Q}^+ = \mathbb{Q} \cup \{0\}$  and similar rational powers of  $c$  in numbers. In fact, we want to give meaning to  $a \cdot b$  for  $a, b$  and  $a \div b$  a number. Now  $a \cdot b = p \cdot q$  is a natural number then  $a = \sqrt[p]{c^p}$  and  $b = \sqrt[q]{c^q}$ . Let  $a = \sqrt[p]{c^p}$  and  $b = \sqrt[q]{c^q}$ .

$$d' \in \exp(\ln d) \in \exp(\gamma \ln d) \in n^{\gamma \ln d}$$

This suggests the definition of the exponential function to be the limit of

### Definition

For  $n \geq 1$  and any real number  $s$ ,

4

1) *Upper bound* on  $m$  can be approached as the maximum number of subproblems that can be solved by any algorithm. It should appear with respect to the definition of  $m$ , it is calculated with a recursive formula, calculating

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Now we can fill a small gap in the properties of the natural logarithm function (see from Section 6.1)

$$\ln(r^A) = \ln(r^{A'}) \quad \text{for } r^A = r^{A'}$$

Thus, Property (iii) of Theorem 6.1 A holds for all regular non-BSM lattices. In addition, there we would need this fact as we show in Theorem 6.1 C, we will

Theorem 4 summarizes the fact that properties of exponentials which can be proved now in a completely rigorous manner. The user has to use how to differentiate and integrate  $d^n$ .

### Properties of Exponents

If  $a > 0$ ,  $b < 0$ , and  $x$  and  $r$  are real numbers, then

|          |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |    |     |
|----------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|-----|
| $\theta$ | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 | 21 | 22 | 23 | 24 | 25 | 26 | 27 | 28 | 29 | 30 | 31 | 32 | 33 | 34 | 35 | 36 | 37 | 38 | 39 | 40 | 41 | 42 | 43 | 44 | 45 | 46 | 47 | 48 | 49 | 50 | 51 | 52 | 53 | 54 | 55 | 56 | 57 | 58 | 59 | 60 | 61 | 62 | 63 | 64 | 65 | 66 | 67 | 68 | 69 | 70 | 71 | 72 | 73 | 74 | 75 | 76 | 77 | 78 | 79 | 80 | 81 | 82 | 83 | 84 | 85 | 86 | 87 | 88 | 89 | 90 | 91 | 92 | 93 | 94 | 95 | 96 | 97 | 98 | 99 | 100 |
| $\alpha$ | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 | 21 | 22 | 23 | 24 | 25 | 26 | 27 | 28 | 29 | 30 | 31 | 32 | 33 | 34 | 35 | 36 | 37 | 38 | 39 | 40 | 41 | 42 | 43 | 44 | 45 | 46 | 47 | 48 | 49 | 50 | 51 | 52 | 53 | 54 | 55 | 56 | 57 | 58 | 59 | 60 | 61 | 62 | 63 | 64 | 65 | 66 | 67 | 68 | 69 | 70 | 71 | 72 | 73 | 74 | 75 | 76 | 77 | 78 | 79 | 80 | 81 | 82 | 83 | 84 | 85 | 86 | 87 | 88 | 89 | 90 | 91 | 92 | 93 | 94 | 95 | 96 | 97 | 98 | 99 | 100 |

$$(iii) \{a^i\}^* \subseteq a^{1*} \quad (iv) \quad a^i = a^{i+1}$$

5.  $\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{4}$

It is important to note that the results of the study are based on a self-reported survey. The study did not include a control group, and the results may be biased due to self-reporting bias. The study also did not include a control group, and the results may be biased due to self-reporting bias.

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<sup>2</sup> Finally, we tested some functions in the form  $1/(1 + \exp(-a))$  with  $a$  being a linear combination of the input variables.

mentary response would be definition of  $e$  as the least number. One way to define  $e$  would be to say that it is the limit of the sequence:

[illegible]

The definition we used is

$$x_{n+1} = \ln$$

This definite method calculates the exact value of the neutralizing function, in other words, the integral.

**Proof** We will prove (ii) and (iii), leaving the others for you.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{For (ii)} \quad \frac{d}{dx} e^{ax} &= e^{ax} \cdot \frac{d}{dx} ax = ae^{ax} \\ \text{For (iii)} \quad \frac{d}{dx} e^{-ax} &= e^{-ax} \cdot \frac{d}{dx} (-a) = -ae^{-ax} \end{aligned}$$

### THEOREM 2 Exponential Function Rules

$$D_x a^x = a^x \ln a$$

$$\int a^x dx = \frac{1}{a \ln a} a^x + C \quad a \neq 1$$

**Proof**

$$D_x a^x = D_x e^{x \ln a} = e^{x \ln a} \cdot D_x (x \ln a)$$

$$= a^x \ln a$$

The integration formula follows immediately from the preceding theorem and

$$\frac{d}{dx} a^{1/x} = \frac{1}{x^2} a^{1/x} \quad \text{Equation (1)}$$

**SOLUTION** We use the Chain Rule with  $u = \sqrt{x}$ .

$$D_x (x^3)^{1/2} = (3x^2)^{1/2} \ln 3 = D_x \sqrt{x} = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$$

**EXAMPLE 2** Find  $dy/dx$  if  $y = (x^4 + 2)^5 + 5^{x^2+2}$ .

**SOLUTION**

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dy}{dx} &= 5(x^4 + 2)^4 \cdot \frac{d}{dx}(x^4 + 2) + 5^{x^2+2} \ln 5 \\ &= 4x(5(x^4 + 2)^4 + 5^{x^2+2} \ln 5) \\ &= 20x^5(x^4 + 2)^4 + 5^{x^2+2} \ln 5 \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 3** Find  $\int 2^x x^3 dx$ .

**SOLUTION** Let  $u = x$ , so  $du = dx$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \int x^3 2^x dx &= \frac{1}{4} \int \frac{d}{du} (u^4) 2^u du = \frac{1}{4} \int 2^u du \\ &= \frac{1}{4} \frac{2^u}{\ln 2} + C = \frac{2^x}{4 \ln 2} + C \end{aligned}$$

Finally, we are ready to make a connection with the logarithm that was discussed in algebra. We note that if  $f(x) = a^x$ , then  $f(x) = a^x$  is a decreasing function if  $a < 1$ ; it is an increasing function, as you may check by considering the derivative. In either case,  $f$  has an inverse. We call this inverse the **logarithmic function to the base  $a$** . This is equivalent to the following definition.

### Definition

Let  $a$  be a positive number different from 1. Then

$$y = \log_a x \Leftrightarrow x = a^y$$

### Why Other Bases?

Are other bases—besides  $e$ —really needed? Not the fractions

$$\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{4}, \dots$$

and

$$\ln \frac{1}{2}, \ln \frac{1}{3}, \ln \frac{1}{4}, \dots$$

allow us to turn any problem involving exponential functions or logarithmic functions with these “inconvenient” numbers into one with nice integers. It supports our terminology: natural exponential and natural logarithmic functions. It also explains the universal use of the other functions in advanced work.



FIGURE 1

Historically, the most commonly used base was base 10 and the resulting log arithms were called **common logarithms**. In comparison,  $\log_e$  is an “uncommon logarithm”; the significant base is  $e$ . Notice that  $\log_e$  being the inverse of  $f(x) = e^x$  is just another symbol for  $\ln$ ; that is,

$$\log_e x = \ln x$$

We have some full-circle figure 1. The function in which we introduced in Section 5.1 has turned out to be an elementary logarithm, but in a rather special type.

Now observe that if  $y = \log_e x$ , so that  $x = e^y$ , then

$$\ln x = y = \ln e^y$$

from which we conclude that

$$\log_e e = \frac{\ln e}{\ln e}$$

From this it follows that  $\log_e$  satisfies the usual properties associated with logarithms (see Theorem 5.1A). Also,

$$D_x \log_e x = \frac{1}{e^x} = \frac{1}{x}$$

**EXAMPLE 1** If  $y = \log_e(x^4 + 13)$ , find  $\frac{dy}{dx}$ .

**SOLUTION** Let  $u = x^4 + 13$  and apply the Chain Rule:

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{(x^4 + 13) \ln 10} \cdot 4x^3 = \frac{4x^3}{(x^4 + 13) \ln 10}$$

Figure 2 shows the graph of  $y = \log_e x$  and its derivative  $y' = 1/x$ . The graph of  $y = \log_e x$  is a curve that passes through the point  $(1, 0)$  and has a vertical asymptote at  $x = 0$ . The graph of  $y' = 1/x$  is a hyperbola with two branches, one in the first quadrant and one in the third quadrant, with a horizontal asymptote at  $y = 0$  and a vertical asymptote at  $x = 0$ . The two graphs are shown for  $x > 0$ .

$$D_x x = 1 = \frac{1}{x} \ln x$$

What about  $D_x(x^a)$ ? For  $a$  rational, we proved the Power Rule in Chapter 4, which says that

$$D_x(x^a) = ax^{a-1}$$

Now we assert that this is true even if  $a$  is irrational. To see this, write

$$D_x(x^a) = D_x(e^{a \ln x}) = e^{a \ln x} \cdot a \cdot \frac{1}{x} = x^a \cdot \frac{a}{x} = ax^{a-1}$$

The corresponding rule for integrals also holds even if  $a$  is irrational:

$$\int x^a dx = \frac{x^{a+1}}{a+1} + C \quad (a \neq -1)$$

Finally, we consider  $f(x) = x^n$ , a variable to a variable power. There is a formula for  $D_x(x^n)$ , but we do not recommend that you memorize it. Rather, we suggest that you learn two methods for finding it, as illustrated below.

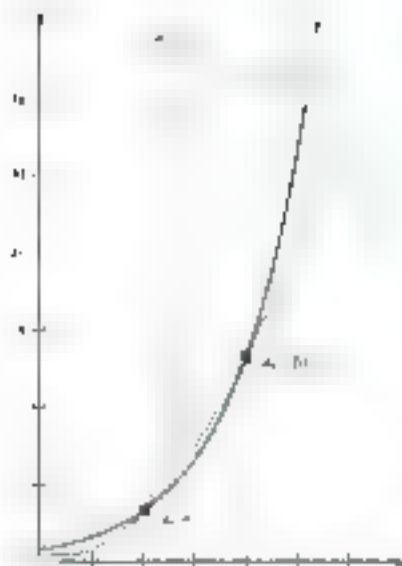


FIGURE 2

**EXAMPLE 6** If  $y = x^x$ , find  $D_x y$ —we discuss two methods.

**SOLUTION**

**Method 1** We may write

$$y = x^x = e^{x \ln x}$$

Thus, using the Chain Rule and the Product Rule,

$$D_x y = x^x = D_x(x \ln x) = x^x \left( x \cdot \frac{1}{x} + \ln x \right) = x^x(1 + \ln x)$$

**Method 2** Recall the *logarithmic differentiation* technique from Section 6.3:

$$y = x^x$$

$$\ln y = x \ln x$$

$$\frac{1}{y} D_x y = \frac{1}{x} + \ln x$$

$$D_x y = x^x \left( \frac{1}{x} + \ln x \right) = x^x(1 + \ln x)$$

**EXAMPLE 7** If  $y = (x^2 + 1)^{\pi^2}$ , find  $\frac{dy}{dx}$ .

**SOLUTION**

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \pi(x^2 + 1)^{\pi^2 - 1} \cdot 2x = 2\pi x(x^2 + 1)^{\pi^2 - 1}$$

From §6.10,  $\ln x^{100}$

Note the increasing complexity of the functions that we have considered so far. The progression  $x^x$  to  $x^x$  is in one chain. A more complex chain begins with  $\ln(f(x))^{g(x)} = f(x)^{g(x)}$ . We now know how to find the derivatives of all these functions. Finding the derivative of the last of these is best accomplished by logarithmic differentiation, a technique introduced in Section 6.3 and illustrated in Examples 6 and 7.

**EXAMPLE 7** If  $y = (x^2 + 1)^{\pi^2}$ , find  $\frac{dy}{dx}$ .

**SOLUTION** We use logarithmic differentiation.

$$\ln y = (\pi^2) \ln(x^2 + 1)$$

$$\frac{1}{y} \frac{dy}{dx} = \pi^2 \left( \frac{2x}{x^2 + 1} \right) = \frac{2\pi^2 x}{x^2 + 1} + 0$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{2\pi^2 x}{x^2 + 1} (x^2 + 1)^{\pi^2} = \frac{2\pi^2 x}{x^2 + 1} y$$

**EXAMPLE 8** Evaluate  $\int_1^5 \frac{5}{x^6} dx$ .

**SOLUTION** Let  $u = x^{-5}$  so that  $du = -5x^{-6} dx$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \int_1^5 \frac{5}{x^6} dx &= \int_1^5 -\frac{1}{x^5} dx = \int_1^5 x^{-5} dx \\ &= \frac{x^{-4}}{-4} \bigg|_1^5 = -\frac{5}{4(5^4)} + \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{4} - \frac{5}{4(5^4)} \end{aligned}$$

Thus, by the Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_1^5 \frac{5}{x^6} dx &= -\frac{1}{4 \ln 5} \bigg|_1^5 = -\frac{1}{4 \ln 5} \ln 5 - \left( -\frac{1}{4 \ln 5} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{4 \ln 5} \end{aligned}$$

## Concepts Review

- In terms of  $x$  and  $\ln$ ,  $\pi^{x^2} =$  . More generally,  $a^x =$  .
- $\ln a = \log_a a$ , where  $a =$  .

- $\log_a x$  can be expressed in terms of  $\ln$  by  $\log_a x =$  .
- The derivative of the power function  $f(x) = x^a$  is  $f'(x) = ax^{a-1}$ . The derivative of the exponential function  $g(x) = e^x$  is  $g'(x) =$  .

## Problem Set 6.4

In Problems 1–16, solve for  $x$  in  $\log_a b = c \Leftrightarrow a^c = b$ .

- $\log_4 4$
- $\log_2 2$
- $\log_3 3$
- $\log_5 5$
- $2 \log_8 \left(\frac{x}{3}\right) = 1$
- $\log_4 x$
- $\log_5(x+3) = \log_5 x + 1$
- $\log_3(x+3) = \log_3 x + 1$

□ In Problems 17–26, let  $a$  and  $b$  be positive real numbers. Evaluate each of the logarithms in Problems 17–26.

- $\log_2 2$
- $\log_3(11)$
- $\log_4(12)$
- $\log_{10}(9)$

□ In Problems 27–36, use natural logarithms to solve each of the exponential equations. Check for extraneous solutions.

- $2^x = 5$
- $5^x = 2$
- $9^{x^2} = 4$
- $12^{x^2} = 5$

In Problems 37–46, find the indicated derivative or integral.

- $D_x(x^2)$
- $D_x(3^{x^2+2})$
- $D_x(x)$
- $D_x(\log_{10} x)$
- $D_x(x^2 \ln(x-3))$
- $D_x(x \log_2 x^2)$
- $\int 2^x dx$
- $\int 10^x dx$
- $\int \frac{1}{x^2} dx$
- $\int \frac{1}{x} dx$

In Problems 47–52, find the domain of the given function  $f$  and then find where it is increasing and decreasing, and where it has a local maximum and minimum. Identify all extreme values and points of inflection. Then sketch the graph of  $y = f(x)$ .

- $y = 3^{x^2} + x^{-1/2}$
- $y = \ln(x^2 + 2)$
- $y = x^2 + x \ln x$
- $y = (\ln x^2)^2$
- If  $f(x) = x^{100}$ , find  $f'(x)$ .

□ 36. Let  $f(x) = e^x$  and  $g(x) = x^e$ . Which is larger,  $f(x)$  or  $g(x)$ ?  $f'(x)$  or  $g'(x)$ ?

In Problems 53–62, first find the domain of the given function  $f$  and then find where it is increasing and decreasing, and where it has a local maximum and minimum. Identify all extreme values and points of inflection. Then sketch the graph of  $y = f(x)$ .

- $f(x) = x \ln x$
- $f(x) = x \ln x$
- $f(x) = x \ln x + 1$
- $f(x) = x \ln x - 1$
- $f(x) = \int_1^x t^2 dt$

$$\log_2 x = \frac{\log x}{\log 2}$$

41. How are  $\log_2 x$  and  $\log_4 x$  related?

42. Sketch the graphs of  $\log_2 x$  and  $\log_4 x$  using the same coordinate axes.

43. The magnitude  $M$  of an earthquake on the Richter scale is  $M = 0.67 \log_{10}(E/10^7) + 1.46$

where  $E$  is the energy of the earthquake in kilowatt-hours. Find the energy of an earthquake of magnitude 7. Of magnitude 8?

44. The loudness of sound is measured in decibels (dB) on the Alexander Graham Bell (1847–1923) invention of the telephone. If the variation in pressure is  $P$  pounds per square inch, then the loudness  $L$  in decibels is

$$L = 20 \log_{10}(P/P_0)$$

Find the variation in pressure caused by music at 115 decibels.

45. In the equally tempered scale to which keyed instruments have been tuned since the d. 9th c. 15th, each 12th of the frequency of successive notes C, C#, D, D#, E, F, F#, G, G#, A, A#, B, C forms a geometric sequence (progression), with C having twice the frequency of F (C# is read C sharp). What is the ratio  $r$  between the frequencies of successive notes? Is the frequency of A 440, find the frequency of C?

46. Prove that  $\log_2 3$  is irrational. Hint: Use proof by contradiction.

47. You suspect that the  $xy$ -data that you collect lie on either an exponential curve  $y = Ae^{bx}$  or a power curve  $y = Cx^d$ . To check, you plot  $\ln y$  versus  $x$  on a graphing calculator. To check, you plot  $\ln y$  versus  $\ln x$  on a graphing calculator. Which graph is more linear? Which graph is more curved? Which graph is more straight? Which graph is more curved? Which graph is more straight? Which graph is more curved?

48. (An Assessment) Given the problem of finding  $y$  if  $x = \ln y$ , student A did the following:

Wrong 1

$$y = e^x \quad \text{misapplying the Power Rule}$$

Student B did this:

Wrong 2

$$y = e^x \quad \text{misapplying the Exponential Rule}$$

The sum  $x^d + x^d \ln x$  is correct (Example 5), so

$$\text{WRONG 1} + \text{WRONG 2} = \text{RIGHT}$$

Show that the same procedure yields a correct answer for finding the derivative of  $y = f(x)e^{g(x)}$ .

49. Convince yourself that  $f(x) = (x^2)^e$  and  $g(x) = x^{2e}$  are not the same function. Then find  $f'(x)$  and  $g'(x)$ . Note: When mathematicians write  $x^y$ , they mean  $x^{y^e}$ .

50. Consider  $f(x) = \frac{x^a}{x^a + 1}$  for fixed  $a, a > 0, a \neq 1$ . Show that  $f$  has an inverse and find a formula for  $f^{-1}(x)$ .

51. For a fixed  $a \geq 1$  let  $f(x) = x^a/e^x$  on  $[0, \infty)$ . Show

- $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = 0$ . How do you know?
- $f(x)$  is decreasing at  $x_0 = a/e$ . Is  $a/e$  the only such  $x_0$ ?
- $f(x)$  has two  $x$ -values with  $f(x) = 1/e$  if and only one such  $x$ -value if  $e < a < 2e$ .
- $e^x < x^e$ .

52. Let  $f(x) = x^2e^{-x}$  for  $x \geq 0$ . Show that for any fixed  $n \geq 0$ :

- $f_n(x)$  attains its maximum at  $x_n = n$ .
- $f_n(n) > f_{n+1}(n+1)$  and  $f_n(n+1) > f_{n+1}(n)$  imply

$$\frac{1}{n} < \frac{f_n(n)}{f_{n+1}(n+1)} < \frac{n}{n+1}.$$

53. Find the minimum value of  $f(x) = x^2e^{-x}$  on  $[0, 1]$ .

54. Find the minimum value of  $f(x) = x^2e^{-x}$  on  $[0, 1]$ .

55. Draw the graphs of  $y = x^2$  and  $y = 2^x$  using the same axes and show all their intersection points.

56. Evaluate  $\int_0^{\infty} x^2 e^{-x} dx$ .

57. Refer to Problem 49. Draw the graphs of  $f$  and  $g$  using the same axes. Then draw the graphs of  $f'$  and  $g'$  using the same axes.

The graphing calculator is far less suited to using standard linear coordinate systems. When working with exponential and logarithmic functions it may be more instructive to use logarithmic and log-log scales. We explore these techniques in Problems 58 and 59.

58. On a single set of axes use your calculator to draw the graphs of  $y = 2^x$ ,  $y = 3^x$ , and  $y = 4^x$  over the interval  $0 < x < 5$ . Do the same for the inverse functions  $y = \log_2 x$ ,  $y = \log_3 x$ , and  $y = \log_4 x$ . If we use a computer graphing

program that permits the use of semilog axes (a logarithmic scale on the  $y$ -axis and a rational scale on the  $x$ -axis) to graph the functions  $y = 2^x$ ,  $y = 3^x$ , and  $y = 4^x$  over the region  $0 < x < 5$  (Figure 3), we get three lines.

(a) Identify each of the lines in Figure 3.

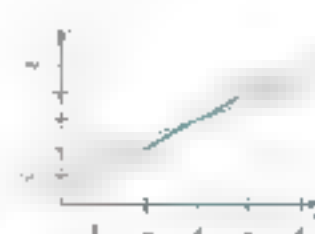


Figure 3

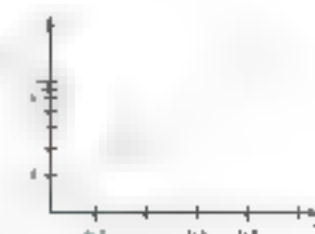


Figure 4

(b) Noting that  $y = Cb^x$  then  $\ln y = (\ln C) + x(\ln b)$ , explain why all the curves in Figure 3 are lines through the point  $(0, 1)$ .

(c) Based on the semilog plot given by Figure 4, determine the  $C$  and  $b$  in the equation  $y = Cb^x$ .

On a log-log scale (both axes are logarithmic) the curves in Figure 3 are straight lines. Using the result that, upon using  $\log$ ,  $y = Cb^x$  becomes  $\log y = \log C + x \log b$ , identify the equations that are represented by the

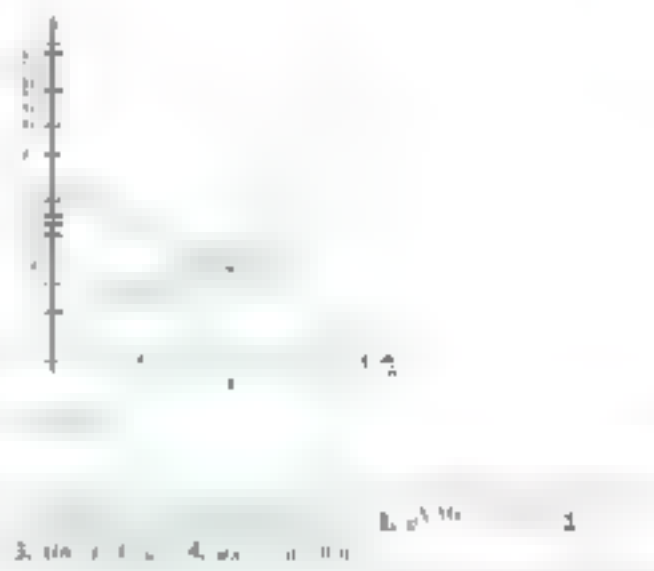


Figure 5

## 6.5 Exponential Growth and Decay

At the beginning of "Eat the World" population was about 6.4 billion. It is said that by the year 2020 it will reach 7.9 billion. How are such predictions made?

To treat the problem mathematically let  $y = f(t)$  denote the size of the population at time  $t$ , where  $t$  is the number of years after 1994. As only  $y$  is an integer,  $t$  is a graph jumps when some integer  $y$  is attained. However, for a large population these jumps are so small as to be negligible to the total population that we will not go far wrong if we pretend that  $f$  is a nice differentiable function.

It seems reasonable to suppose that the increase  $\Delta x$  in population births minus the same form, a short time period,  $\Delta x$  is proportional to the size of the population at the beginning of the period and to the length of that period. Thus  $\Delta x = kx \Delta t$ , or

$$\frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t} = kx$$

In its limiting form, this gives the differential equation

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = kx$$

If  $k > 0$ , the population is growing; if  $k < 0$ , it is shrinking. If world population history indicates that  $k$  is about 0.0132 (assuming that  $x$  is measured in billions, though some agencies report a different figure).

**Now Work** PROBLEM 49 We begin our study of differential equations in Section 5.2 and we deal with a more general case. We will solve  $\frac{dx}{dt} = kx$  subject to the condition that  $x = x_0$  when  $t = 0$ . Separating variables and integrating, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dx}{x} &= k \, dt \\ \int \frac{dx}{x} &= \int k \, dt \\ \ln x &= kt + C\end{aligned}$$

The condition  $x = x_0$  at  $t = 0$  gives  $C = \ln x_0$ . Thus,

$$\ln x = \ln x_0 + kt$$

or

$$x = x_0 e^{kt}$$

Changing to exponential form yields

$$x = x_0 e^{kt}$$

or finally

$$x = x_0 e^{kt}$$

When  $k > 0$ , this type of growth is called **exponential growth**, and when  $k < 0$  it is called **exponential decay**.

Returning to the problem of world population, we choose to measure time in years after January 1, 1900, and  $x$  in billions of people. Thus,  $x_0 = 1.4$  and since  $k = 0.0132$ ,

$$x = 1.4e^{0.0132t}$$

By the year 2020, when  $t = 120$ , we can predict that  $x$  will be about

$$x = 1.4e^{0.0132(120)} \approx 4.4 \text{ billion}$$

**EXAMPLE 4** How long will it take world population to double under the assumed conditions?

**SOLUTION** The question is equivalent to asking “In how many years after 2004 will the population reach 12.8 billion?” We need to solve

$$\begin{aligned}12.8 &= 6.4e^{0.0172t} \\2 &= e^{0.0172t}\end{aligned}$$

for  $t$ . Taking logarithms of both sides gives

$$\begin{aligned}\ln 2 &= 0.0172t \\t &= \frac{\ln 2}{0.0172} \approx 52 \text{ years}\end{aligned}$$

If some population will double in the next 52 years, after 2004 it will double in any 52-year period, so, for example, it will quadruple in 104 years. More generally, if an exponentially growing quantity doubles from  $y_0 = 2^0$  to an initial value  $y_0$  in length  $T$ , it will double in any interval of length  $T$  since

$$\frac{y(t+T)}{y(t)} = \frac{y_0 e^{k(t+T)}}{y_0 e^{kt}} = \frac{y_0 e^{kT}}{y_0} = \frac{2y_0}{y_0} = 2.$$

We call the number  $T$  the **doubling time**.

**EXAMPLE 2** The number of bacteria in a rapidly growing culture with culture  $y = 10,000e^{kt}$  at noon and 40,000 after 2 hours. Predict how many bacteria there will be at 5 PM.

**SOLUTION** We assume that the differential equation  $y' = ky$  is applicable to  $y = 10,000e^{kt}$ . Now we have two conditions ( $y = 10,000$  and  $y = 40,000$ ) at  $t = 2$  hours, which we conclude that

$$40,000 = 10,000e^{2k}.$$

$$\text{or} \quad 4 = e^{2k}.$$

Taking logarithms yields

$$\ln 4 = 2k$$

or

$$k = \frac{1}{2}(\ln 4 = \ln \sqrt{4} = \ln 2).$$

Thus,

$$y = 10,000e^{(\ln 2)t/2}$$

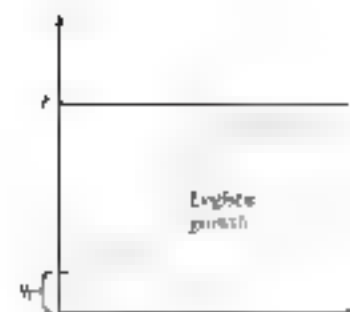
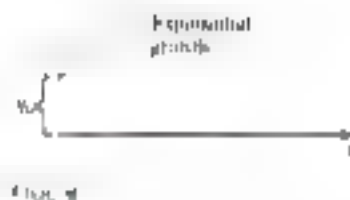
and at  $t = 5$  this gives

$$y = 10,000e^{(5 \ln 2)/2} \approx 320,000.$$

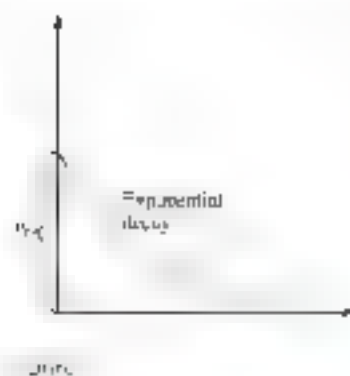
The exponential model  $y' = ky$ ,  $k > 0$ , for population growth is flawed since it predicts faster and faster growth indefinitely, no matter how large. In most cases, including that of world population, the limited amount of space and resources will eventually force a slowing of the growth rate. This suggests another model for population growth called the **logistic model**, in which we assume that the rate of growth is proportional both to the population size  $y$  and to the difference  $L - y$ , where  $L$  is the maximum population that can be supported. This leads to the differential equation

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = k y (L - y)$$

Note that for small  $y$ ,  $dy/dt \approx kLy$ , which suggests that initially  $y$  will grow. But as  $y$  nears  $L$ , growth is curtailed and  $dy/dt$  gets smaller and smaller, producing a growth curve like Figure 7. This model is explored in Problems 47–51 of this section and again in Section 7.5.







$y(t) = y_0 e^{-kt}$ . Not everything grows; some things decrease over time. For example, radioactive elements decay, and they do it at a rate proportional to the amount present. Thus, their change rates also satisfy the differential equation

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = -ky$$

but now with  $k$  negative. If  $k = -\lambda$ , we get the equation  $y' = \lambda y$  in which  $\lambda$  is positive. A typical graph appears in Figure 3.

**EXAMPLE 1** Carbon-14, an isotope of carbon, is radioactive and decays at a rate proportional to the amount present. Its half-life is 5730 years; that is, it takes 5730 years for a given amount of carbon-14 to decay to one-half its original size. If there were 10 grams present originally, how much would be left after 2000 years?

**SOLUTION** The half-life of  $^{14}\text{C}$  allows us to determine  $k$ , since  $y$  implies that

$$\frac{1}{2} = y_0 e^{-k(5730)}$$

or, after taking logarithms,

$$\ln \frac{1}{2} = -5730k$$

$$k = \frac{-\ln 2}{5730} \approx -0.000121$$

Thus,

$$y = 10e^{-0.000121t}$$

At  $t = 2000$ , this gives

$$y = 10e^{-0.000121(2000)} \approx 7.83 \text{ grams}$$

In Problem 27 we show how a sample of wood can be used to determine the age of fossils and other once-living things.

**NEWTON'S LAW OF COOLING** Newton's Law of Cooling says that the rate at which an object cools in water or air is proportional to the difference in temperature between the object and the surrounding medium. To be specific, suppose that an object initially at temperature  $T_0$  is placed in a water where the equilibrium is  $T_m$ . If  $T$  represents the temperature of the object at time  $t$ , then Newton's Law of Cooling says that

$$\frac{dT}{dt} = k(T - T_m)$$

This differential equation is separable and can be solved like the growth and decay problems in this section.

**EXAMPLE 2** An object is taken from an oven at  $350^\circ\text{F}$  and left to cool in a room at  $70^\circ\text{F}$ . If the temperature fell to  $250^\circ\text{F}$ , how long would it take to cool to that temperature? What would its temperature be three hours after it was removed from the oven?

**SOLUTION** The differential equation can be written as

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dT}{dt} &= k(T - 70) \\ \frac{dT}{T - 70} &= k dt \\ \int \frac{dT}{T - 70} &= \int k dt \\ \ln |T - 70| &= kt + C \end{aligned}$$

Since the initial temperature is greater than  $70^\circ$ , it seems reasonable that the object's temperature will decrease toward  $70^\circ$  as  $t \rightarrow \infty$ . It will be positive since the absolute value is unnecessary. This leads to

$$T = 70 + Ce^{kt}$$

where  $C = e^k$ . Now we apply the initial condition,  $T(0) = 150$ , to find  $C$ .

$$150 = T(0) = 70 + Ce^{k \cdot 0}$$

$$80 = C_1$$

Thus, the solution of the differential equation is

$$T(t) = 70 + 80e^{kt}$$

To find  $k$  we apply the condition that at time  $t = 1$  the temperature was  $T(1) = 250$ :

$$250 = T(1) = 70 + 80e^{k(1)}$$

$$180e^k = 180$$

$$e^k = \frac{180}{280}$$

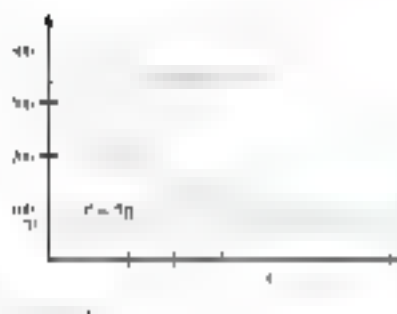
$$k = \ln \frac{180}{280} \approx -0.434$$

This gives

$$T(t) = 70 + 280e^{-0.434t}$$

See Figure 4. After 1 hour, the temperature is

$$T(1) = 70 + 280e^{-0.434(1)} \approx 144.4^\circ$$



**EXAMPLE 4** If we put \$1000 in the bank at 10% interest compounded monthly, it will be worth \$3041.01 at the end of 10 years. Suppose we put \$1000 in the bank at 10% interest compounded 24 times a year. At the end of 10 years we put \$3041.01 in the bank at 10% interest compounded annually. At the end of 10 years it will be worth  $A(t)$  dollars at the end of  $t$  years, where

$$A(t) = 3041.01 \left(1 + \frac{0.10}{n}\right)^{nt}$$

**EXAMPLE 5** Suppose that Catherine put \$500 in the bank at 4% interest compounded daily. How much will she have at the end of 5 years?

**SOLUTION** Here  $r = 0.04$  and  $n = 365$ , so

$$A = 500 \left(1 + \frac{0.04}{365}\right)^{365(5)} \approx \$613.74$$

Now let us consider what happens when interest is compounded continuously. This is what  $n$ , the number of compounding periods in a year, tends to infinity. Then we claim that

$$\begin{aligned} A(t) &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_0 \left(1 + \frac{r}{n}\right)^{nt} = A_0 \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{r}{n}\right)^{nt} \\ &= A_0 \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (1 + h)^{1/h} = A_0 e^r \end{aligned}$$

Here we replaced  $x/h$  by  $h$  and noted that  $x \rightarrow \infty$  corresponds to  $h \rightarrow 0$ . But the big step is knowing that the expression in brackets is the number  $e$ . This result is important enough to be called a theorem.

### Theorem A

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} (1 + h)^{1/h} = e$$

#### Another View of Continuity

Recall that to say a function is continuous at  $a_0$  means that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a_0} f(x) = f(a_0)$$

This is

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a_0} f(x) = f(\lim_{x \rightarrow a_0} x)$$

That is, continuity means that we can push a limit inside the function—that is, what we did for the function  $f(x) = \exp(x)$  near the end of the proof in Theorem A.

**Proof** First recall that if  $f(x) = \ln x$ , then  $f'(x) = 1/x$  and, in particular,  $f'(1) = 1$ . Then from the definition of the derivative and properties of  $\ln$  we get

$$\begin{aligned} 1 = f'(1) &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(1+h) - f(1)}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\ln(1+h) - \ln 1}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\ln(1+h)}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{h} \ln(1+h) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \ln(1+h)^{1/h} \end{aligned}$$

Thus, as  $h \rightarrow 0$ ,  $\ln(1+h)^{1/h} \rightarrow 1$ . To see where we will use this a moment, note that  $y = \exp(x)$  is a continuous function, so, if there are  $h$ 's such that we can push the limit inside the exponential function in the following argument,

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} (1+h)^{1/h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \exp[\ln(1+h)^{1/h}] = \exp \left[ \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \ln(1+h)^{1/h} \right] = \exp 1 = e$$

For another proof of Theorem A, see Problem 52 of Section 6.4.

**EXAMPLE 5** Suppose that the bank of Example 3 compounded interest continuously. If we deposited \$1,000, how long would it take to reach \$1.5 million?

**SOLUTION**

$$A(t) = A_0 e^{rt} = 500e^{0.04kt} \approx 1,503,750$$

Note that enough wise banks try to get richer using the exponential function, and money compounds at interest. As the time  $t$  tends to infinity, all banks will grow equally, compounding, which makes bank choice an issue.

Here is another perspective on the problem of continuous compounding. Let  $A$  be the value at time  $t$  of a quantity at the present time  $t = 0$  that interest is compounded continuously at rate  $r$ . The instantaneous rate of change of  $A$  with respect to time is  $dA/dt$ , that is,

$$\frac{dA}{dt} = rA$$

This differential equation was solved at the beginning of the section—solution is  $A = A_0 e^{rt}$ .

## Concepts Review

1. The rate of change  $dy/dx$  of a quantity  $y$  growing exponentially satisfies the differential equation  $dy/dx = \frac{1}{T}y$ . In words, if  $y$  is growing large enough to find an  $x$  such that  $y$  is

2. If a quantity growing exponentially doubles after  $T$  years, it will be \_\_\_\_\_ times as large after  $3T$  years.

3. The time for an exponentially decaying quantity  $y$  to go from size  $y_0$  to size  $y_0/2$  is called the \_\_\_\_\_.

4. The number  $e$  can be expressed as a limit by  $e = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n$ .

## Problem Set 6.5

In Problems 1–4, solve the given differential equation subject to the given condition. Note that  $y(0)$  denotes the value of  $y$  at  $t = 0$ .

1. If  $\frac{dy}{dt} = 0.2y$ ,  $y(0) = 4$

2. If  $\frac{dy}{dt} = 0.1y$ ,  $y(0) = 1$

3. If  $\frac{dy}{dt} = 0.05y$ ,  $y(0) = 2$

4. If  $\frac{dy}{dt} = 0.01y$ ,  $y(0) = 1$

5. A bacteria population grows at a rate proportional to its size. Initially it is 10,000, and after 10 days it is 20,000. What is the population after 25 days? See Example 2.

6. How long will it take the population of Problem 5 to double? See Example 3.

7. How long will it take the population of Problem 5 to triple? See Example 4.

8. The population of the United States was 240 million in 1970 and 280 million in 1980. If the rate of growth is assumed proportional to the number present, what would be the U.S. population in 2000? (The actual population was 275 million.)

9. The population of a certain country is growing at 1.2% per year. It is 10 million in 1990. What will be the population at the end of the year 2000? Assuming that it is 1.5 million now, what will it be at the end of 1 year? 2 years? 10 years? 100 years?

10. Determine the proportionality constant  $k$  in  $\frac{dy}{dt} = ky$  for Problem 8. Then use  $y = 4.5e^{kt}$  to find the population after 10 years.

11. A population is growing at a rate proportional to its size. After 5 years, the population size was 104,100. After 12 years, the population size was 249,000. What was the original population size?

12. The rate of a tumor grows at a rate proportional to its size. The first measurement of its size was 4 grams. Four months later its mass was 6.76 grams. How large was the tumor six months before the first measurement? If the instrument can detect tumors of three grams or greater, would the tumor have been detected at that time?

13. A radioactive substance has a half-life of 700 years. If there were 10 grams initially, how much would be left after 700 years?

14. If a radioactive substance loses 15% of its radioactivity in 2 days, what is its half-life?

15. Cesium-137 and strontium-90 are two radioactive chemicals that were released at the Chernobyl nuclear reactor in April 1986. The half-life of cesium-137 is 30.22 years, and that of strontium-90 is 28.8 years. In what year will the amount of cesium-137 be equal to 5% of what was released? Answer this question for strontium-90.

16. An unknown amount of a radioactive substance is being studied. After two days, the mass is 15.231 grams. After eight days, the mass is 9.618 grams. How much was there initially? What is the half-life of this substance?

17. (Carbon Dating) All living things contain carbon-14, which is stable, and carbon-12, which is stable, as well. While an animal is alive, the ratio of these two isotopes of carbon remains unchanged. After the carbon-14 is continually renewed after death, no more carbon-14 is absorbed. The half-life of carbon-14 is 5730 years. If charred logs at an archaeological site show only 70% of the carbon-14 expected in living material, when did the logs burn down? Assume that the logs burned soon after it was built of freshly cut logs.

18. Human hair from a grave in Aachen proved to have only 61% of the carbon-14 of living tissue. When was the body buried?

19. An object is taken from an oven at 300°F and left to cool in a room at 50°F. If the temperature fell to 200°F in 4 hours, what is the cooling constant?

20. A thermometer registered -20°C outside and then was brought into a house where the temperature was 30°C. After 3 minutes it registered 0°C. What will it register 30°C?

21. An object initially at 20°C is placed in water, having temperature 40°C. If the thermometer of the object falls to 30°C in 3 minutes, what will be the temperature after 10 minutes?

22. A batch of brownies is taken from a 350°F oven and placed in a refrigerator at 40°F and left to cool. After 5 minutes, the brownies have cooled to 150°F. When will the temperature of the brownies be 70°F?

23. A dead body is found at 11:00 to have temperature 82°F. One hour later the temperature was 70°F. The temperature of the room was a constant 70°F. Assuming that the temperature of the body was 90°F when it was added to the room at 10:00,

24. Solve the differential equation for Newton's Law of Cooling for an arbitrary  $T_0$ ,  $T$ , and  $k$ , assuming that  $T_0 > T$ . Show that  $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} f(t) = T$ .

25. If \$175 is put in the bank today, what will be the worth at the end of 2 years if interest is 3.5% and is compounded (a) annually, (b) monthly, (c) daily, (d) continuously?

26. Do Problem 25 assuming that the interest rate is 4.5%.

27. How long does it take money to double in value for the fixed interest rate (a) 6% compounded monthly, (b) 6% compounded continuously?

28. Inflation between 1969 and 2004 ran at about 3.5% per year. If the price of a car was \$10,000 in 1969, what would have been the price of a car in 2004? If the price of a car was \$10,000 in 2004, what would have been the price of a car in 1969?

29. Manhattan Island is said to have been bought by Peter Minuit in 1624 for \$24. Suppose that Minuit had instead put the \$24 in the bank at 6% interest compounded continuously. What would that \$24 have been worth in 2004?

30. If Methuselah's parents had put \$100 in the bank for him at birth and he left it there, what would Methuselah have had at his death (969 years later) if interest was 4% compounded annually?

31. Find the value of \$1000 at the end of 1 year when the interest is compounded continuously at 5%. This is called the future value.

32. Suppose that after 1 year you have \$1000 in the bank. If the interest was compounded continuously at 5%, how much money did you put in the bank one year ago? This is called the present value.

33. It will be shown later (in Section 5.3) that  $\ln(1+x) \approx x$ . Use this fact to show that the doubling time for money invested at  $p$  percent compounded annually is about  $\ln 2/p$  years.

34. The equation for logistic growth is

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = k_1 y - k_2 y^2$$

Show that this differential equation has the solution

$$y = \frac{k_1 y_0}{k_1 + k_2 y_0 (e^{kt} - 1)}$$

$$\text{Hint: } \frac{y}{y(k_1 + k_2 y)} = \frac{1}{k_1} + \frac{1}{k_2(k_1 + k_2 y)}$$

35. Sketch the graph of the solution in Problem 34 when  $y_0 = 1$ ,  $k_1 = 10$ , and  $k_2 = 0.001$  as a logistic model for world population; see the discussion at the beginning of this section. Note that  $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} y = 10$ .

36. Find each of the following limits.

- (a)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x + x^{1000}$  (b)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (1+x)^{1/x}$   
 (c)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x} = \infty$ ,  $x \rightarrow 0^+$  (d)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x} = -\infty$ ,  $x \rightarrow 0^-$   
 (e)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x + x^{1/10}$

37. Use the fact that  $x = \frac{1}{n} \ln(1+x)$  to find each limit.

- (a)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (1+x)^{1/x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (1+x)^{1/x} \ln(1+x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (1+x) \ln(1+x)$   
 (b)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (1+x)^{1/x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (1+x)^{1/x} \ln(1+x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (1+x) \ln(1+x)$   
 (c)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (1+x)^{1/x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (1+x)^{1/x} \ln(1+x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (1+x) \ln(1+x)$

38. Show that the differential equation

$$y' = y(1-y)$$

has solution

$$y = \frac{1}{1 + Ce^{-x}}$$

Assume that  $y \neq 0$ .

39. Consider a country with a population of 10 million in 1985, a growth rate of 1.2% per year, and immigration from other countries of 60,000 per year. Use the differential equation in Problem 38 to model this situation and predict the population in 2012. Take  $x = 0$  in 1985.

40. Important news is said to diffuse through an adult population of size  $N$  at a time rate proportional to the number of people who have not heard the news. Five days after a scandal in City Hall was reported, a poll showed that half the people had heard it. How long will it take for 99% of the people to hear it?

**5.2. Besides providing an easy way to differentiate products, the arithmetic differentiation also provides a measure of the relative or fractional rate of change of a function.** We explore this question in Problems 41–44.

41. Show that the relative rate of change of  $e^{kt}$  is a function of  $t$  and  $k$ .

42. Show that the relative rate of change of any polynomial approaches zero as the independent variable approaches infinity.

43. Prove that if the relative rate of change is a positive constant then the function must represent exponential growth.

44. Prove that if the relative rate of change is a negative constant then the function must represent exponential decay.

45. Assume that (1) world population continues to grow exponentially with growth constant  $k = 0.0112$ , (2) it takes 6 acres of land to supply food for one person, and (3) there are 13,265,000,000 acres of arable land in the world. How long will it be before the world reaches the maximum population? Note: There were 4.4 billion people in 2004 and 1 square mile is 640 acres.

46. The Census Bureau estimates that the growth rate  $k$  of the world population will decrease by roughly 0.11% per year in the next few decades. In 2004,  $k$  was 0.0132.

- (a) Express  $k$  as a function of year  $t$ , where  $t$  is measured in years since 2004.  
 (b) Find a differential equation that models the population  $y$  in the problem.  
 (c) Solve the differential equation with the additional condition that the population in 2004 ( $t = 0$ ) was 6.4 billion.  
 (d) Graph the population  $y$  in the next 50 years.

With this model, when will the population reach a maximum? When will the population drop below the 2004 level?

47. Repeat Exercise 46 under the assumption that  $k$  will decrease by 0.001% per year.

48. Let  $f$  be a differentiable function satisfying  $F(u + v) = F(u)F(v)$  for all  $u$  and  $v$ . Find a formula for  $f'(x)$ . Does  $F$  have  $f'(x)$ ?

49. Using the same axes, draw the graphs for (a) and (b) of the following two models for the growth of world population (both described in this section).

- (a) Exponential growth:  $y = 6.4e^{0.0112t}$   
 (b) Logistic growth:  $y = 102.4/(1 + 10e^{-0.0112t})$

Compare what the two models predict for world population in 2012, 2040, and 2060. Note: Both models assume that world population in 2004 was 6.4 billion.

**5.3. Exponential**

- (a)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (1+x)^{1/x} = e$  (b)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (1-x)^{1/x} = 1/e$

The limit in part (a) determines  $e$ . What special number does the limit in part (b) determine?

$$1. \text{ half-life } 2. \text{ } 1 + h^{1/2} \quad 3. \text{ half-life } 4. \text{ } 1 + h^{1/2}$$

## 6.6 First-Order Linear Differential Equations

We first solved differential equations in Section 4.9. There we developed the method of separation of variables for finding a solution. In the previous section we used the method of separation of variables to solve differential equations involving growth and decay.

Not all differential equations are *separable*. For example, in the differential equation

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 7x - 4$$

there is no way to separate the variables in such a way as to have all terms involving  $y$  on one side and all terms involving  $x$  on the other side. This equation can, however, be put in the form

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + P(x)y = Q(x)$$

where  $P(x)$  and  $Q(x)$  are functions of  $x$  only. A differential equation of this form is said to be a **first-order linear differential equation**. Furthermore, we call the differential equation *homogeneous* if  $Q(x) = 0$  and *nonhomogeneous* if  $Q(x) \neq 0$ . We write the differential equation in the standard form  $Dy + P(x)y = Q(x)$ , where  $D$  is the differential operator and  $I$  is the identity operator (that is,  $Iy = y$ ). Both  $D$  and  $I$  are linear operators.

The family of all solutions of a differential equation is called the **general solution**. Many problems require that the solution satisfy the condition  $y = y_0$  when  $x = x_0$ , where  $x_0$  and  $y_0$  are constants. Such a condition is called an **initial condition**, and a function that satisfies the differential equation and the initial condition is called a **particular solution**.

**Now Work** PROBLEM 11 In Example 1, we solve the first-order linear differential equation by first multiplying both sides by the **integrating factor**

$$e^{\int P(x) dx}$$

The reason for this step will become clear shortly. The differential equation is then

$$e^{\int P(x) dx} \frac{dy}{dx} + e^{\int P(x) dx} P(x)y = e^{\int P(x) dx} Q(x)$$

The left side is the derivative of the product  $y e^{\int P(x) dx}$ . The equation takes the form

$$\frac{d}{dx} (y e^{\int P(x) dx}) = e^{\int P(x) dx} Q(x)$$

Integration of both sides yields

$$y e^{\int P(x) dx} = \int e^{\int P(x) dx} Q(x) dx + C$$

The general solution is thus

$$y = e^{-\int P(x) dx} \left( \int e^{\int P(x) dx} Q(x) dx + C \right)$$

Do not wish to memorize this final result; the process of getting here is easier recalled and that is what we illustrate.

**EXAMPLE 1** Solve

$$\frac{dy}{dx} + \frac{y}{x} = \frac{\sin x^2}{x}$$

**SOLUTION** Our integrating factor is

$$e^{\int -3x \, dx} = e^{-\frac{3}{2}x^2} \quad dx = e^{-\frac{3}{2}x^2} dx = e^{-\frac{3}{2}x^2} \cdot dx = y$$

(We have taken the arbitrary constant from the integration  $\int -3x \, dx$  to be 0. The choice for the constant does not affect the answer. See Problems 27 and 28.) Multiplying both sides of the original equation by  $e^{-\frac{3}{2}x^2}$  we obtain

$$x \frac{dy}{dx} + 3xy = \sin x$$

The left side of this equation is the derivative of the product  $y e^{-\frac{3}{2}x^2}$ . Thus,

$$\frac{d}{dx}(x^2 y) = \sin 3x$$

Integration of both sides yields

$$x^2 y = \int \sin 3x \, dx = -\frac{1}{3} \cos 3x + C$$

or

$$y = \left(-\frac{1}{3} \cos 3x + C\right)x^{-2}$$

**EXAMPLE 2** Find the particular solution of

$$\frac{dy}{dx} - 3y = xe$$

that satisfies  $y = 4$  when  $x = 0$ .

**SOLUTION** The appropriate integrating factor is

$$e^{\int -3x \, dx} = e^{-\frac{3}{2}x^2}$$

If you multiply both by this factor, our equation takes the form

$$\frac{d}{dx}(x^2 y) = x e^{-\frac{3}{2}x^2}$$

or

$$x^2 y = \int x e^{-\frac{3}{2}x^2} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot 2 \, dx + C$$

Thus the general solution is

$$x^2 y = e^{-\frac{3}{2}x^2} + C$$

Substitution of  $x = 0$  when  $y = 4$  makes  $C = 4$ . The desired particular solution is

$$y = \frac{e^{-\frac{3}{2}x^2} + 4}{x^2}$$

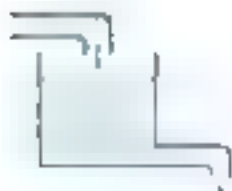


Figure 1

**Applications** We begin with a mixture problem. (A good if not a profitable problem is the one in chemistry.)

**EXAMPLE 3** A tank initially contains 120 gallons of brine, holding 25 pounds of dissolved salt in solution. Salt water containing 20 pounds of salt per gallon is entering the tank at the rate of 2 gallons per minute, and brine flows out at the same rate (Figure 1). If the mixture is kept uniform by constant stirring, find the amount of salt in the tank at the end of 1 hour.

**A General Principle**

In flow problems such as Example 3, we apply a general principle. Let  $y$  measure the quantity of substance in the tank at time  $t$ . Then the rate of change of  $y$  with respect to time is the input rate minus the output rate that is

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = \text{rate in} - \text{rate out}.$$

**STOCK PROBLEM** Let  $x$  be the number of pounds of salt in the tank at the end of  $t$  minutes. Then the brine flowing in the tank gives  $2 + 4x$  pounds of salt per minute. From that flowing out, it loses  $40x$  pounds per minute. Thus,

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = 2 + 4x - 40x,$$

subject to the condition  $x = 75$  when  $t = 0$ . The equivalent equation

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = -36x + 2$$

has the integrating factor  $e^{-36t}$  and so

$$\frac{d}{dt}(xe^{-36t}) = 2e^{-36t}.$$

We conclude that

$$xe^{-36t} = \int -2e^{-36t} dt = \frac{2}{36}e^{-36t} + C = \frac{1}{18}e^{-36t} + C.$$

Substituting  $x = 75$  when  $t = 0$  yields  $C = -69$  and so

$$x = e^{36t}\left[\frac{1}{18}e^{-36t} - 69\right] = \frac{1}{18} - 69e^{36t}.$$

At the end of 1 hour ( $t = 60$ ),

$$\frac{1}{18} - 69e^{2160} \approx 118.62 \text{ pounds.}$$

Note that the limiting value for  $x$  as  $t \rightarrow \infty$  is  $1/18$ , which corresponds to the fact that the tank will eventually take in  $2 + 4x$  pounds of salt per minute and lose the same amount of salt per minute. Thus, with a concentration of  $1/18$  pounds of salt per gallon, the tank will contain  $1/18$  pounds of salt.

We turn next to an example in which electricity, according to **Kirchhoff's Law**, is applied in a circuit. In Figure 2, a constant voltage source with an electromotive force of 6 volts is in series with a resistor with a resistance of 6 ohms and a switch  $S$ . The inductive force of a battery or generator that supplies a voltage of  $Et$  volts opposes the supplies.

$$L \frac{dI}{dt} + RI = E(t),$$

where  $I$  is the current measured in amperes. This is a linear equation easily solved by the method of this section.

**EXAMPLE 4** Consider a circuit (Figure 2) with  $L = 2$  henrys,  $R = 6$  ohms, and a battery supplying a constant voltage of 6 volts. ( $E(t) = 6$  volts when the switch  $S$  is closed), find  $I$  at time  $t$ .

**SOLUTION** The differential equation is

$$2 \frac{dI}{dt} + 6I = 6 \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{dI}{dt} + 3I = 3.$$

To find an integrating factor, we multiply both sides by  $e^{3t}$  and multiply by  $e^{-3t}$ . We obtain

$$Ie^{3t} = \int 3e^{-3t} dt = -e^{-3t} + C.$$

The initial condition,  $I = 0$  at  $t = 0$ , gives  $C = -2$ , hence

$$I = 2 - 2e^{-3t}.$$

As  $t$  increases, the current tends toward a current of 2 amperes.

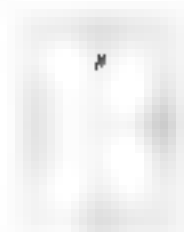


Figure 2



## Concepts Review

1. The general first-order linear differential equation has the form  $y' + P(x)y = Q(x)$ . An integrating factor for this equation is

2. Multiplying both sides of the first-order linear differential equation in Question 1 by its integrating factor makes the left side

3. The integrating factor for  $dy/dx + (1/x^2)y = x$ , where  $x > 0$ , is . When we multiply both sides by this factor, the equation takes the form . The general solution is this equation is

4. The solution to the differential equation in Question 3 satisfying  $y(1) = 0$  is . Then  $y = 0$  when

## Problem Set 6.6

In Problems 1–14, solve each differential equation.

1.  $y' + y = e^x$

3.  $y' + y = e^{x^2}$

4.  $y' + y = \ln x$

5.  $y' + y = x$

6.  $y' + y = f(x)$

7.  $y' + y = 1$

8.  $y' + y = 0$

9.  $y' + y = x^2$

10.  $\frac{dy}{dx} + 2y = x$  Hint:  $\int x e^{2x} dx = \frac{x}{2} - \frac{1}{4}e^{-2x} + C$

11.  $\frac{dy}{dx} + \frac{y}{x} = 3x^2$ ,  $y = 3$  when  $x = 1$

12.  $y' + y = 0$  when  $x = 0$

13.  $xy' + y^2 = x^2y + e^x$ ,  $y = 0$  when  $x = 1$

14.  $xy' + \frac{y}{x} = 2y$  on  $x = \ln 2$ ;  $y = 2$  when  $x = \frac{e}{2}$

15. A tank contains 30 gallons of solution with pounds of chemical A in it. A solution containing the same chemical in a concentration of 2 pounds per gallon is poured at a rate of 3 gallons per minute while simultaneously draining off the resulting (well-stirred) solution at the same rate. Find the amount of chemical A in the tank at  $t = 70$  minutes.

16. A tank initially contains 200 gallons of brine, with 50 pounds of salt in solution. Brine containing 2 pounds of salt per gallon is entering the tank at the rate of 4 gallons per minute and is flowing out at the same rate. If the brine in the tank is kept uniformly well-stirred, how long will it take for the tank to be empty at 40 minutes?

17. A tank initially contains 20 gallons of pure water. Brine with 3 pounds of salt per gallon flows into the tank at 4 gallons per minute, and the well-stirred solution runs out at 6 gallons per minute. How much salt is in the tank after  $t$  minutes,  $0 \leq t \leq 60$ ?

18. A tank initially contains 40 gallons of brine with 10 pounds of salt in solution. Water runs into the tank at 3 gallons per minute and the well-stirred solution runs out at 2 gallons per minute. How long will it be until there are 25 pounds of salt in the tank?

19. Find the current  $I$  as a function of time for the circuit in Figure 3, assuming that the switch is closed and  $i = 0$  at  $t = 0$ .

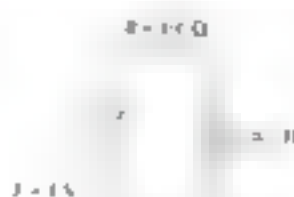


Figure 3

20. Find  $i$  as a function of time for the circuit in Figure 4, assuming that the switch is closed and  $i = 0$  at  $t = 0$ .



21. Find  $i$  as a function of time for the circuit in Figure 5, assuming that the switch is closed and  $i = 0$  at  $t = 0$ .

22. Suppose that tank 1 initially contains 100 gallons of solution with 50 pounds of dissolved salt and tank 2 contains 200 gallons with 30 pounds of dissolved salt. Pure water flows into tank 1 at 2 gallons per minute, the well-stirred solution flows out into tank 2 at the same rate, and finally, the solution in tank 2 drains away also at the same rate. Let  $x(t)$  and  $y(t)$  denote the amount of salt in tanks 1 and 2, respectively, at time  $t$ . First find  $x(t)$  and use it in setting up the differential equation for tank 2.

23. A tank of capacity 100 gallons is initially full of pure alcohol. The flow rate of the drain pipe is 5 gallons per minute; the flow rate of the filler pipe can be adjusted to  $c$  gallons per minute. An unlimited amount of 75% alcohol solution can be brought in through the filler pipe. Our goal is to reduce the amount of alcohol in the tank so that it will contain 100 gallons of 50% solution. Let  $t$  be the number of minutes required to accomplish the de-alcoholization.

(a) Evaluate  $t(c)$  if  $c = 5$  and both pipes are opened

- (b) Evaluate  $f$  at  $x = 5$  and we find from away a sufficient amount of the pipe needed, and then close the drain and open the other pipe.
- (c) For what values of  $x$  (if any) would strategy (b) give a faster rate than (a)?
- (d) Suppose that  $c = 4$ . Determine the equation for  $T$  if we initially open both pipes and then close the drain.

**EXPL 24.** The differential equation for a falling body near the earth's surface with air resistance proportional to the velocity  $v$  is  $dv/dt = g - kv$ , where  $g = 32$  feet per second per second is the acceleration of gravity and  $k > 0$  is the drag coefficient. Determine each of the following.

- (a)  $v(t) = v_0 - kv_0 e^{-kt} + g/k$ , where  $v_0 = v(0)$ , and

$$v(t) = \lim_{k \rightarrow 0} v(t, k)$$

is so-called terminal velocity.

- (b) If  $h(t)$  denotes the altitude, then

$$h(t) = h_0 + vt_0 + \frac{1}{2}at_0^2 + h_0(1 - e^{-kt}) - \frac{g}{k}(1 - e^{-kt})$$

**25.** A ball is thrown straight up from ground level with an initial velocity  $v_0 = 20$  feet per second. Assuming a drag coefficient of  $k = 0.15$ , determine each of the following.

- (a) the maximum altitude
- (b) an equation for  $T$ , the time when the ball hits the ground

**26.** Mary bailed out of her plane at an altitude of 4000 feet, fell freely for 5 seconds, and then opened her parachute. Assume that the drag coefficients are  $k = 0.10$  for free fall and  $k = 1.4$  with the parachute. What did she land?

**27.** For the differential equation  $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{y}{x} + x^2 + x + 1$ , the integrating factor is  $x^{1/2}$ . The general antiderivative  $\int \frac{1}{x^{1/2}} dx$  is equal to  $\ln x + C$ .

- (a) Multiply both sides of the differential equation by  $\exp \int \frac{1}{x^{1/2}} dx$  and show that

$$\exp \int \frac{1}{x^{1/2}} dx \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{y}{x} + x^2 + x + 1$$

- (b) Solve the resulting equation to find  $y$ , and show that it agrees with the general solution given before Example 1.

**28.** Multiply both sides of the equation  $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 2x \frac{dy}{dx} + y = 2/x$  by the factor

- (a) Show that  $e^{x^2}$  is an integrating factor for every value of  $x$ .

- (b) Solve the resulting equation for  $y$ , and show that it agrees with the general solution given before Example 1.

**WORKING TOGETHER PROBLEM 1.**  $\exp \int P(x) dx$

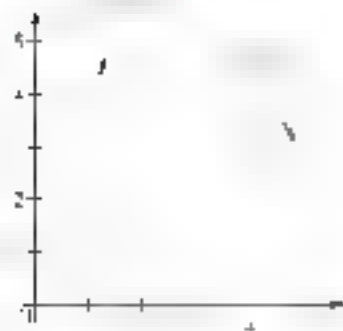
$$2. \exp \int P(x) dx = 2. \exp \int \left( \frac{1}{x} \right) dx = 2. \exp \ln x = 2x$$

$$3. y = x^2 + 1$$

## 6.7

### Approximations for Differential Equations

The function  $f$  depends on two variables. Since  $y(x, y) = f(x, y)$ , the slope of a solution depends on both the  $x$  and  $y$  coordinates. In Section 6.5, we saw how to solve for  $y$  in terms of  $x$ . We will study that further in Chapter 12.



In the previous section we studied a number of differential equations, but a few from physical applications. For each equation we were given a physical condition and multiple solution. For example, we found more than one function that satisfies the equation. Many differential equations do not have explicit solutions, so we must use numerical means to find solutions. For approximations, in this section we will study the ways we approximate a solution to a differential equation. One method is graphical and the other is numerical.

**EXAMPLE 1** Consider a first-order differential equation of the form

$$y' = f(x, y)$$

This equation says that at its point  $(x, y)$ , the slope of its solution is given by  $f(x, y)$ . For example, the differential equation  $y' = x + y$  says that the slope of the curve passing through the point  $(2, 3)$  is equal to 5.

If the differential equation is  $y' = x + y$ , at the point  $(5, 1)$  the slope of the solution is  $y' = 5 + 1 = 6$ ; at the point  $(1, 4)$  the slope is  $y' = 1 + 4 = 5$ . We can illustrate graphically the solution by drawing a short line segment through the point  $(1, 4)$  having slope 5 (see Figure 1).

If we repeat this process for a number of ordered pairs  $(x, y)$ , we obtain a slope field. Since plotting a slope field is tedious, it is done on some computer in best use for comparison. *Mathcad* and *Maple* are capable of plotting slope fields. Figure 2 shows a slope field for the differential equation  $y' = x + y$ . In this construction we can follow the slopes to obtain a rough approximation to the particular solution. We can often see from the slope field the behavior of all solutions to the differential equation.



FIGURE 3

**EXAMPLE 3** Suppose that the size  $y$  of a population satisfies the differential equation  $y' = y(10 - y)$ . The slope field for the differential equation is shown in Figure 3.

(a) Sketch the solution that satisfies the initial condition  $y(0) = 3$ .

Describe the behavior of solutions when

(b)  $y(0) > 10$ , and (c)  $0 < y(0) < 10$ .



FIGURE 4

**SOLUTION**

(a) The solution that satisfies the initial condition  $y(0) = 3$  contains the point  $(0, 3)$ . From that point on, the right-hand solution in Figure 3 shows the slope field. The curve in Figure 5 shows a graph of the solution.

(b) If  $y(0) > 10$ , then the solution decreases toward the horizontal asymptote  $y = 10$ .

(c) If  $0 < y(0) < 10$ , then the solution increases toward the horizontal asymptote  $y = 10$ .

Parts (b) and (c) indicate that the size of the population will increase toward the value 10 for any initial population size. ■

**EXAMPLE 4** We now consider differential equations of the form  $y' = f(x, y)$  with a initial condition  $y(x_0) = y_0$ . Keep in mind that  $f$  is a function of  $x$  whether we write it explicitly or not. The initial condition  $(x_0, y_0)$  is such that the point  $(x_0, y_0)$  is a point on the graph of a solution. We now know more about the unknown solution: the slope of the tangent line to the solution at  $x_0$  is  $f(x_0, y_0)$ . This information is summarized in Figure 4.

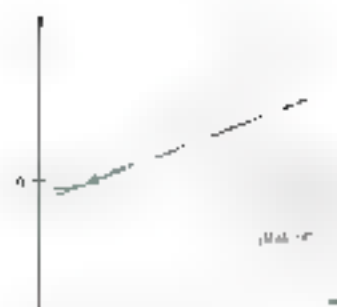
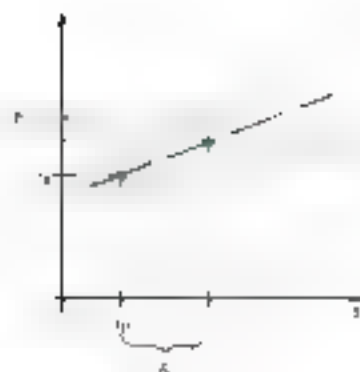


FIGURE 5



If  $h$  is positive but small, we would expect the tangent line which has equation

$$P_1(x) = y_0 + f(x_0, y_0)(x - x_0) = y_0 + h f(x_0, y_0) = y_1$$

to be close to the solution  $y(x)$  over the interval  $[x_0, x_0 + h]$ . Let  $x = x_0 + h$ . Then at  $x_1$  we have

$$P_1(x_1) = y_0 + h f(x_0) = y_0 + h f(x_0, y_0)$$

Setting  $y_1 = y_0 + h f(x_0, y_0)$ , we now have an approximation for the solution at  $x_1$ . Figure 5 illustrates the method we have just described.

Since  $y = f(x, y)$ , we know that the slope of the solution when  $x = x_1$  is  $f(x_1, y_1)$ . At this point we do not know  $y(x_1)$ , but we do have the approximation for  $y_1$  for it. Thus, we repeat the process to obtain the approximation  $y_2$  for the solution at the point  $x_2 = x_1 + h$ . This process, when repeated in this fashion, is called **Euler's Method** named after the Swiss mathematician Leonhard Euler (1707–1783). The step size  $h$  is often called the **step size**.

### Algorithm Euler's Method

To approximate the solution of the differential equation  $y' = f(x, y)$  with initial condition  $y(x_0) = y_0$  on the interval  $[x_0, x_0 + h]$ , follow the steps in 1–2, where  $h = 1, 2, \dots$ .

1. Set  $x_1 = x_0 + h$ .
2. Set  $y_1 = y_0 + h f(x_0, y_0)$ .

Remember, the solution to a differential equation is a *function*. Euler's Method, however, does not yield a function; rather, it gives a set of approximate points  $(x_i, y_i)$ . One approximates the solution. Here, one said that one line is enough to describe the solution to the differential equation.

Notice the difference between  $y_1$  and  $y_0$  is  $h f(x_0, y_0)$ , the value of the exact solution at  $x_0$  and  $y_0$  is our approximation to the exact solution at  $x_1$ . In other words,  $y_1$  is our approximation to  $y(x_1)$ .

**EXAMPLE 1** Use Euler's Method with  $h = 0.2$  to approximate the solution to

$$y' = y, \quad y(0) = 1$$

over the interval  $[0, 1]$ .

**SOLUTION** For this problem,  $f(x, y) = y$ . Beginning with  $x_0 = 0$  and  $y_0 = 1$ , we have

$$y_1 = y_0 + h f(x_0, y_0) = 1 + 0.2(1) = 1.2$$

$$x_1 = 0.2 = 0.2 + 0.2 = 0.4$$

$$y_2 = 1.44 = 0.2 + 1.44 = 1.728$$

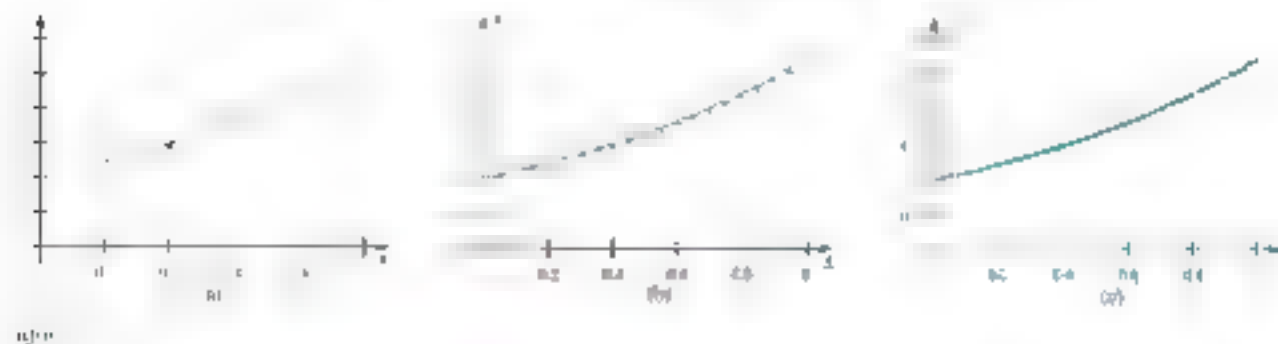
$$x_2 = 0.4 = 0.2 + 0.4 = 0.6$$

$$y_3 = 2.0736 = 0.2 + 2.0736 = 2.48832$$

| $n$ | $x_n$ | $y_n$  | $y^n$  |
|-----|-------|--------|--------|
| 0   | 0     | 1      | 1.0000 |
| 1   | 0.2   | 1.2    | 1.4400 |
| 2   | 0.4   | 1.44   | 1.7714 |
| 3   | 0.6   | 1.7714 | 2.1735 |
| 4   | 0.8   | 2.1735 | 2.6824 |
| 5   | 1.0   | 2.6824 | 3.3586 |

The differential equation  $y' = y$  says that  $y$  is its own derivative. Thus, we know that a solution is  $y(x) = e^x$  and in fact  $y(x) = e^x$  is the solution, since we are told that  $y(0) = 1$ . In this case, we can compare the five estimated values from Euler's Method with the exact values as shown in the table in Figure 6a. Figure 6a shows the five approximations  $y_1, y_2, y_3, y_4, y_5$  to the solution. Figure 6b also shows the exact solution  $y(x) = e^x$ , choosing a smaller  $h$ .

will usually result in a more accurate approximation. Of course a smaller  $h$  means that it will take more steps to get to  $x = 1$ .



**EXAMPLE 3** Use Euler's Method to approximate the solution to

$$y' = y, \quad y(0) = 1$$

over the interval  $[0, 1]$ .

**SOLUTION** We proceed as in Example 1, but with the step size  $h = 0.05$  and get the following table.

| $n$ | $x_n$ | $y_n$   | $n$ | $x_n$ | $y_n$   |
|-----|-------|---------|-----|-------|---------|
| 0   | 0.00  | 1.00000 | 10  | 0.50  | 1.64872 |
| 1   | 0.05  | 1.05127 | 11  | 0.55  | 1.72456 |
| 2   | 0.10  | 1.10488 | 12  | 0.60  | 1.80326 |
| 3   | 0.15  | 1.16103 | 13  | 0.65  | 1.88505 |
| 4   | 0.20  | 1.21982 | 14  | 0.70  | 1.97007 |
| 5   | 0.25  | 1.28135 | 15  | 0.75  | 2.05847 |
| 6   | 0.30  | 1.34582 | 16  | 0.80  | 2.15040 |
| 7   | 0.35  | 1.41343 | 17  | 0.85  | 2.24603 |
| 8   | 0.40  | 1.48441 | 18  | 0.90  | 2.34553 |
| 9   | 0.45  | 1.55896 | 19  | 0.95  | 2.44906 |
| 10  | 0.50  | 1.63735 | 20  | 1.00  | 2.55684 |

| $n$ | $x_n$ | $y_n$   |
|-----|-------|---------|
| 0   | 0.00  | 1.00000 |
| 1   | 0.05  | 1.05127 |
| 2   | 0.10  | 1.10488 |
| 3   | 0.15  | 1.16103 |
| 4   | 0.20  | 1.21982 |
| 5   | 0.25  | 1.28135 |
| 6   | 0.30  | 1.34582 |
| 7   | 0.35  | 1.41343 |
| 8   | 0.40  | 1.48441 |
| 9   | 0.45  | 1.55896 |
| 10  | 0.50  | 1.63735 |

Figure 56 shows the approximation to the solution when Euler's Method with  $h = 0.05$  is used.

Example 3 also provides useful data for the case when  $h = 0.025$ ; see Figure 56. The data are summarized in the table in the margin and in Figure 56.

Notice in Example 3 that as the step size  $h$  decreases, the approximation to  $y(1)$  (which in this case is  $e \approx 2.71828$ ) improves. When  $h = 0.025$ , the approximation is  $y_{20} = 2.718282 - 2.55684 = 0.229962$ . Approximations to the error for other step sizes are shown in the following table.

| $h$      | Euler's approximation of $y(1)$ | $e - y_{20}$ | Estimate |
|----------|---------------------------------|--------------|----------|
| 0.2      | 2.488120                        | 0.229962     |          |
| 0.1      | 2.593542                        | 0.124540     |          |
| 0.05     | 2.683298                        | 0.034984     |          |
| 0.025    | 2.718282                        | 0.000000     |          |
| $\infty$ | $e$                             | 0.000000     | 0.229962 |

Note in the table that as the step size  $h$  is halved the error is approximately halved. The error at a given point is therefore roughly proportional to the step size  $h$ . We found a similar result with numerical integration in Section 6.6: here we say that the error for the left or right Riemann Sum Rule is proportional to  $h = 1/n$  and that the error for the Trapezoid Rule is proportional to  $h^2 = 1/n^2$ . The Runge-Kutta Rule is even better, but its error is proportional to  $h^4 = 1/n^4$ . This raises the question of whether such are better methods for approximating the solution of  $y' = f(x, y)$ ,  $y(x_0) = y_0$ . In fact, there are a number of methods that are better than Euler's. We look at these next, but first we mention some important issues. If  $y$  is the solution of a differential equation, then the solution is unique. If there are methods that are conceptually similar to Euler's Method, but are step methods that do not begin with the direction and magnitude of the slope at the initial solution at each of a number of steps, then such methods are called **Fourth-Order Runge-Kutta Method**. has an error that is proportional to  $h^4 = 1/n^4$ .

## Concepts Review

- For the differential equation  $y' = f(x, y)$ , a plot of line segments whose slopes equal  $f(x, y)$  is called a \_\_\_\_\_.
- The basis for Euler's Method is that the \_\_\_\_\_ in the solution at  $x_0$  will be a good approximation to the solution over the interval \_\_\_\_\_.
- The recursive formula for the approximation to the solution of a differential equation using Euler's Method is  $y_n =$  \_\_\_\_\_.
- If the solution of a differential equation is concave up then Euler's Method will \_\_\_\_\_ (underestimate or overestimate) the solution.

## Problem Set 6.7

In Problems 1–4, a slope field is given for a differential equation of the form  $y' = f(x, y)$ . Use the slope field to sketch the solution that satisfies the given initial condition. Be sure to label the axes and the slope field.

1.  $y(0) = 5$



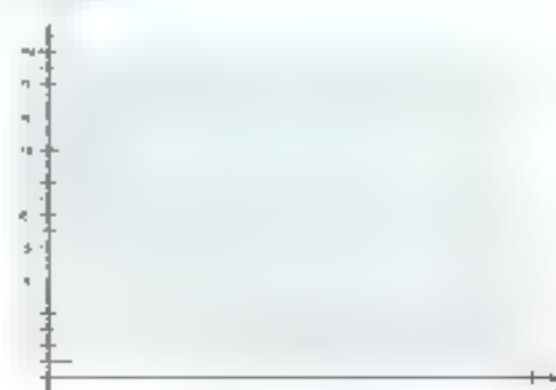
2.  $y(0) = 6$



3.  $y(0) = 4$



4.  $y(0) = 3$



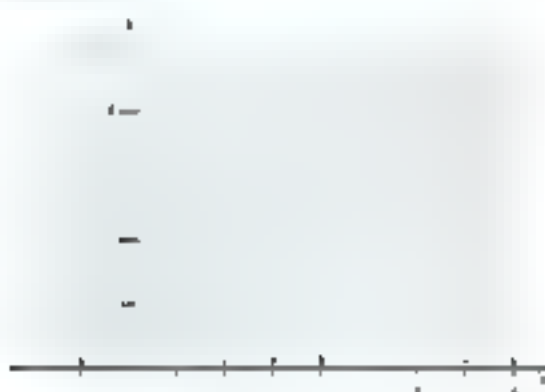
In Problems 5 and 6, a slope field is given for a differential equation of the form  $y' = f(x, y)$ . In both cases, every solution has the

some oblique asymptote (see Section 3.5). Sketch the solution that satisfies the given initial condition, and find the equation of the oblique asymptote.

5.  $y' = 1 - y$



6.  $y(0) = 0$



11. In Problems 7–10, plot a slope field for each differential equation. Use the method of approximation of variables (Section 7.4) or an integrating factor (Section 6.4) to find a particular solution of the differential equation that satisfies the given initial condition, and plot the particular solution.

7.  $y' = \frac{1}{2}x$ ;  $y(0) = \frac{1}{2}$

8.  $y' = \frac{1}{2}x$

9.  $y' = \frac{1}{2}x$

10.  $y' = \frac{1}{2}x$

12. In Problems 11–16, use Euler's Method with  $h = 0.2$  to approximate the solution over the indicated interval.

11.  $y' = 2x$ ;  $y(0) = 3$ ;  $[0, 1]$

12.  $y' = -y$ ;  $y(0) = 2$ ;  $[0, 1]$

13.  $y' = x$ ;  $y(0) = 0$ ;  $[0, 1]$

14.  $y' = x^2$ ;  $y(0) = 0$ ;  $[0, 1]$

15.  $y' = x$ ;  $y(1) = 1$ ;  $[1, 2]$

16.  $y' = -2x$ ;  $y(1) = 2$ ;  $[1, 2]$

17. Apply Euler's Method to the equation  $y' = e^x$ ;  $y(0) = 1$  with an arbitrary step size  $h = 1/N$  where  $N$  is a positive integer.

(a) Derive the relationship  $e_h = \frac{1}{2}h^2$ .

(b) Explain why  $y_h$  is an approximation to  $e^x$ .

18. Suppose that the function  $f(x, y)$  depends only on  $x$ . The differential equation  $y' = f(x, y)$  can then be written as

$$y' = f(x)$$

Explain how to apply Euler's Method to this differential equation.

19. Consider the differential equation  $y' = f(x)$ ,  $y(x_0) = 0$  of Problem 18. For this problem, let  $f(x) = \sin x$ ,  $x_0 = 0$ , and  $h = 0.1$ .

(a) Integrate both sides of the equation from  $x_0$  to  $x_1 = x_0 + h$ . To approximate the integral, use a Riemann sum with a single interval, evaluating the integrand at the left end point.

(b) Integrate both sides from  $x_0$  to  $x_2 = x_0 + 2h$ . Again, to approximate the integral use a left end point Riemann sum, but with two sub-intervals.

(c) Continue the process described in parts (a) and (b) until  $x = 1$ . Use a left end point Riemann sum with ten intervals to approximate the definite integral.

(d) Describe how this method is related to Euler's Method.

20. Repeat parts (a) through (c) of Problem 19 for the differential equation  $y' = \sqrt{x+1}$ ,  $y(0) = 0$ .

21. (Improved Euler Method) Consider the change  $\Delta y$  in the solution between  $x_0$  and  $x_1$ . One approximation is obtained

$$\Delta y \approx h f(x_0, y_0)$$

(Here we have used  $y_1$  to indicate Euler's approximation to the solution at  $x_1$ .) Another approximation is obtained by finding an approximation to the slope of the solution at  $x_1$ :

$$\Delta y \approx h f(x_1, y_1)$$

(a) Average these two solutions to get a single approximation for  $\Delta y$ .

(b) Solve for  $y_1 = y(x_1)$  in terms of

$$x_0, y_0, h, f(x_0, y_0), f(x_1, y_1)$$

(c) This is the first step in the Improved Euler Method. Additional steps follow the same pattern. Fill in the blanks for the following three-step algorithm that yields the Improved Euler Method.

1. Set

2. Set

3. Set

22. For Problems 22–27, use the Improved Euler Method with  $h = 0.2$  on the equations in Problems 11–16. Compare your answers with those obtained using Euler's Method.

23. 28. Apply the Improved Euler Method to the equation  $y' = 1$  with  $h = 0.1, 0.05, 0.025, 0.0125$  to approximate the solution on the interval  $[0, 1]$ . Note that the exact solution is  $y = x$  so  $y(1) = 1$ . Compare the error in approximating  $y(1)$  (see Example 3 and the subsequent discussion) and fill in the following table. For the Improved Euler Method, is the error proportional to  $h$ ,  $h^2$ , or some other power of  $h$ ?

| h   | Error from Euler Method | Error from Improved Euler Method | Error from Runge-Kutta Method |          | Error from Adams-Bashforth Method |          |
|-----|-------------------------|----------------------------------|-------------------------------|----------|-----------------------------------|----------|
|     | h = 0.1                 | h = 0.05                         | h = 0.1                       | h = 0.05 | h = 0.1                           | h = 0.05 |
| 0.1 | 0.000000                | 0.000000                         | 0.000000                      | 0.000000 | 0.000000                          | 0.000000 |
| 0.2 | 0.000000                | 0.000000                         | 0.000000                      | 0.000000 | 0.000000                          | 0.000000 |
| 0.3 | 0.000000                | 0.000000                         | 0.000000                      | 0.000000 | 0.000000                          | 0.000000 |
| 0.4 | 0.000000                | 0.000000                         | 0.000000                      | 0.000000 | 0.000000                          | 0.000000 |
| 0.5 | 0.000000                | 0.000000                         | 0.000000                      | 0.000000 | 0.000000                          | 0.000000 |
| 0.6 | 0.000000                | 0.000000                         | 0.000000                      | 0.000000 | 0.000000                          | 0.000000 |
| 0.7 | 0.000000                | 0.000000                         | 0.000000                      | 0.000000 | 0.000000                          | 0.000000 |
| 0.8 | 0.000000                | 0.000000                         | 0.000000                      | 0.000000 | 0.000000                          | 0.000000 |
| 0.9 | 0.000000                | 0.000000                         | 0.000000                      | 0.000000 | 0.000000                          | 0.000000 |
| 1.0 | 0.000000                | 0.000000                         | 0.000000                      | 0.000000 | 0.000000                          | 0.000000 |

## 6.8 The Inverse Trigonometric Functions and Their Derivatives

In the previous section, we defined the inverse trigonometric functions. We have seen that these functions are not one-to-one, and therefore they are not invertible. To make them invertible, we restrict their domains. For each  $y$  in the range, there are many  $x$  such that  $y = f(x)$ . We choose the  $x$  such that  $x$  is in the interval  $[-\pi/2, \pi/2]$  for  $\sin^{-1}$  and  $[0, \pi]$  for  $\cos^{-1}$ . This is the procedure called **restricting the domain**, which was discussed briefly in Section 6.2.

Figure 6.8.1 shows the graphs of the inverse trigonometric functions. In the case of  $\sin^{-1}$  and  $\cos^{-1}$ , we restrict the domain to the interval  $[-\pi/2, \pi/2]$  and  $[0, \pi]$ , respectively. For  $\tan^{-1}$ , we restrict the domain to the interval  $(-\pi/2, \pi/2)$ . The graphs of the inverse trigonometric functions are shown in Figure 6.8.1. We also show the graph of the corresponding inverse cotangent function,  $\cot^{-1}$ , in Figure 6.8.2.

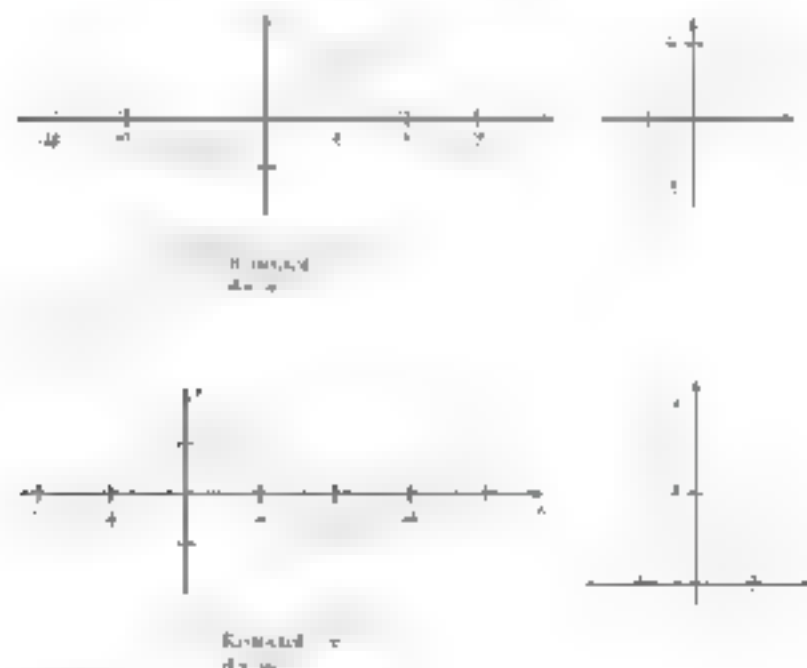


Figure 6.8.1

We formalize what we have shown in a definition.

### Definition

The **principal values** of the inverse trigonometric functions are  $\sin^{-1} x$ ,  $\cos^{-1} x$ ,  $\tan^{-1} x$ , and  $\cot^{-1} x$ , respectively. Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} \sin^{-1} x &= y \iff \sin y = x, \quad y \in [-\pi/2, \pi/2] \\ \cos^{-1} x &= y \iff \cos y = x, \quad y \in [0, \pi] \\ \tan^{-1} x &= y \iff \tan y = x, \quad y \in (-\pi/2, \pi/2) \\ \cot^{-1} x &= y \iff \cot y = x, \quad y \in (0, \pi) \end{aligned}$$





FIGURE 4

The symbol  $\arcsin$  is often used for  $\sin^{-1}$  and  $\arccos$  is similarly used for  $\cos^{-1}$ . Think of  $\arcsin$  as meaning “the arc whose sine is” or “the angle whose sine is” (Figure 4). We will use both forms throughout the rest of this book.

### EXAMPLE 1 Using a Calculator

- (a)  $\sin^{-1}(\sqrt{2}/2)$ , (b)  $\cos^{-1}(\sqrt{2}/2)$ ,  
(c)  $\cos(\cos^{-1} 0.6)$ , and (d)  $\sin(\sin^{-1} 3\pi^{-1})$

#### SOLUTION

- (a)  $\sin^{-1}(\sqrt{2}/2) = \frac{\pi}{4}$  (b)  $\cos^{-1}(\sqrt{2}/2) = \frac{\pi}{4}$   
(c)  $\cos(\cos^{-1} 0.6) = 0.6$  (d)  $\sin(\sin^{-1} \sin \frac{3\pi}{4}) = \frac{3\pi}{4}$

The only one of these that is tricky is (d). Note that it would be wrong to give  $\frac{3\pi}{4}$  as the answer since  $\sin^{-1}$  is an arc  $\lambda$  on the interval  $[-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}]$ . Work the problem in steps, as follows:

$$\sin(\sin^{-1} \sin \frac{3\pi}{4}) = \sin \frac{3\pi}{4} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \quad \text{and} \quad \sin^{-1} \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} = \frac{\pi}{4}$$

### EXAMPLE 2 Use a calculator to find

- (a)  $\cos^{-1}(-0.6)$  (b)  $\sin^{-1} \pi$  (c)  $\sin(\sin^{-1} 4)$

**SOLUTION** Use a calculator or calculator mode. If you see an error message, give answers that are consistent with the definitions that we have given.

- (a)  $\cos^{-1}(-0.6) = 2.2264569$   
(b) Your calculator should indicate an error, since  $\sin^{-1} 2$  is not defined.  
(c)  $\sin(\sin^{-1} 4) = -0.960171$

**DEFINITION** The function  $y = \tan^{-1} x$  (in radians) is the unique graph of the tangent function, its restricted domain, and the graph of  $y = \tan^{-1} x$ .

Here is a standard way to restrict the domain of the tangent function. This  $y = \tan^{-1} x$  is not the inverse. However, this domain and its corresponding range play a key role in calculus.

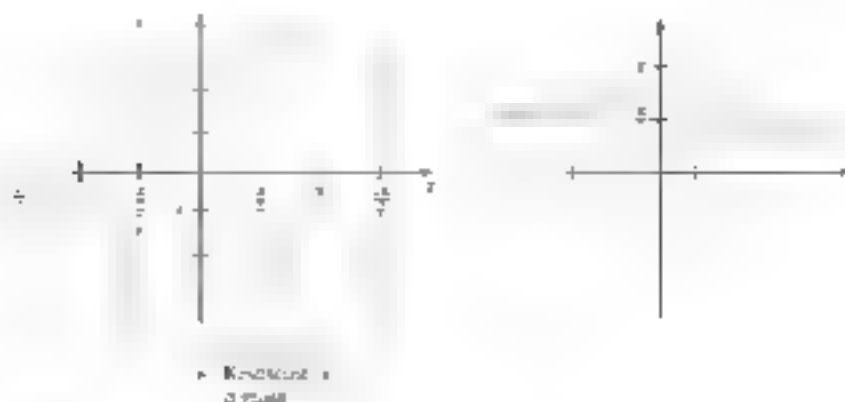


FIGURE 5

#### Another Way To Say It

- $y = \tan^{-1} x$  is the number in the interval  $(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})$  whose tangent is  $x$ .  
 $y = \tan^{-1} x$  is the number in the interval  $(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})$  whose cosine is  $y$ .  
 $y = \tan^{-1} x$  is the number in the interval  $(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})$  whose tangent is  $x$ .

To obtain an inverse for secant, we graph  $y = \sec x$ , restrict its domain appropriately, and then graph  $x = \sec^{-1} x$  (Figure 6).



### Definition

To obtain inverses for tangent and secant, we restrict their domains to  $(-\pi/2, \pi/2)$  and  $[0, \pi/2) \cup (\pi/2, \pi]$ , respectively. Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} \tan^{-1} x &= \arctan x = \tan^{-1} x, & \sec^{-1} x &= \operatorname{arcsec} x = \sec^{-1} x, \\ x &\in \mathbb{R}, & x &\in \mathbb{R}, \quad \sec^{-1} x \in [0, \pi/2) \cup (\pi/2, \pi] \end{aligned}$$

Some authors restrict the domain of  $\sec^{-1} x$  in a different way. Thus, if you refer to another book, you may have to make a correction here. We will have to need to define  $\cos^{-1}$ , though this can also be done.

### EXAMPLE 1 Using a Calculator

- (a)  $\tan^{-1}(1)$ ,                      (b)  $\tan^{-1}(-\sqrt{3})$ ,  
 (c)  $\tan^{-1}(\tan 5.236)$ ,            (d)  $\sec^{-1}(-1)$   
 (e)  $\sec^{-1}(2)$ , and                (f)  $\sec^{-1}(-1.5)$

### SOLUTION

- (a)  $\tan^{-1}(1) \approx \frac{\pi}{4}$                       (b)  $\tan^{-1}(-\sqrt{3}) \approx -\frac{\pi}{3}$   
 (c)  $\tan^{-1}(\tan 5.236) \approx -1.0471853$

Most of us have trouble remembering our secant, but most calculators do not have a secant button. Therefore, we suggest that you remember  $\sec^{-1} x = \cos^{-1}(1/x)$ . From this it follows that

$$\sec^{-1} x = \cos^{-1} \frac{1}{x}$$

and this allows us to use known facts about  $\cos^{-1}$  to write

$$\text{rd } \sec^{-1} = 1 + \cos^{-1} \frac{1}{x} \quad (x \geq 1)$$

$$\cos(\sec^{-1} \frac{2}{3}) = \cos^{-1} \frac{3}{2} = \frac{\pi}{3}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \cos(\sec^{-1} 1.5) &= \cos\left(\frac{1}{1.5}\right) = \cos(0.757558) \\ &= 2.4303875 \end{aligned}$$

**FIGURE 7** Theorem 4 gives some useful identities. You can recall them by reference to the triangles in Figure 7.

#### Theorem 4

- (i)  $\sin(\cos^{-1} x) = \sqrt{1 - x^2}$
- (ii)  $\cos(\sin^{-1} x) = \sqrt{1 - x^2}$
- (iii)  $\sec(\tan^{-1} x) = \sqrt{1 + x^2}$
- (iv)  $\tan(\sec^{-1} x) = \begin{cases} \sqrt{x^2 - 1} & \text{if } x \geq 1 \\ -\sqrt{x^2 - 1} & \text{if } x \leq -1 \end{cases}$

**Proof** To prove (i) recall that  $\sin^2 \theta + \cos^2 \theta = 1$ . If  $0 \leq \theta \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$ , then

$$\sin \theta = \sqrt{1 - \cos^2 \theta}$$

Now apply this with  $\theta = \cos^{-1} x$  and use the fact that  $\cos(\cos^{-1} x) = x$  to get

$$\sin(\cos^{-1} x) = \sqrt{1 - \cos^2(\cos^{-1} x)} = \sqrt{1 - x^2}$$

Identity (ii) is proved in a completely similar manner. To prove (iii) and (iv) use the identity  $\sec^2 \theta = 1 + \tan^2 \theta$  in place of  $\sin^2 \theta + \cos^2 \theta = 1$ .

**EXAMPLE 4** Calculate  $\sin^{-1}(\sec^{-1} \frac{2}{3})$ .

**SOLUTION** Recall the double-angle identity  $\sin 2\theta = 2 \sin \theta \cos \theta$ . Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} \sin 2\cos^{-1} \left(\frac{2}{3}\right) &= 2 \sin \left[\cos^{-1} \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)\right] \cos \left[\cos^{-1} \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)\right] \\ &= 2 \cdot \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^2} \cdot \frac{2}{3} = \frac{4\sqrt{5}}{9} \end{aligned}$$

**FIGURE 8** We learned in Section 7.4 the derivative formulas for the six trigonometric functions. They should be memorized.

$$\begin{array}{ll} D_x \sin x = \cos x & D_x \cos x = -\sin x \\ D_x \tan x = \sec^2 x & D_x \cot x = -\csc^2 x \\ D_x \sec x = \sec x \tan x & D_x \csc x = -\csc x \cot x \end{array}$$

We can combine the rules above with the Chain Rule. For example, if  $u = f(x)$  is differentiable, then

$$D_x \sin u = \cos u \cdot D_x u$$

As  $y = \sin^{-1} x$ ,  $x = \sin y$ . From the Inverse Function Theorem (Theorem 6.21), we conclude that  $\sin^{-1}$ ,  $\cos^{-1}$ ,  $\tan^{-1}$ , and  $\sec^{-1}$  are differentiable. Our aim is to find formulas for their derivatives. We state the results and then show how they can be derived.

### Theorem 5 Derivatives of Four Inverse Trigonometric Functions

- (i)  $D_x \sin^{-1} x = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$
- (ii)  $D_x \cos^{-1} x = \frac{-1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$
- (iii)  $D_x \tan^{-1} x = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$
- (iv)  $D_x \sec^{-1} x = \frac{1}{x\sqrt{x^2-1}}$ ,  $x > 1$

**Proof** Our proofs follow the same pattern in each case. To prove (i), let  $y = \sin^{-1} x$ , so that

$$x = \sin y$$

As we differentiate both sides with respect to  $x$  using the Chain Rule on the right-hand side, then

$$\begin{aligned} 1 &= \cos y \cdot D_x y = \cos(\sin^{-1} x) \cdot D_x(\sin^{-1} x) \\ &= \sqrt{1-x^2} \cdot D_x(\sin^{-1} x) \end{aligned}$$

At the end, since we used Theorem 4.4, we conclude that  $D_x \sin^{-1} x = 1/\sqrt{1-x^2}$ .

Results (ii), (iii), and (iv) are proved similarly, but (iv) has a little twist. Let  $x = \sec^{-1} x$ , so

$$x = \sec y$$

Differentiating both sides with respect to  $x$  and using Theorem 4.4, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} 1 &= \sec y \tan y \cdot D_x y \\ &= \sec(\sec^{-1} x) \tan(\sec^{-1} x) \cdot D_x(\sec^{-1} x) \\ &= \frac{1}{x} \sqrt{x^2-1} \cdot D_x(\sec^{-1} x), \quad \text{if } x \geq 1 \\ &= \frac{1}{x\sqrt{x^2-1}} D_x(\sec^{-1} x) \end{aligned}$$

The desired result follows immediately. ■

### EXAMPLE 5 Find $D_x \sin^{-1}(3x-1)$ .

**SOLUTION** We use Theorem 5(i) and the Chain Rule.

$$\begin{aligned} D_x \sin^{-1}(3x-1) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-(3x-1)^2}} \cdot D_x(3x-1) \\ &= \frac{3}{\sqrt{1-9x^2+6x-1}} \\ &= \frac{3}{\sqrt{6x-9x^2}} \end{aligned}$$

Of course, even differentiation formula leads to an integration formula, no matter we will say much more about in the next chapter. In particular,

$$\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx = \sin^{-1} x + C$$

#### $D_x \sec^{-1} x$

Here is another way to derive the formula for the derivative of  $\sec^{-1} x$ .

$$D_x \sec^{-1} x = \frac{1}{x\sqrt{x^2-1}}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{x\sqrt{x^2-1}} &= \frac{1}{x\sqrt{(x-1)(x+1)}} \\ &= \frac{1}{x\sqrt{x-1}\sqrt{x+1}} \\ &= \frac{1}{x\sqrt{x-1}} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{x+1}} \\ &= \frac{1}{x\sqrt{x-1}} \cdot \frac{\sqrt{x+1}}{\sqrt{x+1}} \\ &= \frac{\sqrt{x+1}}{x\sqrt{x^2-1}} \end{aligned}$$

$$2. \int \frac{1}{1 + a^2 x^2} dx = \frac{1}{a} \tan^{-1} ax + C$$

$$3. \int \frac{1}{a^2 - x^2} dx = \frac{1}{a} \tanh^{-1} \frac{x}{a} + C$$

These integration formulas can be generalized slightly (see Problems 83–84) to the following:

$$1. \int \frac{1}{\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}} dx = \sin^{-1} \frac{x}{a} + C$$

$$2. \int \frac{1}{a^2 + x^2} dx = \frac{1}{a} \tan^{-1} \frac{x}{a} + C$$

$$3. \int \frac{1}{x\sqrt{x^2 - a^2}} dx = \frac{1}{a} \sec^{-1} \left| \frac{x}{a} \right| + C$$

**EXAMPLE 2.6** Evaluate  $\int_0^1 \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx$ .

**SOLUTION**

$$\int_0^1 \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx = \left[ \sin^{-1} \frac{x}{1} \right]_0^1 = \sin^{-1} 1 - \sin^{-1} 0 = \frac{\pi}{6} - 0 = \frac{\pi}{6}$$

**EXAMPLE 2.7** Evaluate  $\int \frac{x^2}{\sqrt{x^2 + 9}} dx$ .

**SOLUTION** Think of  $\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{a^2 + u^2}} = \frac{1}{a} \sin^{-1} \frac{u}{a} + C$  (Table 1, Form 1).

$$\begin{aligned} \int \frac{x^2}{\sqrt{x^2 + 9}} dx &= \int \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + 9}} dx - \int \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + 9}} dx \\ &= \sin^{-1} \left( \frac{3x}{9} \right) - C \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 2.8** Evaluate  $\int \frac{x^2}{4 + 9x^2} dx$ .

**SOLUTION** Think of  $\int \frac{1}{a^2 + u^2} dx = \frac{1}{a} \tan^{-1} \frac{u}{a} + C$  (Table 1, Form 2). Here

$$\begin{aligned} \int \frac{x^2}{4 + 9x^2} dx &= \frac{1}{9} \int \frac{1}{4 + u^2} du = \frac{1}{9} \int \frac{1}{4 + u^2} du \\ &= \frac{1}{9} \tan^{-1} \frac{u}{2} + C = \frac{1}{18} \tan^{-1} \frac{3x}{2} + C \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 2.9** Evaluate  $\int_0^1 \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx$ .

**SOLUTION**

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^1 \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx &= \left[ \sin^{-1} x \right]_0^1 \\ &= \left[ \sin^{-1} \frac{1}{1} \right]_0^1 = \sin^{-1} 1 - \sin^{-1} 0 \\ &= \frac{\pi}{6} - 0 = \frac{\pi}{6} \end{aligned}$$



**EXAMPLE 4** A man standing on top of a 200-foot cliff is looking down at a boat. As he watches, a motorboat moves directly away from the foot of the cliff at a rate of 7 feet per second. How fast is the angle of depression of his line of sight changing when the boat is 50 feet from the foot of the cliff?

**SOLUTION** The essential data are shown in Figure 8. Note that  $\theta$ , the angle of depression, is

$$\theta = \tan^{-1} \frac{200}{x}$$

Thus,

$$\frac{d\theta}{dt} = -\frac{1}{1 + (200/x)^2} \cdot \frac{200}{x^2} \cdot \frac{dx}{dt} = -\frac{200}{x^2 + 40,000} \cdot \frac{dx}{dt}$$

When we substitute  $x = 50$  and  $dx/dt = 7$ , we obtain  $d\theta/dt = -0.028$  radian per second.  $\blacksquare$

**EXAMPLE 5** **Use the Integrand** Before you make a substitution, you may find it helpful to write the integrand in a more convenient form. Integrals with quadratic expressions in the denominator are often easier to integrate by completing the square. Express  $\int \frac{dx}{x^2 + 4x + 5}$  in terms of a power function by completing the square.

**SOLUTION** Evaluate  $\int \frac{dx}{x^2 + 4x + 5}$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \int \frac{dx}{x^2 + 4x + 5} &= \int \frac{dx}{(x^2 + 4x + 4) + 1} \\ &= \int \frac{dx}{(x + 2)^2 + 1} \\ &= \int \frac{1}{u^2 + 1} du = \tan^{-1} u + C \\ &= \tan^{-1} (x + 2) + C \end{aligned}$$

We made the mental substitution  $u = x + 2$  at the final stage.  $\blacksquare$

## Concepts Review

1. To obtain an inverse for the sine function, we restrict its domain to \_\_\_\_\_. The resulting inverse function is denoted by  $\sin^{-1}$  or  $\arcsin$ .

2. To obtain an inverse for the tangent function, we restrict the domain to \_\_\_\_\_. The resulting inverse function is denoted by  $\tan^{-1}$  or  $\arctan$ .

3.  $f^{-1}(\sin \arccos x) =$  \_\_\_\_\_

4. Since  $f^{-1}(\arcsin x) = 1/(1 - x^2)$ , it follows that  $\frac{d}{dx} \arcsin x = \frac{1}{1 - x^2}$ .

## Problem Set 6.8

In Problems 1–10, find the exact value without using a calculator.

1.  $\arcsin \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$

2.  $\arcsin \left( -\frac{1}{2} \right)$

3.  $\arctan \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$

4.  $\arctan \frac{\sqrt{3}}{3}$

5.  $\arcsin \left( \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \right)$

6.  $\arcsin \left( \frac{2}{3} \right)$

7.  $\arcsin 0$

8.  $\arcsin \frac{1}{2}$







9.  $\arcsin \left( -\frac{1}{2} \right)$

10.  $\arcsin \left( -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \right)$

In Problems 11–14, approximate each value.

11.  $\sin^{-1} \frac{1}{2}$       12.  $\arcsin \frac{1}{2}$   
 13.  $\sin^{-1} \arcsin \frac{1}{2}$       14.  $\sin(\arcsin \frac{1}{2})$   
 15.  $\sin^{-1} 2.222$       16.  $\tan^{-1} 66.11$   
 17.  $\cos^{-1} 0.1$       18.  $\sin^{-1} 0.555$

In Problems 19–24, express  $\theta$  in terms of  $x$  using the inverse trigonometric function.  $0 \leq \theta < 2\pi$ .

19.       20.   
 21.       22.   
 23.       24. 

In Problems 25–28, find each value without using a calculator. Use the identity.

25.  $\sin(2 \sin^{-1} \frac{1}{5})$       26.  $\tan(2 \tan^{-1} \frac{1}{2})$   
 27.  $\sin^{-1} \frac{1}{2} = \sin^{-1} \frac{1}{2}$   
 28.  $\cos(\cos^{-1} \frac{1}{2} + \sin^{-1} \frac{1}{2})$

In Problems 29–32, show that each equation is an identity.

29.  $\sin(\sin^{-1} x) = x$   
 30.  $\sin(\sin^{-1} x) = \sqrt{1-x^2}$   
 31.  $\cos(2 \sin^{-1} x) = 1-2x^2$   
 32.  $\cos(2 \sin^{-1} x) = 1-x^2$

33. Find each limit.

(a)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \tan^{-1} x$       (b)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \tan^{-1} x$

34. Find each limit.

(a)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \sec^{-1} x$       (b)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \sec^{-1} x$

35. Find each limit.

(a)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \sin^{-1} x$       (b)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \sin^{-1} x$

36. Does  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \sin^{-1} x$  exist? Explain.37. Describe what happens to the slope of the tangent line to the graph of  $y = \sin^{-1} x$  at the point  $c$  if  $c$  approaches 1 from the left.38. Sketch the graph of  $y = \sin^{-1} x$ , assuming that  $\sin^{-1}$  was defined as the inverse of the domain of  $\sin$  restricted to  $[-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}]$ .In Problems 39–54, find  $\theta$ .

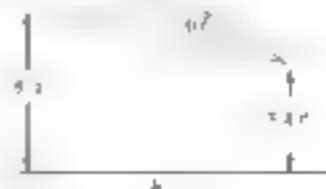
39.  $y = \sin^{-1}(\sin x)$       40.  $y = \cos^{-1}(\cos x)$   
 41.  $\sin^{-1}(\sin x) = x$       42.  $\cos^{-1}(\cos x) = x$   
 43.  $y = \sin^{-1}(\sin x)$       44.  $y = \cos^{-1}(\cos x)$   
 45.  $y = \sin^{-1}(\sin x)$       46.  $y = \cos^{-1}(\cos x)$   
 47.  $y = \sin^{-1}(\sin x)$       48.  $y = \cos^{-1}(\cos x)$   
 49.  $y = \sin^{-1}(\sin x)$       50.  $y = \cos^{-1}(\cos x)$   
 51.  $y = \sin^{-1}(\sin x)$       52.  $y = \cos^{-1}(\cos x)$   
 53.  $y = \sin^{-1}(\sin x)$       54.  $y = \cos^{-1}(\cos x)$

In Problems 55–72, evaluate each integral.

55.  $\int \cos 3x \, dx$       56.  $\int x \sin(x^2) \, dx$   
 57.  $\int \sin^{-1} x \, dx$       58.  $\int \cos^{-1} x \, dx$   
 59.  $\int \tan^{-1} x \, dx$       60.  $\int \cot^{-1} x \, dx$   
 61.  $\int \frac{1}{1+x^2} \, dx$       62.  $\int \frac{1}{1-x^2} \, dx$   
 63.  $\int \frac{1}{1+x^2} \, dx$       64.  $\int \frac{1}{1-x^2} \, dx$   
 65.  $\int \frac{1}{1+x^2} \, dx$       66.  $\int \frac{1}{1-x^2} \, dx$   
 67.  $\int \frac{1}{1+x^2} \, dx$       68.  $\int \frac{1}{1-x^2} \, dx$   
 69.  $\int \frac{1}{1+x^2} \, dx$       70.  $\int \frac{1}{1-x^2} \, dx$   
 71.  $\int \frac{1}{1+x^2} \, dx$       72.  $\int \frac{1}{1-x^2} \, dx$

73. A picture is hung in a frame  $\pi$  units high with the center of the picture  $\frac{\pi}{2}$  units above the bottom of the frame. A person's eye is at a height  $h$  units from the ground. Express the vertical angle subtended by the picture at her eye, in terms of  $h$  and  $\pi$ . (Assume  $h > \frac{\pi}{2}$ .)

74.



74. Find formulas for  $f^{-1}(x)$  for each of the following functions  $f$  (first indicating how you would restrict the domain so that  $f$  has an inverse. For example, if  $f(x) = 3 \sin^{-1} x$  and we restrict the domain to  $-\pi/4 \leq x \leq \pi/4$ , then  $f^{-1}(x) = \sin^{-1} x$ .)

- (a)  $f(x) = 3 \cos 2x$  (b)  $f(x) = 2 \sin 3x$   
 (c)  $f(x) = \frac{\pi}{4} \tan x$  (d)  $f(x) = \tan x$

75. By repeated use of the addition formulas

$$\sin(x + y) = \sin x \cos y + \cos x \sin y$$

show that

$$\sin(x + y) = \sin x \cos y + \cos x \sin y$$

76. Verify that

$$\sin(x + y) = \sin x \cos y + \cos x \sin y$$

a result discovered by John Machin in 1706 and used by him to calculate the first 100 decimal places of  $\pi$ .

77. Without using calculus, find a formula for the area of the shaded region in Figure 10 in terms of  $a$  and  $b$ . Note that the center of the larger circle is on the rim of the smaller.



Figure 10

78. Draw the graphs of

$$y = \arcsin x \quad \text{and} \quad y = \arcsin^2 x / \sqrt{1 - x^2}$$

on the same axes. Make a conjecture. Prove it.

79. Draw the graph of  $y = \arcsin x$  on  $[-1, 1]$ . Make a conjecture. Prove it.

80. Draw the graph of  $y = \arcsin x$  on  $[-1, 1]$ . Then draw the graph of  $y = \arcsin^2 x$  on  $[-1, 1]$ . Explain the difference that you observe.

81. Show that

$$\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}} = \arcsin \frac{x}{a} + C$$

by writing  $x = a \sin \theta$  (i.e.,  $\theta = \arcsin \frac{x}{a}$ ) and making the substitution  $\theta = \arcsin \frac{x}{a}$ .

82. Show the result in Problem 81 by differentiating the right side to get the integrand.

83. Show that

$$\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}} = \arcsin \frac{x}{a} + C$$

84. Show that

$$\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}} = \arcsin \frac{x}{a} + C$$

85. Show the left-hand side of the right side that

$$\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}} = \arcsin \frac{x}{a} + C$$

86. Use the result in Problem 85 to show that

$$\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}} = \arcsin \frac{x}{a} + C$$

Why is this result expected?

87. The lower edge of a wall hanging, 10 feet in height, is 2 feet above the observer's eye level. Find the ideal distance  $b$  to stand from the wall for viewing the hanging. That is, find  $b$  that maximizes the angle subtended at the viewer's eye. (See Problem 73.)

88. Express  $\arcsin x$  in terms of  $x$ ,  $\arcsin x$ , and the constant  $\pi$ .

89.



90. The structural steel work of a new office building is finished. Across the street, 60 feet from the ground floor of the freight elevator shaft in the building, a spectator is standing and watching the freight elevator ascend at a constant rate of 5 feet per second. Find the angle of elevation of the spectator's line of sight to the elevator increasing at seconds after the sight passes the horizontal.

91. An airplane is flying at a constant altitude of 2 miles and a constant speed of 400 miles per hour on a straight course that will take it directly over an observer on the ground. How fast is the angle of elevation of the observer's line of sight increasing when the observer from her to the plane is 3 miles? Give your result in radians per minute.

92. A beacon beam of light is located on an island and is 2 miles away from the nearest point  $P$  of the straight shoreline of the mainland. The beacon throws a spot of light that moves along the shoreline as the beacon revolves. If the speed of the spot of light on the shoreline is 4 miles per minute when the spot is 3 miles from  $P$ , how fast is the beacon revolving?

93. A man on a dock is pulling in a rope attached to a boat at a rate of 5 feet per second. If the man's hands are 5 feet higher than the point where the rope is attached to the boat, how fast is the angle of depression of the rope changing when the boat is 10 feet from the dock?

94. A train from either station is approaching the other at a speed of 63.76 kilometers per second. How fast is the angle  $\theta$  subtended by the earth at her eye increasing when she is 340 kilometers from the surface?

$$\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}} = \arcsin \frac{x}{a} + C$$

$$\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}} = \arcsin \frac{x}{a} + C$$



## The Hyperbolic Functions and Their Inverses

(3.7)

In both mathematics and science, certain combinations of  $e^x$  and  $e^{-x}$  are so often used that they are given special names.

### Definition

The hyperbolic sine, hyperbolic cosine, and four related functions are defined by

$$\sinh x = \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{2} \quad \cosh x = \frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{2}$$

$$\tanh x = \frac{\sinh x}{\cosh x} \quad \coth x = \frac{\cosh x}{\sinh x}$$

$$\operatorname{sech} x = \frac{1}{\cosh x} \quad \operatorname{csch} x = \frac{1}{\sinh x}$$

The terminology suggests that there must be some distinction with the trigonometric functions: the  $\sinh$  is the (undetermined) hyperbolic function (analogous of  $\sin$ ),  $\cosh$  is the (undetermined) hyperbolic function (analogous of  $\cos$ ),  $\tanh$  is the (undetermined) hyperbolic function (analogous of  $\tan$ ),  $\coth$  is the (undetermined) hyperbolic function (analogous of  $\cot$ ),  $\operatorname{sech}$  is the (undetermined) hyperbolic function (analogous of  $\sec$ ), and  $\operatorname{csch}$  is the (undetermined) hyperbolic function (analogous of  $\csc$ ).

$$\cosh^2 x - \sinh^2 x = 1$$

To verify it, we write

$$\cosh^2 x - \sinh^2 x = \left( \frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{2} \right)^2 - \left( \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{2} \right)^2 = 1$$

Second, recall that the composition of functions are identical if  $f \circ g = g \circ f$  and  $f \circ g = f$  and  $g \circ f = g$ . In fact, the parametric equations  $x = \cosh t$ ,  $y = \sinh t$  describe the right branch of the unit hyperbola  $x^2 - y^2 = 1$  (see Figure 3.7.1). In parallel fashion, the parametric equations  $x = \cosh t$ ,  $y = \tanh t$  describe the right branch of the unit hyperbola  $x^2 - y^2 = 1$  (see Figure 3.7.2). Moreover, if we choose  $t$  as parameter, we are free to take  $t = 0$  at  $x = 1$ ,  $y = 0$  (the rightmost point of the right branch of the unit hyperbola).

Since  $\sinh(-x) = -\sinh x$ ,  $\sinh$  is an odd function.  $\cosh(-x) = \cosh x$ , so  $\cosh$  is an even function. Correspondingly, the graph of  $\sinh x$  is symmetric with respect to the origin, the graph of  $\cosh x$  is symmetric with respect to the  $y$ -axis. Similarly,  $\tanh$  is an odd function and  $\coth$  is an even function. The graphs are shown in Figure 3.8.

**Derivatives of  $\sinh$  and  $\cosh$ .** We can find  $D_x \sinh x$  and  $D_x \cosh x$  directly from the definitions

$$D_x \sinh x = D_x \left( \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{2} \right) = \frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{2} = \cosh x$$

and

$$D_x \cosh x = D_x \left( \frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{2} \right) = \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{2} = \sinh x$$

Note that these facts confirm the character of the graphs in Figure 3.8. For example, since  $D_x \sinh x = \cosh x > 0$ , the graph of hyperbolic sine is always increasing. Similarly,  $D_x \cosh x = \sinh x > 0$  which means that the graph of hyperbolic cosine is concave upward.

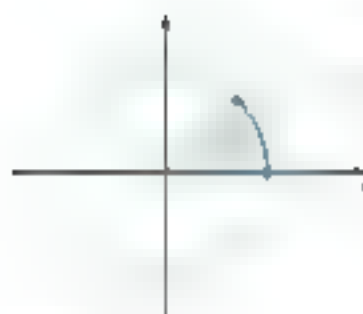


FIGURE 3.7.1



FIGURE 3.7.2

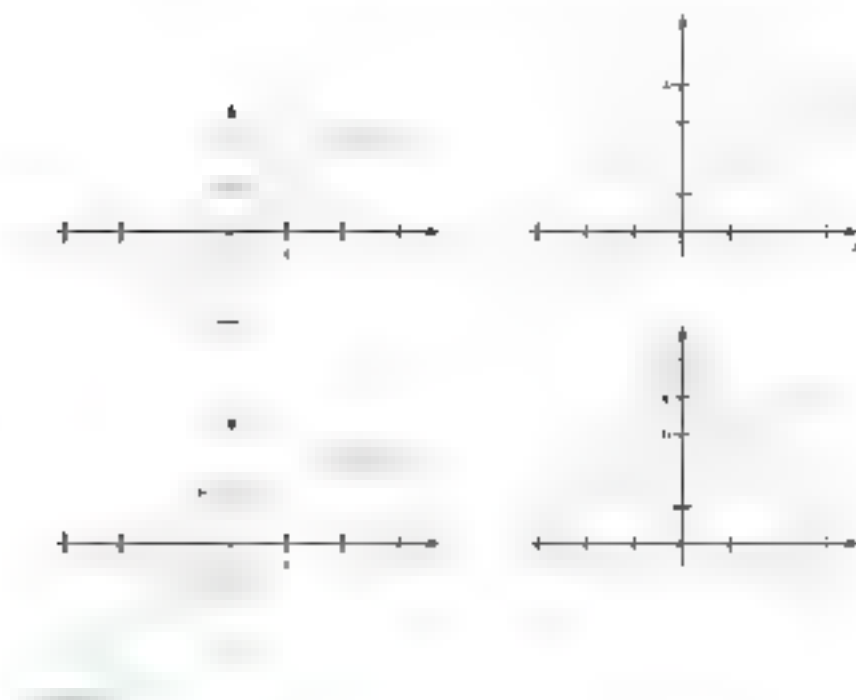


FIGURE 6.9 The graphs of the sinh, cosh, tanh, and sech functions. The graphs in (a) and (b) are obtained by adding and subtracting the exponential functions  $e^x$  and  $e^{-x}$  for the first two, combined with the Quotient Rule. The results are summarized in Figure 6.9.

### Derivatives of Hyperbolic Functions

$$D_x \sinh x = \cosh x$$

$$D_x \cosh x = \sinh x$$

$$D_x \tanh x = \operatorname{sech}^2 x$$

$$D_x \operatorname{csch} x = -\operatorname{csch}^2 x$$

$$D_x \operatorname{sech} x = -\operatorname{sech} x \tanh x$$

$$D_x \operatorname{csch} x = -\operatorname{csch} x \coth x$$

Another way that the trigonometric and hyperbolic functions are related is in considering differential equations. The functions  $\sin x$  and  $\cos x$  are solutions of the second-order differential equation  $y'' = -y$ , and  $\sinh x$  and  $\cosh x$  are solutions of the differential equation  $y'' = y$ .

### EXAMPLE 1 Find $D_x \tanh(\sin x)$

#### SOLUTION

$$\begin{aligned} D_x \tanh(\sin x) &= \operatorname{sech}^2(\sin x) \cdot D_x \sin x \\ &= \cos x \cdot \operatorname{sech}^2(\sin x) \end{aligned}$$

### EXAMPLE 2 Find $D_x \cosh^3(3x - 1)$

**SOLUTION** We apply the Chain Rule twice:

$$\begin{aligned} D_x \cosh^3(3x - 1) &= 3 \cosh^2(3x - 1) \cdot D_x \cosh(3x - 1) \\ &= \cosh^2(x - 1) \sinh(x - 1) \cdot D(3x - 1) \\ &= 6 \cosh^2(3x - 1) \sinh(3x - 1) \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 3** Find  $\int \tanh x \, dx$ .**SOLUTION** Let  $u = \cosh x$  so  $du = \sinh x \, dx$ .

$$\begin{aligned}\int \tanh x \, dx &= \int \frac{\sinh x}{\cosh x} \, dx = \int \frac{du}{u} \\ \ln|u| + C &= \ln|\cosh x| + C = \ln \cosh x + C.\end{aligned}$$

We can drop the absolute value signs because  $\cosh x > 0$ .

**DEFINITION** Since the hyperbolic sine and hyperbolic cosine have positive derivatives, they are increasing functions and uniformly have inverses. To obtain inverses for hyperbolic cosine and hyperbolic secant, we restrict their domains to  $x \geq 0$ . Thus,

$$\begin{aligned}y &= \sinh^{-1} x \Leftrightarrow x = \sinh y \\ y &= \cosh^{-1} x \Leftrightarrow x = \cosh y \quad \text{and } y \geq 0 \\ y &= \tanh^{-1} x \Leftrightarrow x = \tanh y \\ y &= \operatorname{sech}^{-1} x \Leftrightarrow x = \operatorname{sech} y \quad \text{and } y \geq 0.\end{aligned}$$

Since the hyperbolic functions are defined in terms of  $e^x$  and  $e^{-x}$ , we suspect that the inverse hyperbolic functions can be expressed in terms of the natural logarithm. For example, consider  $y = \cosh x$  for  $x \geq 0$ ; we have

$$y = \cosh x = \frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{2}.$$

Let  $u = e^x$  to solve this equation for  $x$ , which will give  $\cosh^{-1} u$ . Multiplying both sides by  $2u^2$  we get  $2u^2 = e^{2x} + 1$ , or

$$(u^2)^2 - 2u^2 + 1 = 0, \quad u \neq 0.$$

If we solve this quadratic equation in  $u^2$ , we obtain

$$u^2 = \frac{2y + 1 \pm \sqrt{(2y + 1)^2 - 4}}{2} = y + \sqrt{y^2 - 1}.$$

The Quadratic Formula gives two solutions; the one  $y + \sqrt{y^2 - 1}$  and  $y - \sqrt{y^2 - 1} = 4/y^2$ . This latter solution is extraneous because  $e^x$  is less than 1 whereas  $e^x$  is greater than 1 for all  $x > 0$ . Thus,  $x = \ln(y + \sqrt{y^2 - 1})$  so

$$x = \cosh^{-1} y = \ln(y + \sqrt{y^2 - 1}).$$

Similar arguments apply to each of the inverse hyperbolic functions. We have the following results (note that the roles of  $x$  and  $y$  have been interchanged). Figure 5 shows the necessary domain restrictions for plots of the inverse hyperbolic functions are shown in Figure 4.

$$\begin{aligned}\sinh^{-1} x &= \ln(x + \sqrt{x^2 + 1}) \\ \cosh^{-1} x &= \ln(x + \sqrt{x^2 - 1}), \quad x \geq 1 \\ \tanh^{-1} x &= \frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{1+x}{1-x}, \quad -1 < x < 1 \\ \operatorname{sech}^{-1} x &= \ln \left( \frac{1}{x} + \sqrt{\frac{1}{x^2} - 1} \right), \quad 0 < x \leq 1.\end{aligned}$$

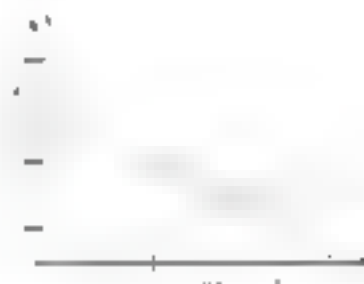
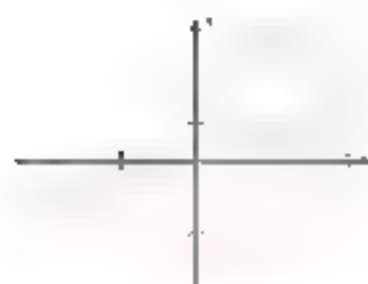
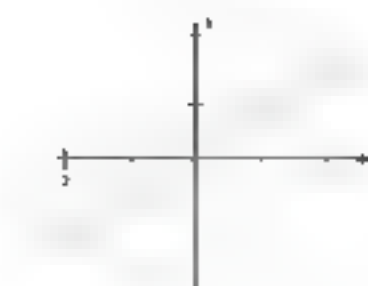
Each of these functions is differentiable. In fact,

$$D_x \sinh x = \cosh x = \sqrt{e^x + e^{-x}}$$

$$D_x \cosh x = \sinh x = \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{2}$$

$$D_x \tanh x = \frac{1}{1 - \tanh^2 x} = \frac{1}{1 - \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{e^x + e^{-x}}} = \frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{e^x - e^{-x}}$$

$$D_x \operatorname{sech} x = -\operatorname{sech} x \tanh x = -\frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{(e^x + e^{-x})^2}$$



**EXAMPLE 1** Show that  $D_x \sinh^{-1} x = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + 1}}$  by two different methods.

**SOLUTION**

**Method 1** Let  $y = \sinh^{-1} x$  so

$$x = \sinh y$$

Now differentiate both sides with respect to  $x$ .

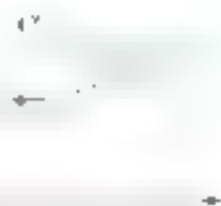
$$1 = (\cosh y) D_x y$$

Thus,

$$D_x y = D_x (\sinh^{-1} x) = \frac{1}{\cosh y} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + \sinh^2 y}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + x^2}}$$

**Method 2** Use the logarithmic expression for  $\sinh^{-1} x$ .

$$\begin{aligned} D_x (\sinh^{-1} x) &= D_x \ln(x + \sqrt{x^2 + 1}) \\ &= \frac{1}{x + \sqrt{x^2 + 1}} D_x (x + \sqrt{x^2 + 1}) \\ &= \frac{1}{x + \sqrt{x^2 + 1}} \left( 1 + \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2 + 1}} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + 1}} \end{aligned}$$



The catenary

100



A suspension bridge

If a homogeneous flexible cable or chain is suspended between two fixed points at the same height, it forms a curve called a **catenary** (Figure 5). Furthermore (see Problem 55), a catenary can be placed in a coordinate system so that its equation takes the form

$$y = a \cosh \frac{x}{a}$$

**EXAMPLE 5** Find the arc length of the catenary  $y = a \cosh \frac{x}{a}$  between  $x = -a$  and  $x = a$ .

**SOLUTION** The desired length (see Section 5.4) is given by

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-a}^a \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2} dx &= \int_{-a}^a \sqrt{1 + \sinh^2 \frac{x}{a}} dx \\ &= \int_{-a}^a \sqrt{\cosh^2 \left(\frac{x}{a}\right)} dx \\ &= \int_{-a}^a \cosh \frac{x}{a} dx \\ &= a \left[ \sinh \frac{x}{a} \right]_{-a}^a = \frac{a}{a} (a - (-a)) \\ &= 2a \sinh 1 = 2a^2 \sinh 1 \end{aligned}$$

## Concepts Review

1.  $\sinh x$  and  $\cosh x$  are defined by  $\sinh x = \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{2}$  and  $\cosh x = \frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{2}$ .
2. In  $e$ - $\mu$ - $\sinh$  trigonometry, the identity corresponding to  $\sin^2 x + \cos^2 x = 1$  is  $\sinh^2 x + \cosh^2 x = \cosh 2x$ .

3. Because  $e^{-x}$  is defined in Equation 5, the graph of  $\sinh x$  is a reflection of  $\cosh x$  across the  $y$ -axis.
4. The  $e$ - $\mu$ - $\sinh$  trigonometry is an important tool in the study of special relativity.

## Problem Set 6.9

10. Prove that  $\sinh x$  and  $\cosh x$  satisfy the given equations with derivatives.

1.  $y^2 = \cosh^2 x + \sinh^2 x$
2.  $y' = \cosh 2x = \cosh x + \sinh x$
3.  $y^2 = \cosh^2 x - \sinh^2 x$
4.  $\cosh 2x = \cosh^2 x + \sinh^2 x$
5.  $\sinh 2x = 2 \sinh x \cosh x$
6.  $\sinh^2 x + \cosh^2 x = \cosh 2x$
7.  $\cosh^2 x - \sinh^2 x = 1$
8.  $\cosh(x + y) = \cosh x \cosh y + \sinh x \sinh y$
9.  $\sinh(x + y) = \sinh x \cosh y + \cosh x \sinh y$
10.  $\cosh(x - y) = \cosh x \cosh y - \sinh x \sinh y$
11.  $\sinh^2 x - \cosh^2 x = -1$

12.  $\cosh^2 x - \sinh^2 x = 1$

13. Prove that  $\sinh x$  and  $\cosh x$  satisfy the given equations.

14.  $y = \sinh^2 x$
15.  $y = \cosh^2 x$
16.  $y = \sinh 2x$
17.  $y = \cosh 2x$
18.  $y = \sinh x$
19.  $y = \cosh x$
20.  $y = \sinh x$
21.  $y = \cosh x$
22.  $y = \sinh x$
23.  $y = \cosh x$
24.  $y = \sinh x$
25.  $y = \cosh x$
26.  $y = \sinh x$
27.  $y = \cosh x$
28.  $y = \sinh x$
29.  $y = \cosh x$
30.  $y = \sinh x$
31.  $y = \cosh x$
32.  $y = \sinh x$
33.  $y = \cosh x$
34.  $y = \sinh x$

35.  $y = \tanh \cosh x$

36.  $y = \coth^{-1}(\tanh x)$

37. Find the area of the region bounded by  $y = \cosh 2x$ ,  $y = 0$ ,  $x = 0$ , and  $x = \ln 3$ .

In Problems 38–45, evaluate each integral.

38.  $\int \sinh(3x + 2) dx$

39.  $\int x \cosh(\pi x^2 + 5) dx$

40.  $\int \frac{\cosh \sqrt{x}}{\sqrt{x}} dx$

41.  $\int \frac{\sinh(2x^{1/4})}{\sqrt[4]{x}} dx$

42.  $\int e^x \sinh e^x dx$

43.  $\int \cos x \sinh(\sin x) dx$

44.  $\int \tanh x \ln(\cosh x) dx$

45.  $\int x \coth x^2 \ln(\sinh x^2) dx$

46. Find the area of the region bounded by  $y = \cosh 2x$ ,  $y = 0$ ,  $x = -\ln 5$ , and  $x = \ln 5$ .

47. Find the area of the region bounded by  $y = \sinh x$ ,  $y = 0$ , and  $x = \ln 2$ .

48. Find the area of the region bounded by  $y = \tanh x$ ,  $y = 0$ ,  $x = -8$ , and  $x = 8$ .

49. The region bounded by  $y = \cosh x$ ,  $y = 0$ ,  $x = 0$ , and  $x = 1$  is revolved about the  $x$ -axis. Find the volume of the resulting solid. *Hint:*  $\cosh^2 x = \frac{1}{2} + \cosh 2x/2$ .

50. The region bounded by  $y = \sinh x$ ,  $y = 0$ ,  $x = 0$ , and  $x = \ln 0$  is revolved about the  $x$ -axis. Find the volume of the resulting solid.

51. The curve  $y = \cosh x$ ,  $0 \leq x \leq \pi$ , is revolved about the  $x$ -axis. Find the area of the resulting surface.

52. The curve  $y = \sinh x$ ,  $0 \leq x \leq \pi$ , is revolved about the  $x$ -axis. Find the area of the resulting surface.

53. To derive the equation of a hanging cable (catenary), we consider the section  $AP$  from the lowest point  $A$  to a general point  $P(x, y)$  (see Figure 6) and imagine the rest of the cable to have been removed.

The forces acting on the cable are

1.  $H$  = horizontal tension pulling at  $A$
2.  $T$  = tangential tension pulling at  $P$
3.  $W = \delta s$  = weight of  $s$  feet of cable of density  $\delta$  pounds per foot

To be in equilibrium, the horizontal and vertical components of  $T$  must just balance  $H$  and  $W$ , respectively. Thus,  $T \cos \phi = H$  and  $T \sin \phi = W = \delta s$ , and so

$$\frac{T \sin \phi}{T \cos \phi} = \frac{\delta s}{H} = \tan \phi = \frac{\delta}{H}$$

But since  $\tan \phi = dy/dx$ , we get

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{\delta}{H}$$

and therefore

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \frac{\delta}{H} \frac{ds}{dx} = \frac{\delta}{H} \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2}$$

Now show that  $y = a \cosh(x/a) + C$  satisfies this differential equation with  $a = H/\delta$ .

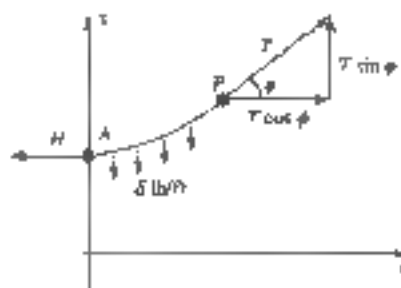


Figure 6

54. Call the graph of  $y = b - a \cosh x/a$  an inverted catenary and imagine it to be an arch sitting on the  $x$ -axis. Show that if the width of this arch along the  $x$ -axis is  $2a$  then each of the following is true:

- (a)  $b = a \cosh 1 \approx 1.4308a$
- (b) The height of the arch is approximately  $0.54908a$ .
- (c) The height of an arch of width 48 is approximately 13.

55. A farmer built a large bayshed of length 100 feet and width 48 feet. A cross section has the shape of an inverted catenary (see Problem 54) with equation  $y = 37 - 24 \cosh(x/24)$ .

- (a) Draw a picture of this shed.
- (b) Find the volume of the shed.
- (c) Find the surface area of the roof of the shed.

56. Show that  $A = c/2$ , where  $A$  denotes the area in Figure 2 of this section. *Hint:* At some point you will need to use Formula 44 from the back of the book.

57. Demonstrate that for every real number  $r$

- (a)  $\sinh x + \cosh x)^r = \sinh rx + \cosh rx$
- (b)  $(\cosh x - \sinh x)^r = \cosh rx - \sinh rx$
- (c)  $(\cos x + i \sin x)^r = \cos rx + i \sin rx$
- (d)  $(\cos x - i \sin x)^r = \cos rx - i \sin rx$

58. The Gudermannian of  $t$  is defined by

$$\operatorname{gd}(t) = \tan^{-1}(\sinh t)$$

Show that

- (a)  $\operatorname{gd}$  is odd and increasing with an inflection point at the origin.

$$(b) \operatorname{gd}(t) = \sin^{-1}(\tanh t) = \int_0^t \operatorname{sech} u \, du$$

59. Show that the area under the curve  $y = \cosh t$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq x$  is numerically equal to its arc length.

60. Find the equation of the Gateway Arch in St. Louis, Missouri, given that it is an inverted catenary (see Problem 54). Assume that it stands on the  $x$ -axis, that it is symmetric with respect to the  $y$ -axis, and that it is 630 feet wide at the base and 630 feet high at the center.

61. Draw the graphs of  $y = \sinh x$ ,  $y = \ln(x + \sqrt{x^2 + 1})$ , and  $y = x$  using the same axes and scaled so that  $-3 \leq x \leq 3$  and  $-3 \leq y \leq 3$ . What does this demonstrate?

**PROBLEM 63.** Refer to Problem 58. Derive a formula for  $\frac{dy}{dx}$ . Draw the graph and also find it by using the same as in Problem 58, thereby confirming your formula.

## 6.10 Chapter Review

### 1. Fill in the blank.

Respond with true or false for each of the following statements. Be prepared to justify your answers.

1.  $\ln x$  is defined for all real  $x$ .
2. The graph of  $y = \ln x$  has no horizontal asymptotes.
3.  $\int_1^e \frac{1}{x} dx = 1$ .
4. The graph of an invertible function  $y = f(x)$  is intersected exactly once by the line  $y = f^{-1}(x)$ .
5. The domain of  $\ln x$  is all real numbers.
6.  $\ln(-e) = \ln(-1) + \ln(e)$ .
7. If  $a < b$ , then  $e^a < e^b$ .
8.  $\ln(2e^3) = \ln(2e^3) = 1$  for all real numbers  $x$ .
9. The functions  $f(x) = e^x + e^x$  and  $g(x) = \ln(x + 2)$  are inverses at  $x = 0$ .

10.  $\ln(e^x) = x$  for all real  $x$ .
11. If  $x = y = 0$ , then  $\ln x = \ln y$ .
12. If  $\ln a < \ln b$ , then  $a < b$ .
13. If  $a < b$ , then  $e^a < e^b$ .
14. If  $a < b$ , then  $e^a < e^b$ .
15.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \ln \ln x = \ln(1) = 0$ .

16.  $\ln(e^x) = x$  for all real  $x$ .
17.  $\ln(e^x) = x$  for all real  $x$ .
18.  $\ln(e^x) = x$  for all real  $x$ .
19.  $\ln(e^x) = x$  for all real  $x$ .

20. If  $f(x) = \ln(x)$  and  $g(x) = \ln(x)$  for  $x = 1$ , then  $f(1) = 0$ .

21.  $\ln(x^2) = 2 \ln(x)$  for all real  $x$ .

22.  $\ln(e^x) = x$  for all real  $x$ .

23. An integrating factor of  $y' + p(x)y = q(x)$  is  $e^{\int p(x) dx}$ .

24. The solution to the differential equation  $y' = 2y$  that passes through the point  $(2, 1)$  has slope 2 at that point.

25. Euler's Method will always approximate the solution of the differential equation  $y' = 2y$  with initial condition  $y(0) = 1$ .

26.  $\sin(x)$  and  $\cos(x)$  are always between  $-1$  and  $1$ .

27.  $\arcsin(x) = x$  for all real numbers  $x$ .

28. If  $a < b$ , then  $\sin(a) < \sin(b)$ .

29. If  $a < b$ , then  $\cos(a) < \cos(b)$ .

30.  $\cosh(x) = \frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{2}$ .

31.  $\sinh(x) = \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{2}$ .

32.  $\cosh(x) = \cosh^{-1}(x)$  for all real  $x$ .

33.  $\cosh(\ln 2) = \frac{e^{\ln 2} + e^{-\ln 2}}{2} = \frac{2 + \frac{1}{2}}{2} = \frac{5}{4}$ .

34.  $\ln(x) = \ln(x)$  for all real  $x$ .
35.  $\ln(x) = \ln(x)$  for all real  $x$ .
36.  $\ln(x) = \ln(x)$  for all real  $x$ .
37.  $\ln(x) = \ln(x)$  for all real  $x$ .
38.  $\ln(x) = \ln(x)$  for all real  $x$ .
39.  $\ln(x) = \ln(x)$  for all real  $x$ .
40.  $\ln(x) = \ln(x)$  for all real  $x$ .
41.  $\ln(x) = \ln(x)$  for all real  $x$ .
42.  $\ln(x) = \ln(x)$  for all real  $x$ .
43.  $\ln(x) = \ln(x)$  for all real  $x$ .
44.  $\ln(x) = \ln(x)$  for all real  $x$ .
45.  $\ln(x) = \ln(x)$  for all real  $x$ .
46.  $\ln(x) = \ln(x)$  for all real  $x$ .
47.  $\ln(x) = \ln(x)$  for all real  $x$ .

48. Problems 49–54 define functions that have been

1.  $\ln(x)$
2.  $\ln(x)$
3.  $\ln(x)$
4.  $\ln(x)$
5.  $\ln(x)$
6.  $\ln(x)$
7.  $\ln(x)$
8.  $\ln(x)$
9.  $\ln(x)$
10.  $\ln(x)$
11.  $\ln(x)$
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17.  $\ln(x)$
18.  $\ln(x)$
19.  $\ln(x)$
20.  $\ln(x)$
21.  $\ln(x)$
22.  $\ln(x)$
23.  $\ln(x)$
24.  $\ln(x)$

In Problems 25–34, find the antiderivative of each function and verify your result by differentiation.

25.  $e^{2x}$

26.  $6 \cos 3x$

27.  $e^x \sin e^x$

28.  $\frac{6x + 3}{x^2 + x - 5}$

29.  $\frac{x^{x+1}}{x^2 + 1}$

30.  $4x \cos x$

31.  $\frac{4}{\sqrt{1 - 4x^2}}$

32.  $\frac{\cos x}{1 + \sin^2 x}$

33.  $\frac{1}{x + x(\ln x)^2}$

34.  $\sec^2(x - 3)$

In Problems 35 and 36, find the intervals on which  $f$  is increasing and the intervals on which  $f$  is decreasing. Find where the graph of  $f$  is concave upward and where it is concave downward. Find any extreme values and points of inflection. Then sketch the graph of  $f$ .

35.  $f(x) = \sin x + \cos x, \quad \frac{\pi}{2} \leq x \leq \frac{3\pi}{2}$

36.  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}, \quad -\infty < x < \infty$

37. Let  $f(x) = x^5 + 2x^3 + 4x, \quad -\infty < x < \infty$

(a) Prove that  $f$  has an inverse  $g = f^{-1}$ .

(b) Evaluate  $g(7) = f^{-1}(7)$ .

(c) Evaluate  $g'(7)$ .

38. A certain radioactive substance has a half-life of 10 years. How long will it take for 100 grams to decay to 1 gram?

39. Use Euler's Method with  $h = 0.2$  to approximate the solution to the differential equation  $y' = xy$  with initial condition  $y(1) = 2$  over the interval  $[1, 2]$ .

40. An airplane is flying horizontally at an altitude of 500 feet with a speed of 300 feet per second directly away from a searchlight on the ground. The searchlight is kept directed at the plane. At what rate is the angle between the light beam and the ground changing when this angle is  $30^\circ$ ?

41. Find the equation of the tangent line to  $y = (\cos x)^{\tan x}$  at  $(0, 1)$ .

42. The population of a town grew exponentially from 10,000 in 1990 to 14,000 in 2000. Assuming that the same type of growth continues, what will the population be in 2010?

In Problems 43–47, solve each differential equation.

43.  $\frac{dy}{dx} + \frac{y}{x} = 1$

44.  $\frac{dy}{dx} - \frac{y^2}{x} = 1$

45.  $\frac{dy}{dx} + 2x(y^2 - 1) = 0; y = 3 \text{ when } x = 0$

46.  $\frac{dy}{dx} - ay = e^{ax}$

47.  $\frac{dy}{dx} - 2y = e^x$

48. Suppose that glucose is infused into the bloodstream of a patient at the rate of 3 grams per minute, but that the patient's body converts and removes glucose from its blood at a rate proportional to the amount present (with constant of proportionality 0.02). Let  $Q(t)$  be the amount present at time  $t$  with  $Q(0) = 120$ .

(a) Write the differential equation for  $Q$ .

(b) Solve this differential equation.

(c) Determine what happens to  $Q$  in the long run.



# REVIEW & PREVIEW PROBLEMS

Evaluate the integrals in Problems 1–8.

1.  $\int \sin^2 x \, dx$

2.  $\int e^x \, dx$

3.  $\int (x + \ln x) \, dx$

4.  $\int xe^{2x} \, dx$

5.  $\int \frac{x^2}{\cos x} \, dx$

6.  $\int \sin^2 x \cos x \, dx$

7.  $\int x\sqrt{x^2 + 2} \, dx$

8.  $\int \frac{x}{x^2 + 1} \, dx$

Find and simplify the derivatives of the functions in Problems 9–12.

9.  $y = \sin^{-1} x$

10.  $f(x) = x \arcsin x - \sqrt{1-x^2}$

11.  $f(x) = -x^2 \cos x - 2x \sin x + 2 \cos x$

12.  $y = \arcsin(\sin x) - \cos x$

13. Use one of the double-angle identities (from Section 8.7) to find an expression for  $\sin x$  that involves  $\cos 2x$ .

14. Use one of the double-angle identities to find an expression for  $\cos x$  that involves  $\cos 2x$ .

15. Use one of the double-angle identities to find an expression for  $\sin^2 x$  that involves  $\cos 2x$ .

16. Use one of the product identities (from Section 8.7) to express  $\sin 3x \cos 4x$  in terms of the sine function only. Do you see a way that you can separate the functions and multiply them together?

17. Use one of the product identities to express  $\cos 3x \sin 5x$  in terms of the cosine function only. Do you see a way that you can separate the functions and multiply them together?

18. Use one of the product identities to express  $\sin 2x \sin 3x$  in terms of the cosine function only. Do you see a way that you can separate the functions and multiply them together?

19. Evaluate  $\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}$  when  $x = a \sin t$ , if  $-\pi/2 \leq t \leq \pi/2$ .

20. Evaluate  $\sqrt{a^2 + x^2}$  when  $x = a \tan t$ , if  $-\pi/2 < t < \pi/2$ .

21. Evaluate  $\sqrt{1 + x^2}$  when  $x = \sinh t$ , if  $-\infty < t < \infty$ .

22. Solve for  $a$  in the equation  $\int_a^1 e^{x^2} \, dx = \frac{1}{2}$ .

In Problems 23–26, use a series approximation with the first four nonzero terms.

23.  $\frac{1}{e^x}$

24.  $\ln x$

25.  $\frac{1}{1+x^2}$

26.  $\frac{1}{1+x^2}$

- 7.1** Basic Integration Rules
- 7.2** Integration by Parts
- 7.3** Some Inverse Trigonometric Integrals
- 7.4** Rationalizing Substitutions
- 7.5** Integration of Rational Functions Using Partial Fractions
- 6** Strategies for Integration

## 7.1 Basic Integration Rules

Our collection of functions now includes all the elementary functions. These include any algebraic functions, the power functions, the algebraic functions, the logarithmic and exponential functions, the trigonometric and inverse trigonometric functions, and all functions obtained from these by addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, and composition. Thus,

$$f(x) = \frac{x^2 + 1}{2} \cos x$$

$$g(x) = (1 + \cos^2 x)^{1/2}$$

$$h(x) = \frac{1}{\ln(x^2 + 1)} \quad (\text{arbitrary constant})$$

are elementary functions.

Integration of an elementary function is straightforward, requiring only a systematic use of the rules that we have learned. And the result is a way to integrate elementary functions. In general, integration of a function is far different than integration of a function, and a function is not a function. For example,  $e^{x^2}$  and  $\ln(x)$  are not elementary functions.

The two special techniques of integration are *substitution* and *integration by parts*. The method of substitution was introduced in Section 4. We will use it occasionally in the intervening chapters.

Effectively, use of the method of substitution and integration by parts depends on the ready availability of a list of known integrals. We such as the following, obtained by applying the basic rules of integration. We shall not show how we know that we have the correct answers, and a table should mention only it.

### Standard Integral Forms

|                                |  |  |
|--------------------------------|--|--|
| <b>Constants and Powers</b>    | 1. $\int k \, dx = kx + C$   | 2. $\int u^n \, du = \begin{cases} \frac{u^{n+1}}{n+1} + C & n \neq -1 \\ \ln u  + C & n = -1 \end{cases}$ |
| <b>Exponentials</b>            | 3. $\int e^u \, du = e^u + C$  | 4. $\int a^u \, du = \frac{a^u}{\ln a} + C \quad (a > 0, a \neq 1)$  |
| <b>Trigonometric Functions</b> | 5. $\int \sin u \, du = -\cos u + C$   | 6. $\int \cos u \, du = \sin u + C$  |
|                                | 7. $\int \sec u \, du = \ln \sec u + \tan u  + C$                              | 8. $\int \csc u \, du = \ln \csc u - \cot u  + C$  |
|                                | 9. $\int \sec u \tan u \, du = \sec u + C$                                     | 10. $\int \csc u \cot u \, du = -\csc u + C$   |
|                                | 11. $\int \tan u \, du = -\ln \cos u  + C$                                     | 12. $\int \cot u \, du = \ln \sin u  + C$  |
| <b>Algebraic Functions</b>     | 13. $\int \frac{du}{\sqrt{a^2 - u^2}} = \sin^{-1}\left(\frac{u}{a}\right) + C$ | 14. $\int \frac{du}{a^2 + u^2} = \frac{1}{a} \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{u}{a}\right) + C$                        |

$$7. \int \frac{du}{a^2 + u^2} = \frac{1}{a} \arctan \left( \frac{u}{a} \right) + C = \frac{1}{a} \arctan \left| \frac{a}{x} \right| + C$$

Hyperbolic Functions

$$16. \int \sinh u \, du = \cosh u + C$$

$$17. \int \cosh u \, du = \sinh u + C$$

**EXAMPLE 7** Suppose that you are an indefinite integral. If it is a standard form, simply write the answer. If not, look for a substitution that will change it to a standard form. If the first substitution that you try does not work, try another. Skill at this, like most worthwhile activities, depends on practice.

The method of substitution was given in Theorem 4.4B and is reviewed here for easy reference.

### Theorem A Substitution in Indefinite Integrals

Let  $u$  be a differentiable function and suppose that  $F$  is an antiderivative of  $f$ . Then, if  $y = g(x)$ ,

$$\int f(g(x))g'(x) \, dx = \int f(u) \, du = F(u) = F(g(x)) = F \circ g + C$$

### EXAMPLE 1 Find $\int \frac{x}{\cos^2(x^2)} dx$ .

**SOLUTION** Look at this map, at least a few elements. Since  $\cos^{-1}$  has a  $x$ , it may be reasonable at the standard form  $\int f(u) \, du$ . Let  $u = \cos^{-1}(x^2)$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \int \frac{1}{\cos^2(x^2)} dx &= \int \frac{1}{\cos^2(u)} \cdot 2x \, du = 2 \int \sec^2 u \, du \\ &= 2(\tan u + C) = 2 \tan(\cos^{-1}(x^2)) + C \end{aligned}$$

### EXAMPLE 2 Find $\int \frac{1}{x \sqrt{x^2 + 16}} dx$ .

**SOLUTION** Think of  $\int \frac{du}{u \sqrt{u^2 + 16}}$ . Let  $u = \sqrt{x^2 + 16}$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \int \frac{1}{x \sqrt{x^2 + 16}} dx &= \int \frac{1}{u \sqrt{u^2 + 16}} du = \frac{1}{16} \int \frac{1}{\frac{u}{16} \sqrt{\frac{u^2}{16} + 1}} du \\ &= \frac{1}{16} \int \frac{1}{\frac{u}{4} \sqrt{\frac{u^2}{16} + 1}} du = C \end{aligned}$$

### EXAMPLE 3 Find $\int \frac{e^x}{x} dx$ .

**SOLUTION** Think of  $\int e^u du$ . Let  $u = 1/x$ , so  $du = -(1/x^2) dx$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \int \frac{e^x}{x} dx &= - \int e^u \cdot \frac{1}{u^2} du = - \int e^u \, du \\ &= -e^u + C = -e^{1/x} + C \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 4** Find  $\int_1^4 \frac{x'}{\sqrt{x}}} dx$ .

**SOLUTION** Think of  $\int_a^b \frac{1}{u} du$ . Let  $u = \sqrt{x}$  so  $du = \frac{1}{2} dx$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned}\int_1^4 \frac{x'}{\sqrt{x}} dx &= \frac{1}{2} \int_1^4 \frac{2x' dx}{\sqrt{x}} = \frac{1}{2} \int_1^4 \frac{1}{u} du \\&= \frac{1}{2} (\ln 2 - \ln 1) = \frac{1}{2} \ln 2 = \frac{1}{2} \ln 4 = \ln 2.\end{aligned}$$

No law says that you have to write out the  $u$ -substitution. If you can do the substitution mentally, that is fine. Here are two illustrations.

**EXAMPLE 5** Find  $\int x \cos x^2 dx$ .

**SOLUTION** Mentally substitute  $u = x^2$ .

$$\int x \cos x^2 dx = \frac{1}{2} \int (\cos u^2)(2x dx) = \frac{1}{2} \sin u^2 + C$$

**EXAMPLE 6** Find  $\int \frac{e^{\tan t}}{\cos^2 t} dt$ .

**SOLUTION** Mentally substitute  $u = \tan t$ .

$$\int \frac{e^{\tan t}}{\cos^2 t} dt = \int e^u (\sec^2 t dt) = \frac{e^{\tan t}}{\tan t} + C$$

**WARNING** The substitution  $u = \tan t$  was covered in Section 6.4, but the substitution is undefined at  $\pi/2$  and  $3\pi/2$ . We must remember to make the appropriate change in the limits of integration.

**EXAMPLE 7** Evaluate  $\int_0^1 \sqrt{x^2 + 4} dx$ .

**SOLUTION** Let  $u = x^2 + 4$  so  $du = 2x dx$ . Note that when  $x = 2$ ,  $u = 8$  and when  $x = 0$ ,  $u = 4$ . Thus

$$\begin{aligned}\int_0^1 \sqrt{x^2 + 4} dx &= \frac{1}{2} \int_4^8 \frac{1}{\sqrt{u}} du \\&= \frac{1}{2} \left[ 2\sqrt{u} \right]_4^8 \\&= \frac{1}{2} (2\sqrt{8} - 2\sqrt{4}) = \sqrt{2}.\end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 8** Evaluate  $\int_0^1 x \sqrt{x^4 + 1} dx$ .

**SOLUTION** Mentally substitute  $u = x^4 + 1$ .

$$\begin{aligned}\int_0^1 x \sqrt{x^4 + 1} dx &= \frac{1}{4} \int_1^5 \frac{1}{\sqrt{u}} du \\&= \frac{1}{4} \left[ 2\sqrt{u} \right]_1^5 \\&= \frac{1}{2} (\sqrt{5} - 1) \approx 0.618.\end{aligned}$$

## Concepts Review

1. Differentiating an antiderivative function always yields the original function. We use this fact to find an antiderivative of a function of a function, which is expressed as  $\int f(g(x)) dx$ .

2. The substitution  $u = \frac{1}{3} - x$  transforms  $\int (4x^2 + x^3)^5 dx$  to

3. The substitution  $u = \frac{1}{2} \ln x$  transforms

$$\int x^2 \sqrt{4 - \ln x} dx \text{ to } \int \sqrt{4 - u} e^{2u} du$$

4. The substitution  $u = 1 + \tan x$  transforms

$$\int \frac{1}{1 + \tan x} dx \text{ to } \int \frac{1}{u} du$$

## Problem Set 7.1

In Problems 1–54, perform the indicated integrations.

1.  $\int \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
2.  $\int \sqrt{1-x} dx$
3.  $\int_0^2 x(x^3 + 1)^5 dx$
4.  $\int_0^1 x \sqrt{x+1} dx$
5.  $\int \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
6.  $\int \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
7.  $\int \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
8.  $\int \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
9.  $\int \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
10.  $\int \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
11.  $\int \frac{\tan x}{\cos^2 x} dx$
12.  $\int \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
13.  $\int \frac{\ln \sqrt{x}}{\sqrt{x}} dx$
14.  $\int \frac{x}{x^2 + 1} dx$
15.  $\int_0^{\pi} \frac{\cos x}{\sin^2 x} dx$
16.  $\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
17.  $\int \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
18.  $\int \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
19.  $\int \frac{\sin x}{x} dx$
20.  $\int \frac{\cos x}{x} dx$
21.  $\int \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
22.  $\int \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
23.  $\int \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
24.  $\int \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
25.  $\int \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
26.  $\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
27.  $\int \frac{\sin x}{\cos^2 x} dx$
28.  $\int \frac{\sin x}{\cos^2 x} dx$
29.  $\int e^x \sec e^x dx$  *Hint: See Problem 5b.*
30.  $\int \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
31.  $\int \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
32.  $\int \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
33.  $\int \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
34.  $\int \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
35.  $\int \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
36.  $\int \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx$

37.  $\int \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
38.  $\int \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
39.  $\int \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
40.  $\int \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
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49.  $\int \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
50.  $\int \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
51.  $\int \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
52.  $\int \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
53.  $\int \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
54.  $\int \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx$

55. Find the length of the curve  $y = \cos^{-1} x$  between  $x = -1$  and  $x = 1$ .

56. Establish the identity

$$\sec^2 x = \frac{1}{\cos^2 x} = \frac{1}{1 - \sin^2 x}$$

and then use it to derive the formula

$$\int \sec^2 x dx = \tan x + C$$

57. Evaluate  $\int_0^{\pi} \frac{1}{1 + \cos x} dx$ . *Hint: Make the substitution  $u = \pi - x$  in the definite integral and then use symmetry to evaluate.*

58. Let  $R$  be the region bounded by  $x = \sin t$  and  $y = \cos t$  for  $0 \leq t \leq \pi$ . Find the area of  $R$ . *Hint: Use the parametric equations to find the area of  $R$  by the method of disks.*

59. Let  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2 + 1}$ . Find the area of the region bounded by  $y = f(x)$  and the  $x$ -axis from  $x = -1$  to  $x = 1$ .

$$\int \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx = \arctan x + C$$

## 7.2 Integration by Parts

If integration by substitution fails it may be possible to use a double substitution, better known as *integration by parts*. This method is based on the differentiation of the formula for the derivative of a product of two functions.

Let  $u = u(x)$  and  $v = v(x)$ . Then

$$D_x[u(x)v(x)] = u(x)v'(x) + v(x)u'(x)$$

or

$$u(x)v'(x) = D_x[u(x)v(x)] - v(x)u'(x)$$

By integrating both sides of this equation, we obtain

$$\int u(x)v'(x)dx = u(x)v(x) - \int v(x)u'(x)dx$$

Since  $dx = (1/u'(x))u'(x)dx$  and  $du = u'(x)dx$ , the preceding equation is usually written symbolically as follows:

### Integration by Parts: Indefinite Integrals

$$\int u dv = uv - \int v du$$

The corresponding formula for definite integrals is

$$\int_a^b u dv = uv \Big|_a^b - \int_a^b v du$$

Figure 1 illustrates a geometric interpretation of integration by parts for definite integrals. We abbreviate this as follows:

### Integration by Parts: Definite Integrals

$$\int_a^b u dv = uv \Big|_a^b - \int_a^b v du$$

These formulas allow us to shift the problem of integrating a product function into integrating a different function, depending on the proper choice of  $u$  and  $dv$ , which comes with practice.

$$\text{EXAMPLE 1} \quad \text{Find } \int_0^{\pi/2} x \cos x dx.$$

**SOLUTION** We wish to write  $x \cos x dx$  as  $u dv$ . One possibility is  $u = x$  and  $dv = \cos x dx$ . Then  $du = dx$  and  $v = \int \cos x dx = \sin x$  (We can omit the arbitrary constant in this stage. Here is a summary of the double substitution in a convenient format.)

$$\begin{array}{ll} u = x & dv = \cos x dx \\ du = dx & v = \sin x \end{array}$$

The formula for integration by parts gives

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^{\pi/2} x \cos x dx &= \left. x \sin x \right|_0^{\pi/2} - \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin x dx \\ &= \left. x \sin x + \cos x \right|_0^{\pi/2} = \frac{\pi}{2} \sin \frac{\pi}{2} + \cos \frac{\pi}{2} - 0 = \frac{\pi}{2} \end{aligned}$$

We were successful on our first try. Another substitution would be

Integration by Parts

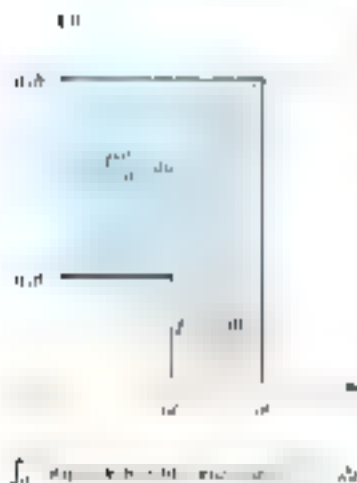


Figure 1

$$u = \cos x \qquad dv = x \, dx$$

$$du = -\sin x \, dx \qquad v = \frac{x^2}{2}$$

This time the formula for integration by parts gives

$$\int \underbrace{(\cos x)}_u \underbrace{x \, dx}_{dv} = \underbrace{(\cos x)}_u \underbrace{\frac{x^2}{2}}_v - \int \underbrace{\frac{x^2}{2}}_v \underbrace{(-\sin x \, dx)}_{du}$$

which, contrary to our first attempt, is a new expression for the original integral, one that is simpler than the original one. Thus we see an importance of a wise choice for  $u$  and  $dv$ . ■

**EXAMPLE 4** Find  $\int \ln x \, dx$ .

**SOLUTION** We make the following substitutions:

$$u = \ln x \qquad dv = dx$$

$$du = \left(\frac{1}{x}\right) dx \qquad v = x$$

Then

$$\int \ln x \, dx = (x \ln x) - \int x \left(\frac{1}{x}\right) dx$$

$$= x \ln x - \int 1 \, dx$$

$$= x \ln x - x + C \quad \text{[Eq. (2)]}$$

**EXAMPLE 5** Find  $\int \arcsin x \, dx$ .

**SOLUTION** We make the substitutions

$$u = \arcsin x \qquad dv = dx$$

$$du = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx \qquad v = x$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} \int \arcsin x \, dx &= x \arcsin x - \int \frac{x}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \, dx \\ &= x \arcsin x + \frac{1}{2} \int (1-x^2)^{-1/2} (-2x \, dx) \\ &= x \arcsin x + \frac{1}{2} \cdot 2(1-x^2)^{1/2} + C \\ &= x \arcsin x + \sqrt{1-x^2} + C \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 6** Find  $\int x^2 \ln x \, dx$ .

**SOLUTION** We make the following substitutions

$$\begin{aligned}u &= \ln r & dx &= r^{\frac{1}{2}} dr \\du &= \frac{1}{r} dr & v &= \frac{1}{\frac{1}{2}} r^{\frac{1}{2}+1}\end{aligned}$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned}\int x \ln x \, dx &= x \ln x - \int x \cdot \frac{1}{x} \, dx \\&= \frac{1}{2} (2x \ln x - \ln x) - \frac{1}{2} x^2 + C \\&= \frac{1}{2} x^2 \ln x - \frac{1}{4} x^2 + C \\&= \frac{(28)}{2} \ln 2 - \frac{(27)}{49} \approx 10.083\end{aligned}$$

**NOTE** In Example 5,  $\int x^2 \sin x \, dx$ , some integration is necessary to apply integration by parts several times.

**EXAMPLE 5** Find  $\int x^2 \sin x \, dx$ .

**SOLUTION** Let

$$\begin{aligned}u &= x^2 & dv &= \sin x \, dx \\du &= 2x \, dx & v &= -\cos x\end{aligned}$$

Then

$$\int x^2 \sin x \, dx = -x^2 \cos x + \int x \cos x \, dx$$

We have improved our equation in Example 5, but we have from 2 to 1, which since we're applying integration by parts to the integral on the right. Actually we do this integration in Example 6, so we will not discuss it. The result of this is that

$$\begin{aligned}\int x^2 \sin x \, dx &= -x^2 \cos x + 2(x \sin x - \cos x) + C \\&= x^2 \cos x + 2x \sin x + 2 \cos x + C\end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 6** Find  $\int e^x \sin x \, dx$ .

**SOLUTION** Take  $u = e^x$  and  $dv = \sin x \, dx$ . Then  $du = e^x \, dx$  and  $v = -\cos x$ . Thus

$$\int e^x \sin x \, dx = -e^x \cos x + \int e^x \cos x \, dx$$

which does not seem to have improved things—but does not leave us any worse off either. So let's not give up and try integration by parts again on the integral on the right: let  $u = e^x$  and  $dv = \cos x \, dx$ , so  $du = e^x \, dx$  and  $v = \sin x$ . Then

$$\int e^x \cos x \, dx = e^x \sin x - \int e^x \sin x \, dx$$



When we substitute this in our first result, we get

$$\int e^x \sin x \, dx = -e^x \cos x + e^x \sin x - \int e^x \sin x \, dx$$

By moving the last term to the left side and combining terms, we obtain

$$2 \int e^x \sin x \, dx = e^x (\sin x - \cos x) + C$$

from which

$$\int e^x \sin x \, dx = \frac{1}{2} e^x (\sin x - \cos x) + C$$

The fact that the integral we wanted to find reappeared in the right side is what made Example 6 work.

**Reduction Formula 45** A formula of the form

$$\int f(x) g(x) \, dx = h(x) + \int f'(x) g(x) \, dx$$

where  $h = h(x)$  is called a **reduction formula**; the exponent on  $x$  is reduced. Such formulas can often be obtained via integration by parts.

**EXAMPLE 45** Derive a reduction formula for  $\int \sin^n x \, dx$ .

**SOLUTION** Let  $u = \sin^{n-1} x$  and  $dv = \sin x \, dx$ . Then

$$du = (n-1)\sin^{n-2} x \cos x \, dx \quad \text{and} \quad v = -\cos x$$

from which

$$\int \sin^n x \, dx = -\sin^{n-1} x \cos x + (n-1) \int \sin^{n-2} x \cos^2 x \, dx$$

If we replace  $\cos^2 x$  by  $1 - \sin^2 x$  in the last integral, we obtain

$$\int \sin^n x \, dx = -\sin^{n-1} x \cos x + (n-1) \int \sin^{n-2} x \, dx - (n-1) \int \sin^n x \, dx$$

After combining the first and last integrals above and solving for  $\int \sin^n x \, dx$ , we get the reduction formula (valid for  $n \geq 2$ )

$$\int \sin^n x \, dx = \frac{-\sin^{n-1} x \cos x}{n} + \frac{n-1}{n} \int \sin^{n-2} x \, dx$$

**EXAMPLE 46** Use the reduction formula above to evaluate  $\int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^4 x \, dx$ .

**SOLUTION** Note first that

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^4 x \, dx &= \frac{-\sin^3 x \cos x}{3} \bigg|_0^{\pi/2} + \frac{2}{3} \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^2 x \, dx \\ &= 0 + \frac{2}{3} \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^2 x \, dx \end{aligned}$$

Thus,



48. Use the Limit Comparison Problems 44 and 47.

In Problems 49–54, use integration by parts to derive the given formula.

49.  $\int_0^1 \sin^{-1} x \, dx = \frac{\pi}{2} - 1$

$$\int_0^1 x \cos^{-1} x \, dx = \frac{\pi}{2} - \frac{1}{2}$$

50.  $\int_0^1 \cos^{-1} x \, dx = \frac{\pi}{2} - 1$

$$\int_0^1 x \sin^{-1} x \, dx = \frac{\pi}{2} - \frac{1}{2}$$

51.  $\int_0^1 x^n \ln x \, dx = -\frac{1}{n+1} \int_0^1 x^n \ln x \, dx$

52.  $\int_0^1 x^n \ln x \, dx = -\frac{1}{n+1} \int_0^1 x^n \ln x \, dx$

53.  $\int_0^1 x^n \ln x \, dx = -\frac{1}{n+1} \int_0^1 x^n \ln x \, dx$

54.  $\int_0^1 x^n \ln x \, dx = -\frac{1}{n+1} \int_0^1 x^n \ln x \, dx$

$$\int_0^1 x^n \ln x \, dx = -\frac{1}{n+1} \int_0^1 x^n \ln x \, dx$$

In Problems 55–61, derive the given reduction formula using integration by parts.

55.  $\int_0^1 x^n e^{ax} \, dx = \frac{1}{a} \int_0^1 x^{n-1} e^{ax} \, dx$

56.  $\int_0^1 x^n \ln x \, dx = \frac{1}{n} \int_0^1 x^{n-1} \ln x \, dx$

57.  $\int_0^1 x^n \ln x \, dx = \frac{1}{n} \int_0^1 x^{n-1} \ln x \, dx$

58.  $\int_0^1 (\ln x)^n \, dx = -\frac{1}{n} \int_0^1 (\ln x)^{n-1} \, dx$

59.  $\int_0^1 x^n \ln x \, dx = -\frac{1}{n+1} \int_0^1 x^n \ln x \, dx$

$$\int_0^1 x^n \ln x \, dx = -\frac{1}{n+1} \int_0^1 x^n \ln x \, dx$$

60.  $\int_0^1 x^n \ln x \, dx = -\frac{1}{n+1} \int_0^1 x^n \ln x \, dx$

61.  $\int_0^1 x^n \ln x \, dx = -\frac{1}{n+1} \int_0^1 x^n \ln x \, dx$

62. Use Problem 55 to derive

$$\int_0^1 x^n \ln x \, dx = -\frac{1}{n+1} \int_0^1 x^n \ln x \, dx$$

63. Use Problems 58 and 59 to derive

$$\int_0^1 x^n \ln x \, dx = -\frac{1}{n+1} \int_0^1 x^n \ln x \, dx$$

64. Use Problem 61 to derive

$$\int_0^1 x^n \ln x \, dx = -\frac{1}{n+1} \int_0^1 x^n \ln x \, dx$$

65. Find the area of the region bounded by the curve
- $y = \ln x$
- and the
- $x$
- axis.

66. Find the volume of the solid generated by revolving the region of Problem 65 about the
- $x$
- axis.

67. Find the area of the region bounded by the curves
- $y = \ln x$
- ,
- $y = 0$
- ,
- $x = 1$
- , and
- $x = e$
- . Sketch the region.

68. Find the volume of the solid generated by revolving the region of Problem 67 about the
- $x$
- axis.

69. Find the area of the region bounded by the graphs of
- $y = \ln x$
- and
- $y = 0$
- from
- $x = 1$
- to
- $x = e$
- .

70. Find the volume of the solid obtained by revolving the region under the graph of
- $y = \ln x$
- from
- $x = 1$
- to
- $x = e$
- about the
- $x$
- axis.

71. Find the centroid (see Section 6.6) of the region bounded by
- $y = \ln x$
- and the
- $x$
- axis from
- $x = 1$
- to
- $x = e$
- .

72. Evaluate the integral
- $\int_0^1 x \ln x \, dx$
- by parts in two different ways.

73. By differentiating
- $\int_0^1 x^n \ln x \, dx$
- , show that
- $\int_0^1 x^n \ln x \, dx = -\frac{1}{n+1} \int_0^1 x^n \ln x \, dx$
- .

74. Use the reduction formula of Problem 55 to evaluate
- $\int_0^1 x^n e^{ax} \, dx$
- for
- $n = 0, 1, 2, 3$
- .

$$\int_0^1 x^n e^{ax} \, dx = \frac{1}{a} \int_0^1 x^{n-1} e^{ax} \, dx$$

Use this result to find each of the following.

75.  $\int_0^1 x^n e^{ax} \, dx$

76. The graph of
- $y = \ln x$
- for
- $x > 0$
- is sketched in Figure 2.

77. (a) Find a formula for the area of the
- $n$
- th arch.
- 
- (b) The second arch is revolved about the
- $x$
- axis. Find the volume of the resulting solid.



FIGURE 2

78. The quantity
- $a_n = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^\pi f(x) \sin nx \, dx$
- plays an important role in applied mathematics. Show that if
- $f$
- is continuous on
- $[0, \pi]$
- , then
- $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$
- . (Use integration by parts.)

79. Let
- $G_n = \int_0^\pi \sin nx \, dx$
- . Show that
- $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} G_n = 0$
- . (Use the Riemann sum and use Exercise 78.)

80. Find the error in the following "proof" that
- $\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x} \, dx = 1$
- . Let
- $u = 1/x$
- and
- $dv = dx$
- . Then
- $du = -1/x^2 \, dx$
- and
- $uv = 1$
- . Integration by parts gives

$$\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x} \, dx = \left. \frac{1}{x} \right|_0^1 = 1 - \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{1}{x}$$

or

76. Suppose that you want to evaluate the integral

$$\int_0^1 \cos x \sin^2 x \, dx$$

and you know from experience that the result will be of the form  $e^{\pm 1} C$  (see 7.1, Ex. 25). Compute  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  by differentiating the guess and setting it equal to the integrand.

After a random selection of several guesses, you discover through the use of a calculator that the function  $\cos x$  is the derivative of  $\sin x$ . What does this tell you about  $C_1$  and  $C_2$ ?

77. Show that

$$\int_a^b u \, dv = uv \Big|_a^b - \int_a^b v \, du$$

80. Using Problem 79 and replacing  $u$  by  $f'$  show that

$$f(b) - f(a) = \int_a^b f'(x) \, dx$$

81. Show that

$$f(x) - f(a) = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{f^{(k)}(a)}{k!} (x-a)^k + \int_a^x \frac{f^{(n+1)}(t)}{(n+1)!} (x-t)^n \, dt$$

provided that  $f$  can be differentiated  $n+1$  times.

82. The *Beta function*, which is important in many branches of mathematics, is defined as

$$B(\alpha, \beta) = \int_0^1 x^{\alpha-1} (1-x)^{\beta-1} \, dx$$

with the condition that  $\alpha > 0$  and  $\beta > 0$ .

(a) Show by a change of variables that

$$B(\alpha, \beta) = \int_0^1 x^{\beta-1} (1-x)^{\alpha-1} \, dx = B(\beta, \alpha)$$

(b) Integrate by parts to show that

$$B(\alpha+1, \beta) = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha+\beta} B(\alpha, \beta) \quad \text{and} \quad B(\alpha, \beta+1) = \frac{\beta}{\alpha+\beta} B(\alpha, \beta)$$

(c) Assume now that  $\alpha = n$  and  $\beta = m$  and let  $n$  and  $m$  be nonnegative integers. By using the result in part (b) repeatedly show that

$$B(n+1, m+1) = \frac{n!m!}{(n+m+1)!}$$

This result is valid even in the case where it may be more convenient to use the definition of the Beta function with  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  arbitrary.

(d)  $B(1, 1)$  and  $B(n+1, n+1)$

83. Suppose that  $f(x)$  has the property that  $f'(x) = f(x)$ . Assume that  $f(x)$  has two continuous derivatives. Use integration by parts to prove that  $\int_a^b f'(x)f'(x) \, dx \neq 0$ . *Hint:* Use integration by parts by differentiating  $f(x)$  and integrating  $f'(x)$ . This result has many applications in the field of applied mathematics.

84. Compute the integral

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \int_0^1 (x+y+z) \, dx \, dy \, dz$$

using integration by parts.

85. Generalize the formula given in Problem 84 to give an  $n$ -fold iterated integral.

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \cdots \int_0^1 (x_1 + x_2 + \cdots + x_n) \, dx_1 \, dx_2 \cdots dx_n = \frac{1}{n+1} \int_0^1 f(x) \, dx = \frac{1}{n+1} \int_0^1 x^n \, dx$$

86. If  $P_n(x)$  is a polynomial of degree  $n$  show that

$$\int_0^1 P_n(x) \, dx = \frac{1}{n+1} P_n(1) - \frac{1}{n} P_n'(1)$$

87. Use the result from Problem 86 to evaluate

$$\int_0^1 (3x^4 + 2x^2)x^3 \, dx$$

using the result from Problem 86 in evaluating  $\int_0^1 x^7 \, dx$ .

## 7.3 Some Trigonometric Integrals

When we combine the method of substitution with a clever use of a gamma identity, we can integrate a wide variety of trigonometric forms. We consider  $6$  of the commonly encountered types.

$$1. \int \sin^n x \, dx \text{ and } \int \cos^n x \, dx$$

$$2. \int \sin^m x \cos^n x \, dx$$

$$3. \int \tan^m x \sec^n x \, dx, \int \cot^m x \csc^n x \, dx, \int \sec^n x \, dx, \int \csc^n x \, dx$$

$$4. \int \tan^n x \, dx, \int \cot^n x \, dx$$

$$5. \int \tan^m x \sec^n x \, dx, \int \cot^m x \csc^n x \, dx$$

Some trigonometric identities occur in the section and the following.

$$\sin^2 x + \cos^2 x = 1$$

$$\sin^2 x = \frac{1 - \cos 2x}{2}$$

$$\cos^2 x = \frac{1 + \cos 2x}{2}$$

$$\sin^2 x = 1 - \cos^2 x$$

$$\cos^2 x = 1 - \sin^2 x$$

$$\sin^2 x = \frac{1 - \cos 2x}{2}$$

$$\cos^2 x = \frac{1 + \cos 2x}{2}$$

**EXAMPLE 1** (n Even) Find  $\int \sin^4 x \, dx$ . Consider first the case, where  $n$  is an odd positive integer. After taking out either the factor  $\sin x$  or  $\cos x$  use the identity  $\sin^2 x + \cos^2 x = 1$ .

**EXAMPLE 1** (n Odd) Find  $\int \sin^5 x \, dx$ .

**SOLUTION**

$$\begin{aligned} \int \sin^5 x \, dx &= \int \sin^4 x \sin x \, dx \\ &= \int (1 - \cos^2 x)^2 \sin x \, dx \\ &= \int (1 - 2\cos^2 x + \cos^4 x) \sin x \, dx \\ &= -\int (1 - 2\cos^2 x + \cos^4 x) \cos x \, dx \\ &= -\cos x + \frac{2}{3}\cos^3 x - \frac{1}{5}\cos^5 x + C \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 2** (n Even) Find  $\int \sin^4 x \, dx$  and  $\int \cos^4 x \, dx$ .

**SOLUTION** Here we make use of half-angle identities.

$$\begin{aligned} \int \sin^4 x \, dx &= \int \left( \frac{1 - \cos 2x}{2} \right)^2 dx \\ &= \frac{1}{4} \int (1 - 2\cos 2x + \cos^2 2x) dx \\ &= \frac{1}{4} \left( x - \frac{1}{2} \sin 2x \right) + C \\ \int \cos^4 x \, dx &= \int \left( \frac{1 + \cos 2x}{2} \right)^2 dx \\ &= \frac{1}{4} \int (1 + 2\cos 2x + \cos^2 2x) dx \\ &= \frac{1}{4} \int dx + \frac{1}{2} \int \cos 2x \, dx + \frac{1}{8} \int (1 + \cos 4x) dx \\ &= \frac{1}{8} \int dx + \frac{1}{2} \int \cos 2x \, dx + \frac{1}{16} \int (1 + \cos 4x) dx \\ &= \frac{x}{8} + \frac{1}{4} \sin 2x + \frac{1}{32} \sin 4x + C \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 3** (n Even) Find  $\int \sin^6 x \, dx$ . If  $n$  is an even positive integer and the other exponent is any number we factor out  $\sin^2 x$  or  $\cos^2 x$  and use the identity  $\sin^2 x + \cos^2 x = 1$ .

**EXAMPLE 4** (n or n Odd) Find  $\int \sin^2 x \cos^4 x \, dx$ .

## SOLUTION

$$\begin{aligned}
 \int \sin^2 x \cos^4 x \, dx &= \int (1 - \cos^2 x)(\cos^4 x)(\sin x) \, dx \\
 &= \int \left( \cos^4 x - \cos^2 x - \cos^6 x + \cos^4 x \right) (-\sin x) \, dx \\
 &= \int \left( \cos^4 x - \cos^2 x - \cos^6 x + \cos^4 x \right) (-\sin x) \, dx \\
 &= \int \left( \cos^4 x - \cos^2 x - \cos^6 x + \cos^4 x \right) (-\sin x) \, dx \\
 &= \frac{1}{3} \sec^3 x - \sec x + C
 \end{aligned}$$

If both  $m$  and  $n$  are even positive integers, we use half-angle identities to reduce the degree of the integrand. Example 4 gives an illustration.

**EXAMPLE 4** (Both  $m$  and  $n$  Even) Find  $\int \sin^4 x \cos^4 x \, dx$ .

## SOLUTION

$$\begin{aligned}
 \int \sin^4 x \cos^4 x \, dx &= \int \left( \frac{1 - \cos 2x}{2} \right)^2 \left( \frac{1 + \cos 2x}{2} \right)^2 dx \\
 &= \frac{1}{8} \int (1 - \cos 2x)^2 (1 + \cos 2x)^2 dx \\
 &= \frac{1}{8} \int (1 - 2\cos 2x + \cos^2 2x)(1 + \cos 2x)^2 dx \\
 &= \frac{1}{8} \int (1 - 2\cos 2x + \frac{1}{2}(1 + \cos 4x))(1 + 2\cos 2x + \cos^2 2x) dx \\
 &= \frac{1}{8} \int \left( \frac{3}{2} - 2\cos 2x + \frac{1}{2}\cos 4x \right)(1 + 2\cos 2x + \cos^2 2x) dx \\
 &= \frac{1}{8} \int \left( \frac{3}{2} - 2\cos 2x + \frac{1}{2}\cos 4x \right) (1 + 2\cos 2x + \frac{1}{2}(1 + \cos 4x)) dx \\
 &= \frac{1}{8} \int \left( \frac{3}{2} - 2\cos 2x + \frac{1}{2}\cos 4x \right) \left( \frac{3}{2} + 2\cos 2x + \frac{1}{2}\cos 4x \right) dx \\
 &= \frac{1}{8} \int \left( \frac{9}{4} - 2\cos 2x + \frac{1}{4}\cos 4x \right) dx \\
 &= \frac{1}{8} \left( \frac{9}{4}x - \sin 2x + \frac{1}{16}\sin 4x \right) + C
 \end{aligned}$$

Integrating by parts is usually not the best way to integrate trigonometric functions.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \int \sin^4 x \cos^4 x \, dx &= \int \sin^3 x \cos^4 x (-\sin x) \, dx \\
 &= -\int \sin^3 x \cos^4 x \sin x \, dx \\
 &= -\int \sin^2 x \cos^4 x \sin^2 x \, dx
 \end{aligned}$$

By a second method,

$$\begin{aligned}
 \int \sin^4 x \cos^4 x \, dx &= \int \sin^2 x \cos^2 x \sin^2 x \cos^2 x \, dx \\
 &= \int \sin^2 x \cos^2 x \sin^2 x \cos^2 x \, dx
 \end{aligned}$$

But two such answers should differ by at most a constant. Note, however, that

$$\sin^4 x + \cos^4 x = (\sin^2 x + \cos^2 x)^2 - 2\sin^2 x \cos^2 x = 1 - 2\sin^2 x \cos^2 x$$

Now combine these answers with a third answer

$$\begin{aligned}
 \int \sin^4 x \cos^4 x \, dx &= \int \sin^2 x \cos^2 x \sin^2 x \cos^2 x \, dx \\
 &= \frac{1}{8} \sin^4 x + C
 \end{aligned}$$

Integrals of this type occur in many physics and engineering applications. To evaluate these integrals, we use the product identities.

$$1. \sin mx \cos nx = \frac{1}{2}(\sin(m+n)x + \sin(m-n)x)$$

$$2. \sin mx \sin nx = \frac{1}{2}(\cos(m-n)x - \cos(m+n)x)$$

$$3. \cos mx \cos nx = \frac{1}{2}(\cos(m-n)x + \cos(m+n)x)$$

**EXAMPLE 5** Find  $\int \sin^2 x \cos^2 x \, dx$ .

**SOLUTION** Apply product identity 1.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \int_0^{\pi/5} x \cos 5x \, dx &= -\frac{1}{5} \int_0^{\pi/5} x \sin(-5x) \, dx \\
 &= -\frac{1}{10} \int_0^{\pi/5} x \sin 5x \left( \frac{1}{5} dx \right) = -\frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\pi/5} x \sin x \, dx \\
 &= -\frac{1}{10} \cos 5x + \frac{1}{2} \cos x + C.
 \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 6** If  $m$  and  $n$  are positive integers, show that

$$\int_0^{\pi} x \sin mx \sin nx \, dx = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } m \neq n \\ \pi & \text{if } m = n \end{cases}$$

**SOLUTION** Apply product identity 2. If  $m \neq n$ , then

$$\begin{aligned}
 \int_0^{\pi} x \sin mx \sin nx \, dx &= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\pi} x (\cos(m-n)x - \cos(m+n)x) \, dx \\
 &= \frac{1}{2} \left[ \frac{1}{m-n} \sin(m-n)x - \frac{1}{m+n} \sin(m+n)x \right]_0^{\pi} \\
 &= 0.
 \end{aligned}$$

If  $m = n$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}
 \int_0^{\pi} x \sin mx \sin nx \, dx &= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\pi} x \cos 2mx \, dx \\
 &= \frac{1}{2m} \left[ \sin 2mx - x \cos 2mx \right]_0^{\pi} \\
 &= -\frac{1}{2} [-2\pi] = \pi.
 \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 7** If  $m$  and  $n$  are positive integers, find

$$\int_0^1 x e^{im\pi x} \cdot \frac{1}{x} e^{in\pi x} \, dx$$

**SOLUTION** Let  $u = e^{im\pi x}$ ,  $f \, dx = m dx$ ,  $f = 1$ . If  $m \neq n$ ,  $f'(x) = e^{in\pi x} = \pi$  and if  $m = n$ , then  $f' = \pi$ . Thus

$$\begin{aligned}
 \int_0^1 x e^{im\pi x} \cdot \frac{1}{x} e^{in\pi x} \, dx &= \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^1 \sin mx \sin nx \, dx \\
 &= \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } m \neq n \\ \pi & \text{if } m = n \end{cases} \\
 &= \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } m \neq n \\ 1 & \text{if } m = n \end{cases}
 \end{aligned}$$

Here we have used the result of Example 6.

At another of times in this book we have suggested that you should view things both algebraically and a geometric point of view. So far, this section has been on trigonometric algebra, but with definite integrals such as those in Examples 6 and 7 we have an opportunity to view things geometrically.

Figure 1 shows graphs of  $y = \sin 3x \sin 2x$  and  $y = \sin(3\pi x/10) \sin(2\pi x/10)$ . The graphs suggest that the areas above and below the  $x$ -axis are the same, leaving  $A_{\text{top}} = A_{\text{bottom}} = 0$ . Examples 6 and 7 confirm this.

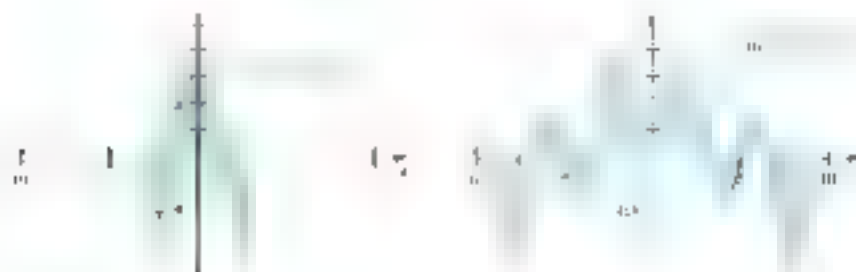


Figure 1

Figure 2 shows graphs of  $y = \sin 2x \sin 2x = \sin^2 2x$ ,  $-\pi \leq x \leq \pi$ , and  $y = \sin(2\pi x/10) \sin(2\pi x/10) = \sin^2(2\pi x/10)$ ,  $-10 \leq x \leq 10$ . These two graphs look the same except the one on the right has been stretched horizontally by the factor  $1/\pi$ . Does it then make sense that the area will increase by some multiple factor? That would make the shaded area in the figure on the right equal to  $\pi$  times the shaded area in the figure on the left. In fact, the area on the right should be  $(10/\pi) \cdot \pi = 10$ , which corresponds to the result of Example 7 with  $L = 10$ .



**TYPE 1**  $\int \tan^n x \, dx$ ,  $\int \cot^n x \, dx$  In the tangent case, factor out  $\tan^{n-1} x$ ;  $\sec^2 x = 1$ ; in the cotangent case, factor out  $\cot^{n-1} x = \csc^2 x = 1$ .

**EXAMPLE 6** Find  $\int \cot^4 x \, dx$ .

**SOLUTION**

$$\begin{aligned} \int \cot^4 x \, dx &= \int \cot^2 x (\csc^2 x - 1) \, dx \\ &= \int \cot^2 x \csc^2 x \, dx - \int \cot^2 x \, dx \\ &= \int \cot^2 x (-\csc^2 x \, dx) - \int (\csc^2 x - 1) \, dx \\ &= -\cot x - \cot x + x + C \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 7** Find  $\int \sin^2 x \, dx$ .



## SOLUTION

$$\begin{aligned}
 \int \sec x \, dx &= \int \frac{1}{\cos x} \, dx = \int \frac{1}{\cos x} \cdot \frac{\cos x}{\cos x} \, dx \\
 &= \int \frac{\cos x}{\cos^2 x} \, dx = \int \frac{\cos x}{1 - \sin^2 x} \, dx \\
 &= \int \frac{\cos x}{1 - \sin^2 x} \, dx = \int \frac{\cos x}{(1 - \sin x)(1 + \sin x)} \, dx \\
 &= \int \frac{\cos x}{1 - \sin^2 x} \, dx = \int \frac{\cos x}{1 - \sin^2 x} \, dx + \int \frac{\cos x}{1 + \sin^2 x} \, dx \\
 &= \frac{1}{2} \ln |1 - \sin^2 x| - \frac{1}{2} \ln |1 + \sin^2 x| + C
 \end{aligned}$$

Type 5  $\int \tan^m x \sec^n x \, dx$  ( $\tan^m x$  or  $\sec^n x$  is odd)

**EXAMPLE 7** (m Even, n Any Number) Find  $\int \tan^4 x \sec^3 x \, dx$ .

## SOLUTION

$$\begin{aligned}
 \int \tan^4 x \sec^3 x \, dx &= \int (\tan^2 x)(1 + \tan^2 x) \sec^3 x \, dx \\
 &= \int (\tan^2 x) \sec^3 x \, dx + \int (\tan^4 x) \sec^3 x \, dx \\
 &= -\frac{1}{2} \tan^{-1/2} x - \frac{1}{2} \tan^{3/2} x + C
 \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 8** (m Odd, n Any Number) Find  $\int \tan^3 x \sec^2 x \, dx$ .

## SOLUTION

$$\begin{aligned}
 \int \tan^3 x \sec^2 x \, dx &= \int \tan^2 x \sec^2 x \tan x \, dx \\
 &= \int (\sec^2 x - 1) \sec^2 x \tan x \, dx \\
 &= \int \sec^4 x \tan x \, dx - \int \sec^2 x \tan x \, dx \\
 &= \frac{1}{3} \sec^{3/2} x + 2 \sec^{1/2} x + C
 \end{aligned}$$

## Concepts Review

1. To handle  $\int \tan^m x \sec^n x \, dx$  we first rewrite as

2. To handle  $\int \sec^n x \, dx$  we first rewrite as

3. To handle  $\int \tan^m x \sec^n x \, dx$  we first rewrite as

4. To handle  $\int \tan^m x \sec^n x \, dx$  while  $m \neq 0$  we use the trigonometric identity

## Problem Set 7.4

In Problems 1–28, perform the indicated integrations.

1.  $\int \sin^2 x \, dx$

2.  $\int \sin^4 6x \, dx$

3.  $\int \sin \frac{1}{x} \, dx$

4.  $\int \sin \frac{1}{x^2} \, dx$

5.  $\int_0^{\pi/2} \cos^3 \theta \, d\theta$

6.  $\int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^2 \theta \, d\theta$

7.  $\int \sin^2 x \cos^3 x \, dx$

8.  $\int \sin^2 x \cos^4 x \, dx$

9.  $\int \cos^2 x \sin^3 x \, dx$

10.  $\int \cos^2 x \sin^4 x \, dx$

11.  $\int \sin^4 t \cos^3 t \, dt$

12.  $\int \sin^4 t \cos^4 t \, dt$

13.  $\int \sin 4y \cos 3y \, dy$

14.  $\int \cos y \sin 4y \, dy$

15.  $\int \sin^{11} t \cos^3 t \, dt$

16.  $\int \sin^8 t \cos^3 t \, dt$

17.  $\int x \sin^2 x \sin x \, dx$  Hint: Use integration by parts.

18.  $\int \sin^2 x \cos^2 x \, dx$

19.  $\int \sin^2 x \, dx$

20.  $\int \sin^4 x \, dx$

21.  $\int \sin^6 x \, dx$

22.  $\int \cos^2 x \, dx$

23.  $\int \sin^2 \frac{t}{2} \, dt$

24.  $\int \cos^2 t \, dt$

25.  $\int \tan^2 x \sec^4 x \, dx$

26.  $\int \tan^{10} x \sec^3 x \, dx$

27.  $\int \sin^2 x \sec^4 x \, dx$

28.  $\int \sin^2 x \sec^5 x \, dx$

29. Find  $\int_0^{\pi} \sin^2 x \cos^2 x \, dx$ .

30. Find  $\int_0^{\pi} \cos^2 \frac{2\pi x}{l} \cos^2 \frac{2\pi y}{l} \, dy$ ,  $m \neq n$ ,  $m, n$  integers.

31. The region bounded by  $y = x + \sin x$ ,  $y = 0$ ,  $x = \pi$ , is revolved about the  $x$ -axis. Find the volume of the resulting solid.32. The region bounded by  $y = \sin(x)$ ,  $y = 0$ , and  $x = \frac{3}{2}\pi$  is revolved about the  $y$ -axis. Find the volume of the resulting solid.33. Let  $f^*(x) = \sum_{n=1}^x \sin(\frac{1}{n})$ . Use Example 5 to show thatas  $x$  approaches  $\infty$ ,  $f^*(x)$  approaches  $\pi$ .

14.  $\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^2} \ln(x) \, dx = \frac{1}{2} \ln^2(x) - \frac{1}{x} \ln(x) + \frac{1}{x} + C$

15.  $\int_0^1 f^*(x) \, dx = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$

Note: Integrals of this type occur in a subject called *hypergeometric series*, which has many applications in physics and other places.

34. Show that

$$\int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^2 x \cos^2 x \, dx = \frac{\pi}{16}$$

by completing the following steps.

16.  $\cos^2 \frac{x}{2} \cos^2 \frac{x}{2} = \cos^4 \frac{x}{2}$

$$\cos^4 \frac{x}{2} = \frac{1}{8} (3 + 4 \cos x + \cos 2x)$$

(See Problem 46 of Section 6.7.)

17. Recognize a Riemann sum leading to a definite integral.

18. Evaluate the definite integral.

35. Use the result of Problem 34 to obtain the definite integral in Archimedes' method (154) for  $\pi$ .

$$\frac{1}{\pi} = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{1 - \frac{1}{2}} + \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{1 - \frac{1}{4}} \right)$$

36. The shaded region (Figure 3) between one arch of  $y = \sin x$ ,  $0 \leq x \leq \pi$ , and the line  $y = k$ ,  $0 \leq k \leq 1$ , is revolved about the line  $x = k$ , generating a solid  $S$ . Determine  $k$  so that  $S$  has

19. minimum volume and 20. maximum volume.

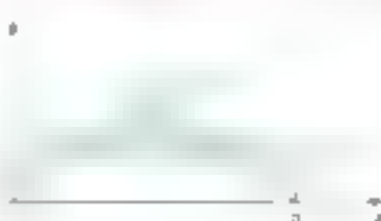


Figure 3

21.  $\int_0^{\pi} \sin^2 x \cos^2 x \, dx$

22.  $\int_0^{\pi} \sin^4 x \cos^2 x \, dx$

23.  $\int_0^{\pi} \sin^2 x \cos^4 x \, dx$

7.4  
Rationalizing  
Substitutions

Radicals in an integrand are often troublesome and we usually try to get rid of them. Often an appropriate substitution will rationalize the integrand.

**EXAMPLE 6** Find  $\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{x^2 + 1}}$ . If  $\sqrt{x^2 + 1}$  is replaced by an integral, the substitution  $u = \sqrt{x^2 + 1}$  will eliminate the radical.

**EXAMPLE 6** Find  $\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{x^2 + 1}}$ .

**SOLUTION** Let  $u = \sqrt{x^2 + 1}$  so  $u^2 = x^2 + 1$  and  $2u \, du = dx$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned}\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{x^2 + 1}} &= \int \frac{2u}{u^3} \, du = 2 \int \frac{1}{u^2} \, du \\ &= 2 \ln |u| + C = 2 \ln |\sqrt{x^2 + 1}| + C.\end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 7** Find  $\int x \sqrt{x - 4} \, dx$ .

**SOLUTION** Let  $u = \sqrt{x - 4}$ , so  $u^2 = x - 4$  and  $3u^2 \, du = dx$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned}\int x \sqrt{x - 4} \, dx &= \int (u^2 + 4)u \cdot (3u^2 \, du) = 3 \int (u^4 + 4u^3) \, du \\ &= \frac{3}{5} u^5 + \frac{3}{2} u^4 + C = \frac{3}{5} (x - 4)^{5/2} + \frac{3}{2} (x - 4)^{3/2} + C.\end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 8** Find  $\int x \sqrt{x + 1} \, dx$ .

**SOLUTION** Let  $u = (x + 1)^{1/2}$  so  $u^2 = x + 1$  and  $5u^4 \, du = dx$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned}\int x \sqrt{x + 1} \, dx &= \int (u^2 - 1)u \cdot (5u^4 \, du) \\ &= 5 \int (u^6 - u^5) \, du = \frac{5}{7} u^7 - \frac{5}{6} u^6 + C \\ &= \frac{5}{42} (x + 1)^{7/2} - \frac{5}{12} (x + 1)^{6/2} + C.\end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 9** Find  $\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{1 - x^2}}$ . To obtain the form  $\frac{dx}{\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}}$ , we must assume that  $a$  is positive, so we take  $a = 1$  without loss of generality.

| Radical               | Substitution   | Derivation (in $t$ )              |
|-----------------------|----------------|-----------------------------------|
| 1. $\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}$ | $x = a \sin t$ | $\frac{dx}{dt} = a \cos t$        |
| 2. $\sqrt{a^2 + x^2}$ | $x = a \tan t$ | $\frac{dx}{dt} = a \sec^2 t$      |
| 3. $\sqrt{x^2 - a^2}$ | $x = a \sec t$ | $\frac{dx}{dt} = a \sec t \tan t$ |

Now note the simplifications that these substitutions achieve:

1.  $\sqrt{a^2 - x^2} = \sqrt{a^2 - a^2 \sin^2 t} = \sqrt{a^2 \cos^2 t} = |a \cos t| = a \cos t$
2.  $\sqrt{a^2 + x^2} = \sqrt{a^2 + a^2 \tan^2 t} = \sqrt{a^2 \sec^2 t} = a \sec t$
3.  $\sqrt{x^2 - a^2} = \sqrt{a^2 \sec^2 t - a^2} = \sqrt{a^2 \tan^2 t} = a \tan t$

The restrictions on  $t$  allowed us to remove the absolute value signs in the first two cases, but they also achieved something else. The restrictions are exactly the ones we introduced in Section 6.1 in order to make sine, tangent, and secant invertible functions. This means that we can solve the substitution equations for  $t$  in each case and this will allow us to write our final answers in the following examples in terms of  $x$ .

**EXAMPLE 4** Find  $\int \sqrt{a^2 - x^2} dx$ .

**SOLUTION** We make the substitution

$$x = a \sin t, \quad \frac{dx}{dt} = a \cos t.$$

Then  $dx = a \cos t dt$  and  $\sqrt{a^2 - x^2} = a \cos t$ . Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} \int \sqrt{a^2 - x^2} dx &= \int a \cos t \cdot a \cos t dt = a^2 \int \cos^2 t dt \\ &= \frac{a^2}{2} \int (1 + \cos 2t) dt \\ &= \frac{a^2}{2} t + \frac{a^2}{4} \sin 2t + C \\ &= \frac{a^2}{2} t + a \sin t \cos t + C. \end{aligned}$$

Now  $t = \arcsin(x/a)$ , and since  $\sin t = x/a$ , we can use a right triangle to find  $\cos t$ .

$$\sin t = \left( \frac{x}{a} \right)$$

Using the right triangle in Figure 7.4.6, as we did in Section 6.6, we see that

$$\cos t = \cos \arcsin \left( \frac{x}{a} \right) = \sqrt{1 - \frac{x^2}{a^2}} = \frac{\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}}{a}.$$

Thus,

$$\int \sqrt{a^2 - x^2} dx = \frac{a^2}{2} \sin^{-1} \frac{x}{a} + \frac{x}{2} \sqrt{a^2 - x^2} + C.$$

The result in Example 4 allows us to calculate the following definite integral, which represents the area of a semicircle (Figure 7.4.7). This integral confirms a result that we already know.

$$\int_{-a}^a \sqrt{a^2 - x^2} dx = \left[ \frac{a^2}{2} \sin^{-1} \left( \frac{x}{a} \right) + \frac{x}{2} \sqrt{a^2 - x^2} \right]_{-a}^a = \frac{a^2}{2} \left( \frac{\pi}{2} - \left( -\frac{\pi}{2} \right) \right) = \frac{\pi}{2} a^2.$$

**EXAMPLE 5** Find  $\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{1+x^2}}$ .

**SOLUTION** Let  $x = \tan t$ , so  $dx = \sec^2 t dt$ . Then  $\sqrt{1+x^2} = \sqrt{1+\tan^2 t} = \sec t$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{1+x^2}} &= \int \frac{\sec^2 t dt}{\sec t} = \int \sec t dt \\ &= \ln |\sec t + \tan t| + C. \end{aligned}$$

The last step, the integral of  $\sec t$ , was handled in Problem 5b of Section 7.2.

Now let  $t = \arctan x$ , which gives us the angle  $t$  in Figure 7.4.8, from which we conclude that  $\sec t = \sqrt{1+x^2}$ . Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} \int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{1+x^2}} &= \ln \left| \sqrt{1+x^2} + x \right| + C \\ &= \ln \left| \sqrt{1+x^2} + x \right| + C = \ln \sqrt{1+x^2} + C \\ &= \ln \sqrt{1+x^2} + C. \end{aligned}$$

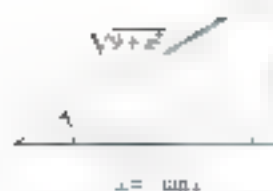
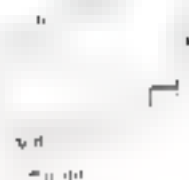


Figure 7.4.8

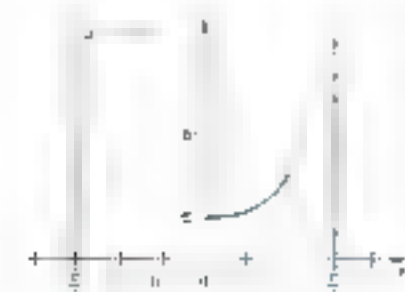


Figure 4

**EXAMPLE 6** Calculate  $\int_2^4 \frac{\sqrt{x^2 - 4}}{x} dx$ .

**SOLUTION** Let  $x = 2 \sec t$ , where  $0 \leq t < \pi/2$ . Note that the restriction on  $t$  to this interval is acceptable since  $x$  is in the interval  $2 \leq x \leq 4$  (see Figure 4). This is important, because it allows us to remove the absolute value sign that normally appears when we simplify  $\sqrt{x^2 - a^2}$  in this case.

$$\sqrt{x^2 - 4} = \sqrt{4 \sec^2 t - 4} = \sqrt{4 \tan^2 t} = 2|\tan t| = 2 \tan t$$

We next use the theorem on substitution in definite integrals (which requires changing the limits of integration) to write

$$\begin{aligned} \int_2^4 \frac{\sqrt{x^2 - 4}}{x} dx &= \int_0^{\pi/2} \frac{2 \tan t}{2 \sec t} \cdot 2 \sec t \tan t dt \\ &= \int_0^{\pi/2} 2 \tan^2 t dt = 2 \int_0^{\pi/2} (\sec^2 t - 1) dt \\ &= 2 \left[ \tan t - t \right]_0^{\pi/2} = 2 \left( \lim_{t \rightarrow \pi/2^-} \tan t - \frac{\pi}{2} \right) = -\pi. \end{aligned}$$

**REMARK** In Example 6, we used the trigonometric substitution  $x = 2 \sec t$ . When a quadratic expression of the type  $x^2 - a^2$  appears under a radical, considering the quadratic as a difference of two squares suggests a trigonometric substitution.

**EXAMPLE 7** Find (a)  $\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{x^2 - 4x + 20}}$  and (b)  $\int \frac{7x}{\sqrt{x^2 - 2x + 20}} dx$ .

**SOLUTION**

(a)  $x^2 - 2x + 20 = (x - 1)^2 + 19 = (x - 1)^2 + 19 \tan^2 t = 19 \sec^2 t$  if  $x - 1 = \sqrt{19} \tan t$ . Then

$$\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{x^2 - 2x + 20}} = \int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{19 \sec^2 t}}$$

Next let  $u = \sqrt{19} \tan t$ ,  $-\pi/2 < t < \pi/2$ . Then  $du = \sqrt{19} \sec^2 t dt$  and  $\sqrt{u^2 + 19} = \sqrt{19 \tan^2 t + 19} = \sqrt{19} \sec t$ , so

$$\int \frac{du}{\sqrt{u^2 + 19}} = \int \frac{\sqrt{19} \sec^2 t dt}{\sqrt{19} \sec t} = \int \sec t dt$$

$$= \ln |\sec t + \tan t| + C$$

$$= \ln \left| \frac{\sqrt{u^2 + 19}}{u} + \frac{u}{u} \right| + C = \ln \left| \frac{\sqrt{u^2 + 19} + u}{u} \right| + C \quad (\text{by Figure 5})$$

$$= \ln \left| \frac{\sqrt{x^2 - 2x + 20} + x - 1}{x - 1} \right| + C = \ln \left| \frac{\sqrt{x^2 - 2x + 20} + x}{x - 1} \right| + C$$

(b) To handle the second integral, we write

$$\int \frac{7x}{\sqrt{x^2 - 2x + 20}} dx = \int \frac{7x - 7}{\sqrt{x^2 - 2x + 20}} dx + \int \frac{7}{\sqrt{x^2 - 2x + 20}} dx$$

The first of the integrals on the right is handled by the substitution  $u = x^2 - 2x + 20$ ; the second was just done. We obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \int \frac{7x}{\sqrt{x^2 - 2x + 20}} dx &= \int \frac{7x - 7}{\sqrt{x^2 - 2x + 20}} dx + \int \frac{7}{\sqrt{x^2 - 2x + 20}} dx \\ &= \int \frac{7x - 7}{\sqrt{u}} \frac{du}{2} + 7 \ln \left| \frac{\sqrt{x^2 - 2x + 20} + x}{x - 1} \right| + C \\ &= \frac{7}{2} \int \frac{u - 7}{\sqrt{u}} du + 7 \ln \left| \frac{\sqrt{x^2 - 2x + 20} + x}{x - 1} \right| + C \end{aligned}$$

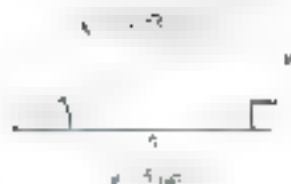


Figure 5

## Concepts Review

1. To handle  $\int x\sqrt{x-3} \, dx$ , make the substitution  $u =$  \_\_\_\_\_.
2. To handle an integral involving  $\sqrt{4-x}$  make the substitution  $x =$  \_\_\_\_\_.
3. To handle an integral involving  $\sqrt{4+x}$  make the substitution  $x =$  \_\_\_\_\_.
4. To handle an integral involving  $\sqrt{x^2-4}$ , make the substitution  $x =$  \_\_\_\_\_.

## Problem Set 7.4

In Problems 1–16, perform the indicated integrations.

1.  $\int x\sqrt{x-1} \, dx$
2.  $\int \sqrt{x+3} \, dx$
3.  $\int \frac{t \, dt}{t^2+4}$
4.  $\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \, dx$
5.  $\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+u}} \, du$
6.  $\int \frac{1}{1+u^2} \, du$
7.  $\int 4(3t+2)^{3/2} \, dt$
8.  $\int x(1-x)^{5/3} \, dx$
9.  $\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \, dx$
10.  $\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$
11.  $\int \frac{1}{1+x^2} \, dx$
12.  $\int \frac{dx}{1+x^2}$
13.  $\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \, dx$
14.  $\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \, dx$
15.  $\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \, dx$
16.  $\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \, dx$

In Problems 17–26, use the method of completing the square, along with a trigonometric substitution if needed, to evaluate each integral.

17.  $\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \, dx$
18.  $\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \, dx$
19.  $\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \, dx$
20.  $\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \, dx$
21.  $\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \, dx$
22.  $\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \, dx$
23.  $\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$
24.  $\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \, dx$
25.  $\int \frac{2x+1}{x^2-2x+2} \, dx$
26.  $\int \frac{2x}{x^2-6x+10} \, dx$

27. The region bounded by  $y = 1$ ,  $(x-1)^2 + y^2 = 4$ ,  $x = 0$ , and  $x = 4$ , is revolved about the  $x$ -axis. Find the volume of the resulting solid.

28. The region of Problem 27 is revolved about the  $y$ -axis. Find the volume of the resulting solid.

29. Find  $\int \frac{y \, dx}{x^2+y^2}$  by

- a. an algebraic substitution and
- b. a trigonometric substitution. Then, compare your answers.

30. Find  $\int_0^1 \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \, dx$  by making the substitution  $u =$  \_\_\_\_\_.

u =  $\sqrt{1-x^2}$      $x = \sqrt{1-u^2}$      $dx = \frac{-u}{\sqrt{1-u^2}} \, du$

31. Find  $\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \, dx$  by

- a. the substitution  $u = \frac{1}{1-x^2}$  and
- b. a trigonometric substitution. Then, compare your answers.

32. Two circles of radius 4 intersect as shown in Figure 6 with their centers 10 units apart. Find the area of the region of their overlap.



33. Hippocrates of Chios (ca. 470 bc) showed that the two shaded regions in Figure 7 have the same area. He squared the lunes! Note that  $C$  is the center of the large arc of the large Hippocrates' lune.

- a. use calculus and
- b. without calculus.

34. Generalize the idea in Problem 33 by finding a formula for the area of the shaded lune shown in Figure 8.



35. Starting at  $(a, 0)$ , an object is pulled along by a string of length  $a$  with the pulling end moving along the positive  $y$ -axis (Figure 9). The path of the object is a curve called a tractrix.

and has the property that the curve is always tangent to the circle. Set up a differential equation for the curve and solve it.

$$\frac{1}{2} \ln x + \frac{1}{2} \ln y = \frac{1}{2} \ln 2 + \frac{1}{2} \ln 3 + \frac{1}{2} \ln 4 + \frac{1}{2} \ln 5$$

## Integration of Rational Functions Using Partial Fractions

A **rational function** is, by definition, the quotient of two polynomial functions. Examples are

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2 + 1}, \quad g(x) = \frac{x^2 + 5}{x^2 - 4x + 8}, \quad \text{and} \quad h(x) = \frac{x^3}{x^2 + 5}.$$

These functions are **proper rational functions**, meaning that the degree of the numerator is less than that of the denominator. A proper rational function can always be written as a sum of a polynomial function and a proper rational function. Thus, for example

$$h(x) = \frac{x^3}{x^2 + 5} = x^2 - 3 + \frac{15x + 9}{x^2 + 5}.$$

The sum obtained by long division (Figure 34) is a polynomial plus a proper rational function. The problem of integrating rational functions is really that of integrating proper rational functions. In a sense, a way to do this is to express the given function as the sum of the integral of  $f$  and  $g$  above.

**EXAMPLE 1** Find  $\int \frac{x}{x^2 + 1} dx$ .

**SOLUTION** Think of the substitution  $u = x^2 + 1$ .

$$\int \frac{x}{x^2 + 1} dx = \frac{1}{2} \int \frac{1}{u} du = \frac{1}{2} \ln |u| + C = \frac{1}{2} \ln |x^2 + 1| + C.$$

**EXAMPLE 2** Find  $\int \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 4x + 8} dx$ .

**SOLUTION** Think first of the substitution  $u = x^2 - 4x + 8$  for which  $du = (2x - 4) dx$ . Then write the given integrand as a sum of two integrals.

$$\begin{aligned} \int \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 4x + 8} dx &= \int \frac{x^2 - 4x + 8}{x^2 - 4x + 8} dx + \int \frac{5x - 7}{x^2 - 4x + 8} dx \\ &= \ln |x^2 - 4x + 8| + 5 \int \frac{1}{x^2 - 4x + 8} dx. \end{aligned}$$

In the second integral, complete the square:

$$\begin{aligned} \int \frac{1}{x^2 - 4x + 8} dx &= \int \frac{1}{(x - 2)^2 + 4} dx = \int \frac{1}{(x - 2)^2 + 2^2} dx \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \tan^{-1} \frac{x - 2}{2} + C. \end{aligned}$$

We conclude that

$$\int \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 4x + 8} dx = \ln |x^2 - 4x + 8| + \frac{5}{2} \tan^{-1} \frac{x - 2}{2} + C.$$

$$\begin{aligned} &+ 5x \left[ \frac{1}{x^2 + 5} + \frac{2x}{x^2 + 5} \right] \\ &= \frac{5x}{x^2 + 5} + \frac{10x^2}{x^2 + 5} \\ &= \frac{5x + 10x^2}{x^2 + 5} \\ &= \frac{10x^2 + 5x}{x^2 + 5} \end{aligned}$$

or

It is a remarkable fact that any proper rational function can be written as a sum of *simple* proper rational functions like those displayed in Examples 1 and 2.

For example,  $\frac{1}{x^2 - 1} = \frac{1}{(x - 1)(x + 1)}$  can be written as the sum of two fractions. To add fractions is a related algebra exercise, and common denominators are helpful. For example,

$$\frac{1}{x^2 - 1} = \frac{1}{x + 1} + \frac{1}{x - 1} = \frac{1}{(x - 1)(x + 1)} + \frac{1}{(x - 1)(x + 1)} = \frac{1 + 1}{(x - 1)(x + 1)} = \frac{2}{(x - 1)(x + 1)}.$$

It is the reverse process of decomposing a fraction into a sum of simple fractions that interests us now. We focus on the denominator and consider cases.

### 1. Case 1: Distinct Linear Factors Decompose $(3x - 1)/(x^2 - 1) = 3x - 1$ and then find its indefinite integral.

**EXAMPLE 1** Since the denominator factors as  $x^2 - 1 = (x - 1)(x + 1)$ , it is reasonable to hope for a decomposition of the following form:

$$\frac{3x - 1}{x^2 - 1} = \frac{A}{x - 1} + \frac{B}{x + 1} \quad (1)$$

The unknown constants  $A$  and  $B$  will be determined by an identity. We begin by multiplying both sides by  $x^2 - 1 = (x - 1)(x + 1)$ . We obtain

$$(2) \quad 3x - 1 = A(x + 1) + B(x - 1)$$

or equivalently

$$(3) \quad 3x - 1 = (A + B)x + (-A + B)$$

However, it is an identity if and only if coefficients of like powers of  $x$  on both sides are equal; that is,

$$\begin{aligned} A + B &= 3 \\ -A + B &= -1 \end{aligned}$$

By solving this pair of equations for  $A$  and  $B$ , we obtain  $A = 2$  and  $B = 1$ . Consequently,

$$\frac{3x - 1}{x^2 - 1} = \frac{2}{x - 1} + \frac{1}{x + 1}.$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} \int \frac{3x - 1}{x^2 - 1} dx &= \int \frac{2}{x - 1} dx + \int \frac{1}{x + 1} dx \\ &= 2 \ln|x - 1| + \ln|x + 1| + C. \end{aligned}$$

If there was anything difficult about this process, it was the determination of  $A$  and  $B$ . We found their values by brute force, but there is an easier way, one which we wish to be an identity (that is, true for every value of  $x$ ), substitute the convenient values  $x = 3$  and  $x = -2$ , obtaining

$$\begin{aligned} 5 &= 2A + B \\ -3 &= A - B. \end{aligned}$$

This immediately gives  $B = \frac{1}{5}$  and  $A = \frac{2}{5}$ .

You have just witnessed an odd but correct mathematical maneuver. Equation (3) turns out to be an identity (true for all  $x$  except  $-1$  and  $1$ ) and only the eventually equivalent equation (2) is true precisely at  $-2$  and  $3$ . Ask yourself why

Often, there is a resemblance between a differential equation and a solution. We will use this to obtain expressions as simple as

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{x^2 + 1}$$

could be transformed to

$$y = \tan^{-1} x + C.$$

This resembles the transformation of all values of  $x$  into  $y$ .

**Substitution Theorem**

In the case of partial fractions, makes the all easy transformation. Do you see how it is done?



this is so. Ultimately it depends on the fact that both sides of equation 2 (both linear polynomials) are identical; they have the same  $x$ -intercept and  $y$ -intercept.

**EXAMPLE 4 Distinct Linear Factors** Find  $\int \frac{5x^2 - 3}{x^2 - 1} dx$ .

**SOLUTION** Since the denominator factors as  $(x - 1)(x + 1)$ , we write

$$\frac{5x^2 - 3}{x^2 - 1} = \frac{A}{x - 1} + \frac{B}{x + 1}$$

and seek to determine  $A$ ,  $B$ , and  $C$ . Clearing the fractions gives

$$5x + 3 = A(x + 1)(x - 1) + B(x - 1)(x + 1)$$

Substitution of the values  $x = 0$ ,  $x = -1$ , and  $x = 1$  results in

$$3 = A - B$$

$$-2 = B + A$$

$$10 = C - 12$$

or  $A = 1$ ,  $B = -1$ . Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} \int \frac{5x^2 - 3}{x^2 - 1} dx &= \int \frac{1}{x - 1} dx - \int \frac{1}{x + 1} dx \\ &= \ln|x - 1| - \ln|x + 1| + C = \ln \left| \frac{x - 1}{x + 1} \right| + C \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 5 Repeated Linear Factors** Find  $\int \frac{x}{x^2 - 2x + 1} dx$ .

**SOLUTION** Now the decomposition takes the form

$$\frac{x}{x^2 - 2x + 1} = \frac{A}{x - 1} + \frac{B}{(x - 1)^2}$$

with  $A$  and  $B$  to be determined. After clearing the fractions, we get

$$x = A(x - 1) + B$$

If we now substitute the convenient value  $x = 1$  and any other value, such as  $x = 0$ , we obtain  $B = 1$  and  $A = 1$ . Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} \int \frac{x}{x^2 - 2x + 1} dx &= \int \frac{1}{x - 1} dx + \int \frac{1}{(x - 1)^2} dx \\ &= \ln|x - 1| - \frac{1}{x - 1} + C \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 6 Some Distinct, Some Repeated Linear Factors** Find

$$\int \frac{3x^2 + 1}{x^2 + 3(x - 1)^2} dx$$

**SOLUTION** We decompose the integrand in the following way:

$$\frac{3x^2 + 1}{(x + 3)(x - 1)^2} = \frac{A}{x + 3} + \frac{B}{x - 1} + \frac{C}{(x - 1)^2}$$

(Clearing the fractions changes this to

$$3x^2 = Bx + 13 = A(x - 1) + B(x + 3)(x - 1) + C(x + 3)$$

Substitution of  $x = 1$ ,  $x = -3$  and  $x = 0$  yields  $C = 7$ ,  $A = 4$ , and  $B = -1$ . Thus,

$$\begin{aligned}\int \frac{4x^2 - 8x + 13}{x^2 + 5x + 6} dx &= 4 \int \frac{dx}{x+3} - \int \frac{dx}{x+2} + 7 \int \frac{dx}{x+1} \\ &= 4 \ln|x+3| - \ln|x+2| + 7 \ln|x+1| + C.\end{aligned}$$

Be sure to note the inclusion of the two fractions  $B/(x+2)$  and  $C/(x+1)^2$  in the decomposition above. In general, if we decompose a rational function with repeated linear factors in the denominator, as we did, then for each factor  $(x-a)^k$  of the denominator, there are  $k$  terms in the partial fraction decomposition:

$$\frac{1}{ax+b} = \frac{1}{(ax+b)^2} + \frac{1}{(ax+b)^3} + \cdots + \frac{1}{(ax+b)^k}.$$

**Warning** If the denominator of a rational function has a quadratic factor that does not factor into linear factors, then we must include a term of the form  $(Ax+B)/(x^2+px+q)$  in the decomposition. If the quadratic factor cannot be factored into linear factors without introducing complex numbers,

**EXAMPLE 5 A Single Quadratic Factor** **DECOMPOSITION** Find the partial fraction decomposition of  $\frac{6x^2 - 1}{(x^2 + 1)^2}$ .

**SOLUTION** The next we can hope for is a decomposition of the form

$$\frac{6x^2 - 1}{(x^2 + 1)^2} = \frac{A}{x^2 + 1} + \frac{Bx + C}{x^2 + 1}.$$

To determine the constants  $A$ ,  $B$ , and  $C$ , we multiply both sides by  $(x^2 + 1)(x^2 + 1)$  and obtain

$$6x^2 - 1 = 1(x^2 + 1) + (Bx + C)(x^2 + 1).$$

Substitution of  $x = 0$ ,  $x = 1$ , and  $x = -1$  yields

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{6x^2 - 1}{(x^2 + 1)^2} &= \frac{A}{x^2 + 1} + \frac{Bx + C}{x^2 + 1} & \Rightarrow & \frac{6x^2 - 1}{(x^2 + 1)^2} = \frac{A + Bx + C}{x^2 + 1} \\ 6x^2 - 1 &= 1 + Bx + C & \Rightarrow & 6x^2 - 1 = Bx + C + 1 \\ 6x^2 - 1 &= Bx + (C + 1) & \Rightarrow & B = 0\end{aligned}$$

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned}\int \frac{6x^2 - 1}{(x^2 + 1)^2} dx &= \int \frac{0}{x^2 + 1} dx + \int \frac{0x + 5}{x^2 + 1} dx \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \int \frac{4 + 1}{x^2 + 1} dx = \frac{1}{2} \int \frac{4}{x^2 + 1} dx + \frac{1}{2} \int \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left( 4 \ln|x+1| + \frac{1}{x+1} + 4 \ln|x-1| + \frac{1}{x-1} \right) + C = \ln|x^2 - 1| + C.\end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 6 A Repeated Quadratic Factor** Find  $\int \frac{6x^2 - 15x + 22}{(x+3)(x^2+2)^2} dx$ .

**SOLUTION** Here the appropriate decomposition is

$$\frac{6x^2 - 15x + 22}{(x+3)(x^2+2)^2} = \frac{A}{x+3} + \frac{Bx+C}{x^2+2} + \frac{Dx+E}{x^2+2}.$$

After considerable work, we discover that  $A = 1$ ,  $B = 0$ ,  $C = 4$ ,  $D = 5$ , and  $E = 0$ . Thus,

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \int \frac{dx}{x^2 - 3x + 2} = \int \frac{dx}{(x-1)(x-2)} \\
 &= \int \frac{dx}{x-1} - \int \frac{dx}{x-2} = \ln|x-1| - \ln|x-2| + C \\
 &= \ln\left|\frac{x-1}{x-2}\right| + C
 \end{aligned}$$

**Step 3.** To decompose a rational function  $f(x) = p(x)/q(x)$  into partial fractions, proceed as follows:

**Step 3a.** If  $f(x)$  is improper, that is, if  $\deg p(x) \geq \deg q(x)$ , divide  $p(x)$  by  $q(x)$  to obtain

$$f(x) = \text{a polynomial } r(x) + \frac{N(x)}{D(x)}$$

**Step 3b.** Factor  $D(x)$  into a product of linear and irreducible quadratic factors with real coefficients. By a theorem of algebra, this is always (theoretically) possible.

**Step 3c.** For each factor of the form  $(ax + b)^m$ , expect the decomposition to have the terms

$$\frac{A_1}{(ax + b)} + \frac{A_2}{(ax + b)^2} + \cdots + \frac{A_m}{(ax + b)^m}$$

**Step 3d.** For each factor of the form  $(ax^2 + bx + c)^m$ , expect the decomposition to have the terms

$$\frac{B_1x + C_1}{ax^2 + bx + c} + \frac{B_2x + C_2}{(ax^2 + bx + c)^2} + \cdots + \frac{B_mx + C_m}{(ax^2 + bx + c)^m}$$

**Step 3e.** Set  $N(x) = D(x)$  equal to the sum of all the terms found in Steps 3b and 3d. The number of constants to be determined will equal the degree of the denominator  $D(x)$ .

**Step 3f.** Multiply both sides of the equation found in Step 3e by  $D(x)$  and solve for the unknown constants. This method is illustrated in Example 5. The coefficients of like-degree terms on the two sides must be equal.

In the preceding example, we assumed that the population will continue to grow exponentially. This assumption may be unrealistic if available resources in the system are unable to sustain the population. In such a case, more reasonable assumptions are that there is a maximum amount that the system can sustain and that the rate of growth is proportional to the product of the population size and the available room. If these assumptions lead to the differential equation

$$y' = ky(1 - y),$$

This is called the **logistic differential equation**. As we shall see below, because we have covered the method of partial fractions, we can now solve this differential equation and use the solution to predict the maximum value of  $y$ .

**EXAMPLE 5** A population grows according to the logistic differential equation  $y' = 0.002y(2000 - y)$ . The initial population size is 500. Solve this differential equation and use the solution to predict the maximum value of  $y$ .

### EXAMPLE 5 A Bound for the Answer

The initial population size is 500 and the rate of change in population size is positive. As the population grows, as it nears 2000, the rate of change gets close to zero, so as  $y \rightarrow 2000$ , we have  $y' \rightarrow 0$ . The population at time  $t = 2$  should be somewhere between 500 and 2000.

**STEP 11**  $\Delta$  We drop  $y$  on the right side and solve for the unknown function  $y$  and the constant  $A$ :

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d}{dt} &= 0.0005(2000 - y) \\ \frac{d}{dt} &= 0.0005(2000) - 0.0005y \\ \int \frac{dy}{2000 - y} &= \int -0.0005 dt\end{aligned}$$

The integrals on the left can be evaluated using the method of u-substitution. We u-sub:

$$u = 2000 - y \quad \frac{du}{dt} = -1$$

which leads to

$$1 = A(2000 - y) + B$$

Substituting  $y = 0$  and  $y = 2000$  yields

$$1 = 2000A$$

$$1 = 2000B$$

Thus,  $A = \frac{1}{2000}$  and  $B = \frac{1}{2000}$ , leading to

$$\begin{aligned}\int \left( \frac{1}{2000} - \frac{1}{2000(2000 - y)} \right) dy &= \int -0.0005 dt \\ \frac{1}{2000} \ln y - \frac{1}{2000} \ln(2000 - y) &= -0.0005t + C\end{aligned}$$

$$\ln \frac{y}{2000 - y} = -0.001t + 2000C$$

$$\frac{y}{2000 - y} = e^{-0.001t + 2000C}$$

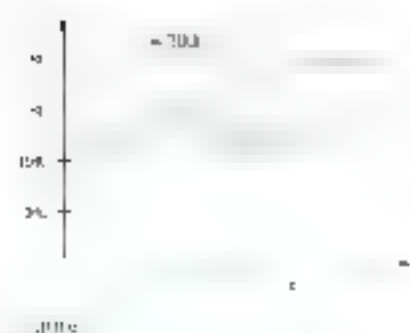
$$\frac{y}{2000 - y} = e^{-0.001t}$$

Here,  $t = 0$ . At this point we can use the initial condition  $y = 400$  to determine  $C$ :

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{400}{2000 - 400} &= e^{-0.001(0)} \\ C &= \frac{\ln(400)}{\ln(2000 - 400)}\end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{y}{2000 - y} &= e^{-0.001t} \\ y &= \frac{2000 - 2000e^{-0.001t}}{1 - e^{-0.001t}} \\ y &= \frac{2000(1 - e^{-0.001t})}{1 - e^{-0.001t}} \\ y &= \frac{400(1 - e^{-0.001t})}{1 - (2/3)e^{-0.001t}} = \frac{400(1 - e^{-0.001t})}{2/3 + e^{-0.001t}}\end{aligned}$$



The population at time  $t = 2$  is thus

$$p(2) = 100(1 - e^{-2/3}) \approx 37\%$$

A sketch of the population curve as a function of time is shown in Figure 7.5. ■

## Concepts Review

1. If the degree of the polynomial  $p(x)$  is less than the degree of  $q(x)$ , then  $f(x) = p(x)/q(x)$  is called a **proper rational function**.

2. To integrate the improper rational function  $f(x) = (x^2 + 3)/(x + 1)$ , we first rewrite it as  $P(x) +$

$Q(x)$ , where  $P(x) = 3x + 3$  and  $Q(x) =$

$1/(x + 1)$ . The function  $Q(x)$  can be decomposed into the form

## Problem Set 7.5

In Problems 1–40, use the method of partial fractions to compute the integrals.

1.  $\int \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
2.  $\int \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
3.  $\int \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
4.  $\int \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
5.  $\int \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
6.  $\int \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
7.  $\int \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
8.  $\int \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
9.  $\int \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
10.  $\int \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
11.  $\int \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
12.  $\int \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
13.  $\int \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
14.  $\int \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
15.  $\int \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
16.  $\int \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
17.  $\int \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
18.  $\int \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
19.  $\int \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
20.  $\int \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
21.  $\int \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
22.  $\int \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 + 1} dx$

23.  $\int \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
24.  $\int \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
25.  $\int \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
26.  $\int \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
27.  $\int \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
28.  $\int \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
29.  $\int \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
30.  $\int \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
31.  $\int \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
32.  $\int \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
33.  $\int \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
34.  $\int \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
35.  $\int \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
36.  $\int \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
37.  $\int \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
38.  $\int \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
39.  $\int \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 + 1} dx$
40.  $\int \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 + 1} dx$



For these integrals, for example  $\int \sqrt{1-x^2} \, dx$  and  $\int x \sinh x \, dx$ , can both be evaluated using all, or even by parts.

#### 4. Trigonometric Substitutions

If the integrand contains  $\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}$ , consider the substitution  $x = a \sin \theta$ .

If the integrand contains  $\sqrt{x^2 - a^2}$ , consider the substitution  $x = a \sec \theta$ .

If the integrand contains  $\sqrt{x^2 + a^2}$ , consider the substitution  $x = a \tan \theta$ .

5. If the integrand is a proper rational function, that is, the degree of the numerator is less than that of the denominator, then decompose the integrand using the method of partial fractions. Often, the terms of the resulting sum can be integrated one by one. If the integrand is an improper rational function, apply long division to write it as the sum of a polynomial and a proper rational function. Then apply the method of partial fractions to the proper rational function.

These suggestions, along with a good knowledge of algebra, will go a long way in evaluating antiderivatives.

**EXAMPLE 7**  $\int \sqrt{1-x^2} \, dx$  The inside back cover of the book contains a table of the more common formulas. There are, however, some subtle points to be made. For example, the *Standard Mathematical Tables and Formulas*, published by R. B. Pierce in *Handbook of Mathematical Functions*, compiled by Abramowitz and Stegun with assistance by Davis, is but the tip of the iceberg. It is an enormous table. The important thing to be pointed out is that you may often use these tables along with the method of substitution to evaluate an indefinite integral. As you work through the examples of integrals in Chapter 7, at the end of this book use a formula to check your answer, rather than a You should have it. It is tempting to think that you have it, but you do not. The next example shows how to find an antiderivative and evaluate several integrals using the method of substitution.

#### EXAMPLE 7 $\int \sqrt{a^2 - x^2} \, dx$ , $a > 0$ , through (54)

$$(54) \quad \int \sqrt{a^2 - x^2} \, dx = \frac{a^2}{2} \sqrt{a^2 - x^2} + \frac{a^2}{2} \sin^{-1} \frac{x}{a} + C$$

to evaluate the following integrals:

$$(a) \quad \int \sqrt{9 - x^2} \, dx$$

$$(b) \quad \int \sqrt{16 - 4y^2} \, dy$$

$$(c) \quad \int x \sqrt{1 - 4y^2} \, dy$$

$$(d) \quad \int e^x \sqrt{100 - e^x} \, dx$$

#### SOLUTION

For this integral we have  $a = 3$  and  $x = x$ , so

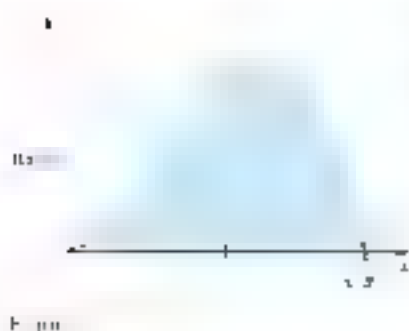
$$\int \sqrt{9 - x^2} \, dx = \frac{9}{2} \sqrt{1 - \frac{x^2}{9}} + \frac{9}{2} \sin^{-1} \frac{x}{3} + C$$

For part (b), we have to recognize that  $x = 2y$  so the appropriate substitution is  $u = 2y$  and  $du = 2 \, dy$ . Thus

$$\begin{aligned} \int \sqrt{16 - 4y^2} \, dy &= \frac{1}{2} \int \sqrt{16 - u^2} \, du \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{2y}{2} \sqrt{4^2 - (2y)^2} + \frac{4^2}{2} \sin^{-1} \frac{2y}{4} \right) + C \\ &= \frac{y}{2} \sqrt{16 - 4y^2} + 4 \sin^{-1} \frac{y}{2} + C \end{aligned}$$







**EXAMPLE 1** Find the center of mass of the homogeneous lam that is shown in Figure 1.

**SOLUTION** Using the formulas from Section 5.6, we have

$$M = 8 \int_0^{\sqrt{2}} \sin x^2 \, dx$$

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{M} \int_0^{\sqrt{2}} x \sin x^2 \, dx$$

$$\bar{y} = \frac{8}{2} \int_0^{\sqrt{2}} \sin^2 x^2 \, dx$$

Among these integrals, only the second can be evaluated using the Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus. For the first and the third, we can use numerical techniques that can be expressed in terms of elementary functions. We make the following use of a CAS as an approximation for the integrals. A CAS gives the following values for these integrals:

$$M = 8 \int_0^{\sqrt{2}} \sin x^2 \, dx \approx 8(4.73) \delta$$

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{M} \int_0^{\sqrt{2}} x \sin x^2 \, dx = \frac{1}{8} \left[ -\frac{1}{2} \cos x^2 \right]_0^{\sqrt{2}} \approx 0.1507 \delta$$

$$\bar{y} = \frac{8}{2} \int_0^{\sqrt{2}} \sin^2 x^2 \, dx \approx 0.3484 \delta$$

Notice that the CAS is unable to give an exact value for the second integral. In approximations for  $\bar{x}$  and  $\bar{y}$ , we can then use these explicit values.

$$\bar{x} = \frac{\bar{x}M}{M} = \frac{0.1507 \delta}{8(4.73) \delta} \approx 0.0157 \delta$$

$$\bar{y} = \frac{\bar{y}M}{M} = \frac{0.3484 \delta}{8(4.73) \delta} \approx 0.0092 \delta$$

There are also situations where an approximation of an integral is sufficient. For instance, the use of the Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus is not feasible because of the use of a numerical approximation. The next two examples illustrate how the same problem are in principle the same but the the functions are quite different.

**EXAMPLE 2** A tree has density equal to  $\delta(x) = 4e^{-x/4}$  kg/m<sup>3</sup>. Where should the tree be cut off so that the only part left is a quarter of the tree?

**SOLUTION** Let  $a$  denote the cut-off point. We then require

$$1 = \int_0^a \delta(x) \, dx = \int_0^a 4e^{-x/4} \, dx = 4 - 4e^{-a/4}$$

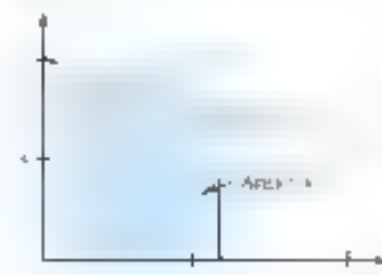
Solving for  $a$  gives

$$\begin{aligned} 4 &= 4e^{-a/4} \\ 4e^{-a/4} &= 1 \\ a &= -4 \ln \frac{1}{4} \approx 2.1507 \end{aligned}$$

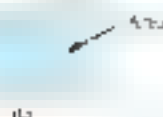
Here, we obtained the exact answer  $a = 4 \ln 4$ , which we could approximate as 2.1507 if we needed an approximation.

### An Approximate Answer

The idea is to integrate the density, so the mass can be thought of as the area under the density curve. At position  $x = 0$ , the density is 1 and it increases steadily as  $x$  increases. In order to make the area under the density curve equal to 1, we would expect to have to choose the cut-off point to be slightly larger than 1.



Using the fact that mass is area under the density curve, we see from the figure below that the centroid must be somewhere between  $x = 2$  and  $x = 4$ , giving us a starting point for approximating the answer.



**EXAMPLE 4** A rod has density equal to  $\delta(x) = \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}x^2\right)$  for  $x \geq 0$ .

Write a graph of the rod, the curve with the mass function  $\delta(x)$ , and use the Bisection Method to approximate the cut-off point accurate to two significant places.

**SOLUTION** Apart for a decision, the position of the cut will be approximately

$$\int_0^{\infty} \delta(x) dx = \int_0^{\infty} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}x^2\right) dx = 1.$$

The antiderivative of  $\exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}x^2\right)$  cannot be expressed in terms of elementary functions so we cannot use the Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus to calculate the definite integral. We are forced to approximate the integral using numerical methods. The problem is that we may have a small error when we use a numerical method to approximate a definite integral, but a big error if the approximation is in the variable. A case study and error analysis of a program for approximating definite integrals leads to the following:

$$a = 1; \quad \int_0^1 \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}x^2\right) dx \approx 1.2354 \quad a = 1 \text{ is too large}$$

$$a = 0.5; \quad \int_0^{0.5} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}x^2\right) dx \approx 0.5314 \quad a = 0.5 \text{ is too small}$$

At this point we know that the desired value of  $a$  lies between 0.5 and 1. The midpoint of  $[0.5, 1.0]$  is 0.75, so we try 0.75.

$$a = 0.75; \quad \int_0^{0.75} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}x^2\right) dx \approx 0.85615 \quad a = 0.75 \text{ is too small}$$

Continuing in this manner:

$$a = 0.875; \quad \int_0^{0.875} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}x^2\right) dx \approx 1.085 \quad a = 0.875 \text{ is too large}$$

$$a = 0.8125; \quad \int_0^{0.8125} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}x^2\right) dx \approx 0.94043 \quad a = 0.8125 \text{ is too small}$$

$$a = 0.84375; \quad \int_0^{0.84375} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}x^2\right) dx \approx 0.996 \quad a = 0.84375 \text{ is too small}$$

$$a = 0.859375; \quad \int_0^{0.859375} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}x^2\right) dx \approx 1.054 \quad a = 0.859375 \text{ is too large}$$

$$a = 0.857625; \quad \int_0^{0.857625} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}x^2\right) dx \approx 1.0715 \quad a = 0.857625 \text{ is too large}$$

$$a = 0.84765625; \quad \int_0^{0.84765625} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}x^2\right) dx \approx 0.98775 \quad a = 0.84765625 \text{ is too small}$$

At this point we have trapped  $a$  between  $0.84765625$  and  $0.857625$  so, correct to two places, the cut-off point should be  $a \approx 0.85$ . ■

**EXAMPLE 5** Use Newton's Method to approximate the solution of the equation in Example 4.

**SOLUTION** The equation to be solved can be written as

$$\int_0^x \exp\left(\frac{1}{3}t\right) dt = 0$$

If  $f$  is defined on the interval of this equation we are then asking for an approximation to the solution of  $F(x) = 0$ . Recall that Newton's Method is an iterative method defined by

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - \frac{f}{f'}(x_n)$$

In this case we can use the First Fundamental Theorem of Calculus to obtain

$$f(x) = \exp\left(\frac{1}{3}x\right)$$

We start with  $x_0 = 1$  as our initial guess (which we know is not a solution if  $x$  is ample 3 is on the high side). Then

$$x_1 = \frac{\int_0^1 \exp\left(\frac{1}{3}t\right) dt}{\exp\left(\frac{1}{3}\right) - 1} \approx 0.857197$$

$$x_2 = 0.857197 = \frac{\int_0^{0.857197} \exp\left(\frac{1}{3}t\right) dt}{\exp\left(\frac{1}{3}(0.857197)\right) - 1} \approx 0.847033$$

$$x_3 = 0.847033 = \frac{\int_0^{0.847033} \exp\left(\frac{1}{3}t\right) dt}{\exp\left(\frac{1}{3}(0.847033)\right) - 1} \approx 0.847033$$

$$x_4 = 0.847033 = \frac{\int_0^{0.847033} \exp\left(\frac{1}{3}t\right) dt}{\exp\left(\frac{1}{3}(0.847033)\right) - 1} \approx 0.847033$$

Our approximation for the cut-off point is 0.847033. Notice that Newton's Method requires less work than using more and more terms.

EXAMPLE 7.1.5 Suppose you are given a function that has continuous second data from a system of periodic orbits. The data is a sequence such as miles per second. When the data collected represents a function which must be integrated, we need to choose the best numerical integration technique. Instead, we may apply a numerical method that uses just the sample points.

EXAMPLE 7.1.6 Cars are often equipped with computers to measure instantaneous fuel consumption measured in miles per gallon. Suppose a computer is hooked up to the car so that it collects the instantaneous fuel consumption as well as the instantaneous speed. A graph showing both speed in miles per hour and fuel consumption in miles per gallon are shown in Figure 7.1.10 without a title. The top black curve shows speed and the bottom curve shows jet consumption. The fuel consumption varies quite a bit during the trip. In 4 minutes, which is going up or down hill. Part of the data are shown in the table below. How far did the car travel in this two-hour trip and how much fuel was consumed?

| min | Speed<br>(miles/hr) | Fuel consumed<br>(miles/gal) | Speed<br>Fuel Costs |
|-----|---------------------|------------------------------|---------------------|
| 0   | 46                  | 21.01                        | 1.20                |
| 5   | 47                  | 22.35                        | 1.66                |
| 10  | 46                  | 23.67                        | 1.57                |
| 15  | 46                  | 25.79                        | 1.57                |
| 20  | 47                  | 24.30                        | 1.52                |
| 25  | 48                  | 24.83                        | 1.51                |
| 30  | 47                  | 26.19                        | 1.37                |

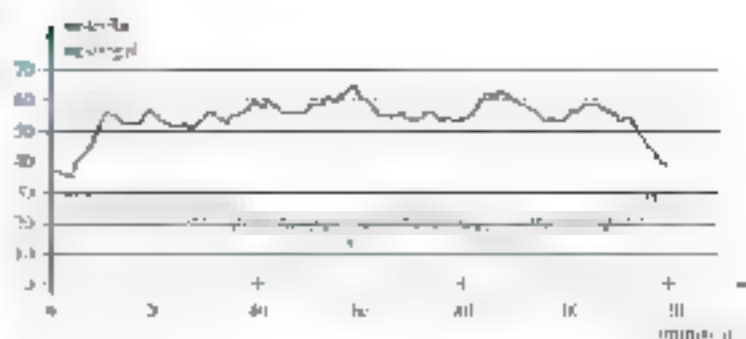


Figure 2

or

Figure 2 suggests that the average fuel consumption is about 26 miles per gallon and that the average velocity is about 46 miles per hour. After a hour (30 minutes) the car would have traveled about 1380 miles, and, at roughly 26 miles per gallon, the fuel consumed would be  $\frac{1380 \text{ miles}}{26 \text{ miles/gallon}} \approx 53$  gallons. We suspect that answer is the correct gallons.

**Work IT OUT** We will use the definite integral approach to compute the distance traveled is the definite integral of instantaneous speed, so

$$D = \int_0^{30} \frac{ds}{dt} dt \approx \sum_{i=1}^6 \frac{1}{2} (\text{min } t_i + \text{max } t_i) (\text{min } s_i + \text{max } s_i) \quad \text{By 1, which}$$

The total amount of fuel consumed is the integral  $\int_0^{30} \frac{ds}{dt} dt$  where  $\frac{ds}{dt}$  is the instantaneous rate of the distance  $s$  with respect to time  $t$ . Note that fuel consumption is given in miles per gallon, which is  $ds/dt$ . The last column in the above table is the speed  $ds/dt$  divided by  $ds/dt$ . The fuel consumed is therefore

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^{30} \frac{ds}{dt} dt &= \int_0^{30} \frac{ds}{dt} \cdot \frac{dt}{ds} ds \\ &= \frac{t - 0}{2 \cdot 120} (1.20 + 2(1.66 + 1.52 + \cdots + 1.51) + 1.37) \\ &= 5.30 \text{ gallons} \end{aligned}$$

**Caution** Many definite integrals simply cannot be evaluated using the Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, as we saw in the previous section. But the integrands often have names. Here are some of these definite integral functions along with their common names and abbreviations.

the error function  $\operatorname{erf}(x) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^x e^{-t^2} dt$

the sine integral  $\operatorname{Si}(x) = \int_0^x \frac{\sin t}{t} dt$

the Fresnel sine integral  $S(x) = \int_0^x \sin \frac{\pi}{2} t^2 dt$

the Fresnel cosine integral  $C(x) = \int_0^x \cos \frac{\pi}{2} t^2 dt$

There are numerous others; see *Handbook of Mathematical Functions* for many more. A collection of interesting information about these functions can be found in Chapter 9. We have been designed to approximate these functions. These approximations are usually accurate and efficient. In fact, it is more difficult for a computer (or anyone) to approximate the Fresnel integrals than it is to approximate the sine of  $\pi$ . So, many practical problems involving such functions, it is important to know that they exist and how to find approximations for them.

**EXAMPLE 7** Express the mass of the lamina from Example 6 in terms of the Fresnel sine integral.

**SOLUTION** The mass was found to be

$$m = 6 \int_0^{\sqrt{\pi}} \sin x \, dx$$

If we make the substitution  $x = t^2\sqrt{\pi}/2$ , then  $x^2 = t^2\pi/2$  and  $dx = \sqrt{\pi}/2 \, dt$ . The limits on the definite integral must also be transformed:

$$\begin{aligned} x &= 0 \Rightarrow t = 0 \\ x &= \sqrt{\pi} \Rightarrow t = \sqrt{2} \end{aligned}$$

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} m &= 6 \int_0^{\sqrt{\pi}} \sin\left(\frac{t^2\pi}{2}\right) \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2} \, dt \\ &= 3\sqrt{\pi} \int_0^{\sqrt{2}} \sin\left(\frac{\pi t^2}{2}\right) \, dt \\ &= 3\sqrt{\frac{\pi}{2}} S(\sqrt{2}) \approx 0.005 \, \text{g} \end{aligned}$$

## Concepts Review

1. Tables of Integrals are most helpful when used in conjunction with the technique \_\_\_\_\_.

2. Both \_\_\_\_\_ and \_\_\_\_\_ can be evaluated using Formula Number \_\_\_\_\_.

3. When using \_\_\_\_\_ to evaluate the definite integral \_\_\_\_\_, it is important to check that the \_\_\_\_\_ system is doing us all the work before we \_\_\_\_\_.

4. The sine integral evaluated at  $t = 1$  is  $S(1) =$  \_\_\_\_\_.

## Problem Set 7.6

**in Problems 1–12** Evaluate the given integral.

1.  $\int x e^{5x} \, dx$

2.  $\int \frac{4}{x^2 + 9} \, dx$

3.  $\int_1^2 \frac{dx-1}{x} \, dx$

4.  $\int \frac{x}{x^2 + 5x + 6} \, dx$

5.  $\int \sin \frac{\pi}{2} x \, dx$

6.  $\int \sin \frac{\pi}{2} x \, dx$

7.  $\int_0^1 \cos x \, dx$

8.  $\int_0^1 \cos x \, dx$

9.  $\int_0^1 \cos x \, dx$

10.  $\int_0^1 \cos x \, dx$

11.  $\int_0^1 \cos x \, dx$

12.  $\int_0^1 \cos x \, dx$

**in Problems 13–26** Use the substitution technique to evaluate the given integral. If a direct method is combined with a substitution, so describe the given integral.

13. (a)  $\int_0^1 \cos x \, dx$  (b)  $\int_0^1 \cos x \, dx$

14. (a)  $\int_0^1 \cos x \, dx$  (b)  $\int_0^1 \cos x \, dx$

15. (a)  $\int_0^1 \cos x \, dx$  (b)  $\int_0^1 \cos x \, dx$

16. (a)  $\int_0^1 \cos x \, dx$  (b)  $\int_0^1 \cos x \, dx$

17. (a)  $\int_0^1 \cos x \, dx$  (b)  $\int_0^1 \cos x \, dx$

18. (a)  $\int_0^1 \cos x \, dx$  (b)  $\int_0^1 \cos x \, dx$

19. (a)  $\int_0^1 \cos x \, dx$  (b)  $\int_0^1 \cos x \, dx$

20. (a)  $\int_0^1 \cos x \, dx$  (b)  $\int_0^1 \cos x \, dx$

21. (a)  $\int_0^1 \cos x \, dx$  (b)  $\int_0^1 \cos x \, dx$

22. (a)  $\int_0^1 \cos x \, dx$  (b)  $\int_0^1 \cos x \, dx$

23. (a)  $\int_0^1 \cos x \, dx$  (b)  $\int_0^1 \cos x \, dx$

24. (a)  $\int_0^1 \cos x \, dx$  (b)  $\int_0^1 \cos x \, dx$

25. (a)  $\int_0^1 \cos x \, dx$  (b)  $\int_0^1 \cos x \, dx$

27.  $\int \frac{\cos t \sin t}{\sqrt{2} \cos t + 1} dt$

28.  $\int_0^1 \cos \sin^{-1} x + \cos x dx$

29.  $\int \frac{\cos^2 t \sin t}{\sqrt{2} \cos t} dt$       30.  $\int \frac{1}{(9 + x^2)^{3/2}} dx$

Use a CAS to evaluate the definite integrals in Problems 31–40. If the CAS does not give an exact answer in terms of elementary functions, give a numerical approximation.

31.  $\int_0^1 \frac{e^{2x}}{\sin x} dx$       32.  $\int \operatorname{sech}^{-1} x dx$

33.  $\int_0^{\pi} \sin \cos x dx$       34.  $\int_0^{\pi} \cos^2 x dx$

35.  $\int_0^{\pi} \frac{1}{\sin x} dx$       36.  $\int \frac{1}{\cos x} dx$

37.  $\int_0^{\pi} \frac{1}{\cos x} dx$       38.  $\int_0^{\pi} \frac{1}{\sin x} dx$

39.  $\int \frac{1}{\cos x} dx$       40.  $\int \frac{1}{\sin x} dx$

In Problems 41–44, the density of  $\rho$  is given. Find  $x$  so that the mass from  $x$  to  $a$  is equal to  $\frac{1}{2}$ . Whenever possible, find an exact solution. If this is not possible, find an approximation for  $x$ . Use Examples 4 and 5.

41.  $\rho(x) = \frac{1}{x^2}$       42.  $\rho(x) = \frac{1}{x^3}$

43.  $\rho(x) = \ln x$       44.  $\rho(x) = \frac{1}{x^2}$

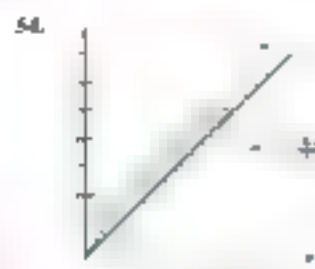
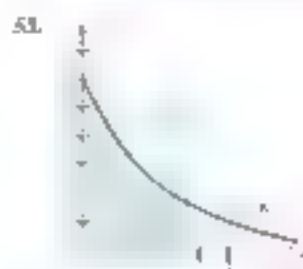
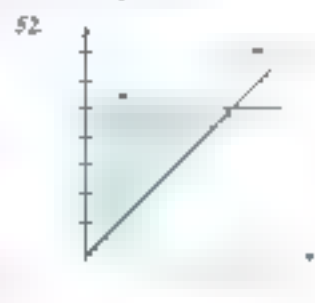
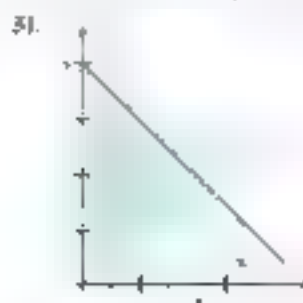
45.  $\rho(x) = 2x^{-1/2}$       46.  $\rho(x) = \ln x$

47.  $\rho(x) = \ln x$       48.  $\rho(x) = \frac{1}{x^2}$

49. Find  $a$  so that  $\int_0^a \frac{1}{x^2} dx = 1$

50. Find  $x$  so that  $\int_0^x \frac{1}{\sqrt{2x}} e^{-x^2} dx = 0.05$ . Note the symmetry.

In Problems 51–54, the graph of  $y = f(x)$  is given along with the graph of a line. Find  $c$  so that the  $x$ -coordinate of the center of mass of the shaded homogeneous lamina is equal to 2.



55. Find the following derivatives.

(a)  $\frac{d}{dx} \cos(x)$       (b)  $\frac{d}{dx} \sin x$

56. Find the derivatives of the inverse functions.

(a)  $\frac{d}{dx} \sin^{-1} x$       (b)  $\frac{d}{dx} \cos^{-1} x$

57. Over what intervals can the nonnegative side of the number line be the zero function increasing? (Increase up!)

58. Over what subintervals of  $[0, 2]$  is the Fresnel function  $S(x) = \int_0^x \sin t^2 dt$  increasing?

59. Over what subintervals of  $[0, 2]$  is the Fresnel function  $C(x) = \int_0^x \cos t^2 dt$  increasing?

60. Find the coordinates of the first inflection point of the Fresnel function  $S(x)$  that is to the right of the origin.

Answers to Concepts Review    1. substitution    2. 53  
3. apply the chain rule    4.

## 7.7 Chapter Review

### Concepts Test

Respond with true or false to each of the following statements. Be prepared to prove or give a counterexample.

- To evaluate  $\int x \sin(x^2) dx$ , make the substitution  $u = x^2$ .
- To evaluate  $\int \frac{x}{x^2 + 1} dx$ , make the substitution  $u = x^2 + 1$ .
- To evaluate  $\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx$ , make the substitution  $u = x^2 + 1$ .

4. To evaluate  $\int \frac{2x + 3}{x^2 - 3x + 5} dx$ , begin by completing the square of the denominator.

5. To evaluate  $\int \frac{3}{x^2 - 3x + 5} dx$ , begin by completing the square of  $x^2 - 3x + 5$ .

6. To evaluate  $\int \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx$ , make the substitution  $u = x^2 + 1$ .

Figure 1. The effect of the number of trials on the number of correct responses.

43. Express the partial fraction decomposition of each rational function without computing the exact coefficients. For example,

$$\frac{3x+1}{(x-1)^2} = \frac{A}{x-1} + \frac{B}{(x-1)^2}$$

(a)  $\frac{x+x^2}{(2x+1)^2}$

(b)  $\frac{7x-4}{(x^2-2)^2}$

(c)  $\frac{3x+1}{(x^2+x+10)^2}$

(d)  $\frac{x+1}{(x^2+1)^2(1-x^2)^2}$

(e)  $\frac{x^2}{(x^2+3)(x^2+2x+10)}$

(f)  $\frac{x^2+x+1}{(2x^2+x+10)^2}$

44. Find the volume of the solid generated by revolving the region under the graph of

$$y = \sqrt{1+x-x^2}$$

from  $x = -1$  to  $x = 2$  about

(a) the  $x$ -axis;

(b) the  $y$ -axis.

45. Find the length of the curve  $y = x^{3/2} + 6$  from  $x = 0$  to  $x = 4$ .

46. The region under the curve

$$y = \frac{1}{x^2 + 4x + 6}$$

from  $x = 0$  to  $x = 3$  is rotated about the  $x$ -axis. Compute the volume of the solid that is generated.

47. If the region given in Problem 46 is rotated about the  $y$ -axis, find the volume of the solid.

48. Find the volume of the solid created by revolving the region bounded by the  $x$ -axis and the curve  $y = 4x\sqrt{2-x}$  about the  $y$ -axis.

49. Find the volume when the region created by the  $x$ -axis,  $y$ -axis, the curve  $y = 2(e^x - 1)$ , and the curve  $x = \ln 3$  is revolved about the line  $x = \ln 3$ .

50. Find the area of the region bounded by the  $x$ -axis, the curve  $y = 8/(x^2\sqrt{x^2+9})$ , and the lines  $x = \sqrt{3}$  and  $x = 3\sqrt{3}$ .

51. Find the area of the region bounded by the curve  $x = 1 - y^2 - 4y$ ,  $y^2 = 4$ , and  $x = 0$ .

52. Find the volume of the solid generated by revolving the region

$$\left\{ (x, y) : 3 \leq x \leq 4, \frac{6}{x\sqrt{x+4}} \leq y \leq 4 \right\}$$

about the  $x$ -axis. Make a sketch.

53. Find the length of the segment of the curve  $y = \ln|\sin x|$  from  $x = \pi/6$  to  $x = \pi/3$ .

54. Use the table of integrals to evaluate the following integrals:

(a)  $\int \sqrt{\frac{31-4x}{x}} dx$

(b)  $\int e^x(y - e^{2x})^{3/2} dx$

55. Use the table of integrals to evaluate the following integrals:

(a)  $\int \cos x \sqrt{\sin^2 x + 4} dx$

(b)  $\int \frac{1}{1-4x} dx$

56. Evaluate the first two derivatives of the sine integral

$$\operatorname{Si}(x) = \int_0^x \frac{\sin t}{t} dt$$

57. A rod has density  $\delta(x) = \frac{1}{x^2}$ . Use Newton's method to find the value of  $x$  so that the mass of the rod from 6 to  $x$  is 0.9.



# REVIEW & PREVIEW PROBLEMS

Evaluate the limits in Problems 1–14.

1.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x^2 + 1}$

3.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 - x^2}{x}$

5.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x}$

7.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x}{x^2}$

9.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x$

11.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^2$

13.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \sin x$

2.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x^2 + 1}$

4.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 - x^2}{x^2}$

6.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x}$

8.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x}{x^2}$

10.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x$

12.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^2$

14.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \sin x$

For 15–19, let  $f(x) = x^2 \ln x$ . In Problems 15–19, do the following: (a) find  $f'(x)$  and (b) find  $f''(x)$ .

15.  $f'(x) = x \ln x$

16.  $f'(x) = x^2 \ln x$

17.  $f'(x) = x^2 \ln x$

18.  $f'(x) = x^2 \ln x$

19. Plot  $f(x)$  for  $x = 0.1, 0.2, \dots, 1.0$  over some domain that allows you to make a conjecture about  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^2 \ln x$ .

20. Express  $f(x)$  with  $e^x$  if possible and make a conjecture about  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^2 \ln x$ .

21. Verify the integrals in Problems 21–28 for the indicated values of  $a$ .

21.  $\int_a^b (x - \ln x) dx = \frac{1}{2}(b^2 - a^2)$

22.  $\int_a^b (x^2 - \ln x) dx = \frac{1}{3}(b^3 - a^3)$

23.  $\int_a^b \frac{1}{x^2} dx = -\frac{1}{b} + \frac{1}{a}$

24.  $\int_a^b \frac{1}{x^3} dx = -\frac{1}{2b^2} + \frac{1}{2a^2}$

25.  $\int_a^b \frac{1}{x^4} dx = -\frac{1}{3b^3} + \frac{1}{3a^3}$

26.  $\int_a^b \frac{1}{x^5} dx = -\frac{1}{4b^4} + \frac{1}{4a^4}$

27.  $\int_a^b \frac{1}{x^6} dx = -\frac{1}{5b^5} + \frac{1}{5a^5}$

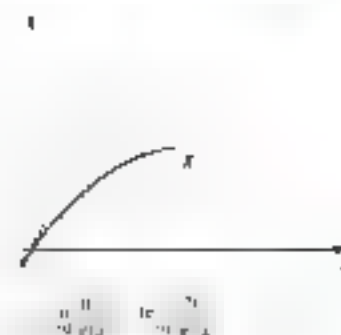
28.  $\int_a^b \frac{1}{x^7} dx = -\frac{1}{6b^6} + \frac{1}{6a^6}$

Indeterminate Forms  
and Improper Integrals

- 8.1 Indeterminate Forms of Type 0/0
- 8.2 Other Indeterminate Forms
- 8.3 Improper Integrals: Infinite Limits of Integration
- 8.4 Improper Integrals: Infinite Integrands

Geometric Interpretation  
of L'Hôpital's Rule

Suppose the limit given below. The straight line is L'Hôpital's Rule, which is quite reasonable. See Problem 36–42.



## 8.1

## Indeterminate Forms of Type 0/0

Here are three familiar limit problems:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^x - 1}{x} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 - \cos x}{x^2}$$

The first was treated at length in Section 3.1 and the second and third are exercises. The first two limits have a common cause: when the usual limit laws are used, in each case both numerator and denominator have an indeterminate form. An attempt to apply part (a) of the Main Limit Theorem (Theorem 2.2A), which says that the limit of a quotient is the quotient of the limits, leads to the problem of finding  $0/0$ . In fact, the second one does not apply since it requires that the limit of the denominator be different from 0. We are not saying that these limits do not exist, only that the Main Limit Theorem will not determine them.

You can check that an otherwise perfectly legitimate and direct application of the same Main Limit Theorem (Theorem 1.14) to the second limit by simplifying the fraction before factoring yields

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 - \cos x}{x^2} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{(1 - \cos x)(1 + \cos x)}{x^2(1 + \cos x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 - \cos^2 x}{x^2(1 + \cos x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin^2 x}{x^2(1 + \cos x)}$$

Would it not be nice to have a standard procedure for handling all problems for which the limits of the numerator and denominator are both 0? There is one such procedure. However, this one is a little complicated, but works for a broad range of such problems.

As a historical note, the first textbook containing the name of L'Hôpital in its title, the first textbook on differential calculus, it included the following rule, which he had learned from his teacher Johann Bernoulli:

**Theorem 1** L'Hôpital's Rule for forms of type 0/0

Suppose that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = 0$ ,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = 0$ ,  $f'(x)$  and  $g'(x)$  exist near  $a$ , and  $g'(x) \neq 0$ . If the limit of  $f'(x)/g'(x)$  exists or infinite sense, i.e., if this limit is a finite number  $L$ , or  $+\infty$  or  $-\infty$ , then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$$

Before attempting to prove it, let us state the basic idea. Note that L'Hôpital's Rule allows us to replace one limit by another, which may be simpler, and a particular may not have the 0/0 form.

**EXAMPLE 1** Use L'Hôpital's Rule to show that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 - \cos x}{x^2} = \frac{1}{2}$$

**SOLUTION** We worked pretty hard to demonstrate these two facts in Section 7.4. After noting that trying to evaluate both terms by substituting  $x = 0$  gives us the form  $0/0$ , we can now establish the desired results in two lines (but see Problem 25). By l'Hôpital's Rule

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{D \sin x}{D x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos x}{1} \\ \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 - \cos x}{x} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{D(1 - \cos x)}{D x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{1} = 0.\end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 5** Find  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^3 - 9}{x^2 - 4}$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x^2 + 4}$ .

**SOLUTION** Both limits have the  $0/0$  form so we try l'Hôpital's Rule:

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^3 - 9}{x^2 - 4} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{3x^2}{2x} = \frac{0}{0} \\ \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^3 - 9}{x^2 - 4} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{3x^2 + 3}{2x + 2} = \frac{3}{2}.\end{aligned}$$

The first of these limits was handled by the first step in this section by factoring and simplifying. Of course, we get the same answer that way.

**EXAMPLE 6** Find  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{2x^2 + 1}{x^2 + 4}$ .

**SOLUTION** Both numerator and denominator have limit 0. Hence

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{2x^2 + 1}{x^2 + 4} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{2 \cdot 2x}{2(2 + x)} = \frac{2}{2} = 1.$$

So the limit is 1. Of course,  $x = 0$  also has the incorrect value  $1/4$ . Often we may apply l'Hôpital's Rule again, as we now show, for each position of the  $0/0$  type. A Rule is flagged with the symbol  $\textcircled{L}$ .

**EXAMPLE 7** Find  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x^3}$ .

**SOLUTION** By l'Hôpital's Rule applied three times in succession

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x^3} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos x}{3x^2} \\ &\stackrel{\textcircled{L}}{=} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{-\sin x}{6x} \\ &\stackrel{\textcircled{L}}{=} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{-\cos x}{6} = -\frac{1}{6}.\end{aligned}$$

Just because we have an elegant rule does not mean that we should use it indiscriminately. In particular, we must always make sure that, before we must make sure that the limit has an indeterminate form  $0/0$ . Otherwise we will be led into all kinds of errors, as we now illustrate.

$$\text{EXAMPLE 5} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 - \cos x}{x^2 + 3x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{2x + 3} = \frac{1}{3}$$

**SOLUTION** We might be tempted to write

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 - \cos x}{x^2 + 3x} \stackrel{?}{=} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{2x + 3} \stackrel{?}{=} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos x}{2} = \frac{1}{2} \quad \text{WRONG}$$

The first application of L'Hôpital's Rule was correct—the second was not, since at that stage the limit did not have the  $\frac{0}{0}$  form. Here is what we should have done:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 - \cos x}{x^2 + 3x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{2x + 3} \quad \text{Right}$$

We stop differentiating as soon as either the numerator or denominator stops evaluating to 0.

Even if the conditions of L'Hôpital's Rule hold, an application of L'Hôpital's Rule may not help us, witness the following example.

$$\text{EXAMPLE 6} \quad \text{Find } \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x}{x}$$

**SOLUTION** Since the numerator and denominator both tend to infinity with  $x$ , the expression is of the form  $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$ —thus the conditions of Theorem 3.6. We may apply L'Hôpital's Rule indefinitely:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x}{x} \stackrel{?}{=} \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x'}{x'} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x''}{x''} = \dots$$

Clearly we are only complicating the problem. A better approach is to look at the graph of  $y = x/x$ .

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x}{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} 1$$

Worse than this was the limit is not of the form  $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$  or  $\frac{0}{0}$  or  $\frac{\infty}{0}$  or  $\frac{0}{\infty}$  or  $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$  or  $\frac{0}{0}$ . The graph is a horizontal line  $y = 1$ , showing that  $x/x$  approaches 1 as  $x$  goes to infinity. A good rule of thumb is that if you get a result like this, you are not in the situation of Theorem 3.6.

**EXAMPLE 7**  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^x - 1}{x} = 1$  The proof of L'Hôpital's Rule depends on an extension of the Mean Value Theorem for Derivatives due to Augustin Louis Cauchy (1799–1857).

### THEOREM 3.6A Cauchy's Mean Value Theorem

Let the functions  $f$  and  $g$  be differentiable on  $[a, b]$  and continuous on  $[a, b]$ . If  $g'(x) \neq 0$  for all  $x$  in  $(a, b)$ , then there exists a number  $c$  in  $(a, b)$  such that

$$\frac{f(b) - f(a)}{g(b) - g(a)} = f'(c)$$

Note that this theorem reduces to the usual Mean Value Theorem for Derivatives (Theorem 3.6A) when  $g(x) = x$ .



**Proof** It is tempting to apply the ordinary Mean Value Theorem to both numerator and denominator of the left side of the conclusion. If we do this, we obtain

$$(1) \quad \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{g(b) - g(a)} = \frac{f'(c_1)(b - a)}{g'(c_2)(b - a)}$$

and

$$(2) \quad \frac{g(b) - g(a)}{g(b) - g(a)} = \frac{g'(c_3)(b - a)}{g'(c_2)(b - a)}$$

for appropriate choices of  $c_1$  and  $c_2 = c_3 = c$  (by  $c = a$  or  $c = b$ ), and we can divide the first equality by the second and be done, but there is no reason to hope for such a coincidence. However, this receipt is not a complete failure, since it yields the valuable information that  $g'(b) - g'(a) \neq 0$ , a fact we will need later (that follows from the hypothesis that  $g'(x) \neq 0$  for all  $x$  in  $(a, b)$ ).

Recall that the proof of the Mean Value Theorem for Derivatives (Theorem 5.4A) relies on the introduction of an auxiliary function  $\phi(x)$ . In carrying out the proof, we are led to the following choice for  $\phi(x)$ . Let

$$\phi(x) = f(x) - f(a) - \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{g(b) - g(a)}(g(x) - g(a)).$$

No division by zero is involved since we earlier established that  $g(b) - g(a) \neq 0$ . Note further that  $\phi(a) = 0 = \phi(b)$ . Now  $\phi$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and differentiable on  $(a, b)$ , this follows from the continuity and differentiability of  $f$  and  $g$ . By the Mean Value Theorem for Derivatives, there is a number  $c$  in  $(a, b)$  such that

$$\phi'(c) = \frac{\phi(b) - \phi(a)}{b - a} = \frac{0 - 0}{b - a} = 0.$$

But

$$\phi'(x) = f'(x) - \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{g(b) - g(a)}g'(x) = 0$$

so

$$\frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)} = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{g(b) - g(a)}$$

which is what we wished to prove. ■

### Proof of L'Hôpital's Rule

**Proof** Return to the statement  $A$  which assumes  $x \rightarrow \infty$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = 0$ . We will prove only the case where  $L$  is finite and the limit is the unbounded interval  $(a, \infty)$ .

The hypotheses for Theorem A imply that  $f$  and  $g$  are explicitly  $b$ -bounded on the interval  $(a, \infty)$  if and only if  $a < b < \infty$ . This implies that both  $f$  and  $g$  are bounded on any compact interval  $[a, b]$  and that  $g'(x) \neq 0$  here. Also, we do not even know that  $f$  and  $g$  are defined, but we do know that  $f$  and  $g$  are  $b$ -bounded on  $(a, \infty)$ .

Thus we may define or redefine, if necessary, both  $f$  and  $g$  to be zero (here, by making both  $f$  and  $g$  right-continuous at  $a$ ). As a consequence, we can satisfy the hypotheses of Cauchy's Mean Value Theorem on any closed subinterval  $[a, b]$  is a number  $c$  in  $(a, b)$  such that

$$\frac{f(b) - f(a)}{g(b) - g(a)} = \frac{f'(c)}{g'(c)}$$

or, since  $f(a) = 0 = g(a)$ ,

$$\frac{f(b)}{g(b)} = \frac{f'(c)}{g'(c)}$$

When we let  $b \rightarrow a^+$  thereby forcing  $c \rightarrow a^-$  we obtain

$$\lim_{b \rightarrow a^+} \frac{f(b)}{g(b)} = \lim_{c \rightarrow a^-} \frac{f'(c)}{g'(c)}$$

which is equivalent to what we wanted to prove.

A very actual proof works for the case if it shows *not* that this for *two* cases holds. The proofs for limits at infinity and infinite limits are harder and we omit them. ■

## Concepts Review

1. L'Hôpital's Rule is useful in finding  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$  where both  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)$  are  $0$ .
2. L'Hôpital's Rule says that when  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{0}{0}$  or  $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$ ,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$  provided  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$  exists.
3. L'Hôpital's Rule says that when  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{0}{0}$  or  $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$ ,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$  provided  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$  exists.
4. The  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$  is  $0$  if  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = 0$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) \neq 0$ .

## Problem Set 8.1

In Problems 1–24, find the indicated limit. Make sure that you use the rule given in the box before you apply L'Hôpital's Rule.

1.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

2.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + x}{x^2 - x}$

3.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

4.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + x}{x^2 - x}$

5.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

6.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + x}{x^2 - x}$

7.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

8.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + x}{x^2 - x}$

9.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

10.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + x}{x^2 - x}$

11.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

12.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + x}{x^2 - x}$

13.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

14.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + x}{x^2 - x}$

15.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

16.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + x}{x^2 - x}$

17.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

18.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + x}{x^2 - x}$

19.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

20.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + x}{x^2 - x}$

21.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

22.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + x}{x^2 - x}$

23.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

24.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + x}{x^2 - x}$

25.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

26.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + x}{x^2 - x}$

27.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$

28.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + x}{x^2 - x}$

29. In Section 8.1, we worked very hard to prove the  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{0}{0}$  L'Hôpital's Rule allows us to show this in one line. However, even if we had L'Hôpital's Rule say as the end of Section 8.1, it would not have helped us. Explain why. (We really did need the  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{0}{0}$  (the way we did in Section 8.1).

30. Find  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 1}$ .

Hint: Begin by deciding why L'Hôpital's Rule is not applicable. Then find the limit by other means.

31. For Figure 2, compute the following limits.

- (a)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \text{area of triangle } ABC$
- (b)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\text{area of curved region } ABC}{\text{area of curved region } BDC}$



28. In Figure 3,  $CE = DE = DF = r$ . Find each limit.

(a)  $\lim_{r \rightarrow 0} \frac{CE}{DE}$

(b)  $\lim_{r \rightarrow 0} \frac{DF}{DE}$

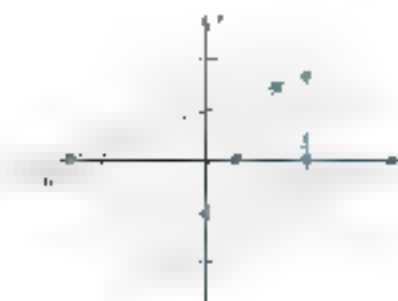


FIGURE 3

29. Let

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 & \text{if } x \neq 0 \\ c & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases}$$

What value of  $c$  makes  $f(x)$  continuous at  $x = 0$ ?

30. Let

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \ln x & \text{if } x > 0 \\ c & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases}$$

What value of  $c$  makes  $f(x)$  continuous at  $x = 0$ ?

31. Using the concepts of Section 4.4, you can show that the function  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$  is not continuous at  $x = 0$ . Figure 4 shows the graph of  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$  for  $x > 0$ . The function is not continuous at  $x = 0$  because the limit  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} f(x)$  does not exist.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{1}{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + b^2}} = \frac{1}{b}$$

What should  $b$  approach as  $x \rightarrow 0$ ? Use l'Hôpital's Rule to show this. (See Exercise 32.)

32. Determine constants  $b$  and  $c$  such that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{bx^2 + cx + 1}{x^2 + 1} = 1$$

33. l'Hôpital's Rule in its 1696 form said this: If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = 0$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = 0$ , then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$  provided that  $f'(x)$  and  $g'(x)$  both exist and  $g'(x) \neq 0$ . Prove this result without recourse to Cauchy's Mean Value Theorem.

34. Let  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$ . Show that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = \infty$ .

35.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x} = \infty$

36.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x} = \infty$

37.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x} = \infty$

38. For Problems 38–41, plot the functions  $f(x)$  and the function  $g(x)$  on the same graph window for each of these limits:  $x \rightarrow 0$ ,  $x \rightarrow 1$ ,  $x \rightarrow 2$ , and  $x \rightarrow 3$ . From the plot, estimate the values of  $f(x)$  and  $g(x)$  and use these to approximate the given limit.

39.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x} = \infty$

40.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x} = \infty$

41.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x} = \infty$

42.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x} = \infty$

43. Use the  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x} = \infty$  linear approximation to the function (Section 2.9) to explain the geometric interpretation of l'Hôpital's Rule in the marginal box next to Theorem 8.1.

**Answers to Concepts Review:** 1.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)$  2.  $f'(x) \neq g'(x)$  3.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = 0$  4. Cauchy's Mean Value

## 8.2 Other Indeterminate Forms

In the relation  $\frac{0}{0}$  Example 6 of the previous section we faced the following limit problem:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x}{x}$$

This is typical of a class of problems of the form  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$  where both numerator and denominator are growing infinitely large. We call it an indeterminate form of type  $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$ . It turns out that l'Hôpital's Rule also applies in this situation.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$$

A rigorous proof is quite difficult, but there is an intuitive way of seeing that the result has to be true. Imagine that  $f$  and  $g$  represent the positions of two cars on the road at time  $t$ . Then two cars can go on an infinitely long road in endless journeys with respective velocities  $f'(t)$  and  $g'(t)$ . Now, if

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} f(t) = \infty$$



Figure 1

then ultimately the  $f$ -car travels about  $L$  times as fast as the  $g$ -car. It is therefore reasonable to say that in the long run  $f$  will overtake  $g$   $L$  times as fast by which

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(t)}{g(t)} = L.$$

We do not call this a proof, but it does lend plausibility to a result that we now state formally.

**Theorem A** 1. **Hôpital's Rule for Forms of Type  $\infty/\infty$**

Suppose that  $\{f(t)\}_{t \geq 1}$  and  $\{g(t)\}_{t \geq 1}$  are functions defined on  $[1, \infty)$  which exist in either the finite or infinite sense, then

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(t)}{g(t)} = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f'(t)}{g'(t)}.$$

Here  $g'(t) \neq 0$  and for any of the symbols  $a, b, c, d, \infty, \infty, \infty$ .

**SOLUTION**  $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(t)}{g(t)} = \infty/\infty$ . We use Theorem A to finish Example 6 of the previous section.

**EXAMPLE 1** Find  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x}{e^x}$ .

**SOLUTION** Both  $x$  and  $e^x$  tend to  $\infty$  as  $x \rightarrow \infty$ , hence, by Hôpital's Rule,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x}{e^x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(x)'}{(e^x)'} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{e^x} = 0.$$

Here is a general result of the same type.

**EXAMPLE 2** Show that, if  $a$  is any positive real number,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^a}{e^x} = 0$ .

**SOLUTION** Suppose as a special case that  $a = 4/5$ . Then, if we apply Hôpital's Rule, we get

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^{4/5}}{e^x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(4/5)x^{-1/5}}{e^x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(4/5)(-1/5)x^{-6/5}}{e^x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(4/5)(-6/5)x^{-11/5}}{e^x}.$$

A similar argument works for any  $a > 0$ . Let  $m$  denote the greatest integer less than  $a$ . Then  $m + 1$  applications of Hôpital's Rule give

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^a}{e^x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{ax^{a-1}}{e^x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a(a-1)x^{a-2}}{e^x} = \cdots = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a(a-1)(a-2)\cdots(a-m)}{e^x} = 0.$$

**EXAMPLE 3** Show that, if  $a$  is any positive real number,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^a}{e^x} = 0$ .



an analogous algorithm also pays careful attention to the amount of time needed to perform a task. For example, it is not a good idea using the "bubble sort" algorithm if it takes 100 minutes to do it whereas the "quick sort" algorithm takes the same task in time proportional to  $n \log n$ , a major improvement. Here is a short illustrating how some previous algorithms grow at increased rates, (1 to 14) is 100:

↑

Examples 2 and 3 say something that is worth considering for sufficient width is a good rather than a bad thing than all common priors of a sufficient length are more likely than any common prior is. For example, when a sufficient sample grows faster than a common prior grows more slowly than  $n$ . The plots in the margin and figure 2 offer additional illustration.

**SOLUTION** As  $x \rightarrow 0$ ,  $\ln x \rightarrow -\infty$ , and  $\cot x \rightarrow \infty$ , so l'Hôpital's Rule applies.

The example illustrates the point made by earlier authors: simply applying OPL is not the right way to do it. It is necessary to make changes to the way the model is used, so that the modeler will be able to use it.

Plus

**The Indeterminate Form  $0 \cdot \infty$  and  $\infty \cdot 0$**  Suppose that  $A(x) \rightarrow 0$ , but  $B(x) \rightarrow \infty$ . What's going on? Suppose for the moment that  $A(x)$  was a multiplying force, and a "weak" multiplying force would be a sign of a positive direction. What if we were to have a "very weak" multiplying force, or a "very strong" multiplying force? At a low rate we would have a "very weak" multiplying force. As the Rate we begin to decide by, and after we have an answer, he for it, then  $A(x) \rightarrow 0$  and  $B(x) \rightarrow \infty$ .

**SOLUTION:** Since  $f$  is strictly concave, we have  $f'(x) > 0$  for all  $x$  in the interval  $(0, 1)$ . We also know that  $f'(0) = 0$  and  $f'(1) = 0$ . Thus,



$$x = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (1 + \cos x + 5 \cos x) =$$

**EXAMPLE 6** Find  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{x}{x^2 + 1} \right)^{1/\ln x}$ .

**SOLUTION** The first term is going to infinity with an unbounded exponent. We say that the limit is an  $\infty \cdot \infty$  indeterminate form. If L'Hôpital's Rule will determine the result, but only after we rewrite the problem in a form for which the rule applies. In this case, the two fractions must be combined, a procedure that changes the problem to a  $0/0$  form. Two applications of L'Hôpital's Rule yield

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{x}{x^2 + 1} \right)^{1/\ln x} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x \ln \left( \frac{x}{x^2 + 1} \right)}{x^2 + 1 - 0} \quad \text{①} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x \ln x - x \ln(x^2 + 1)}{x^2 + 1} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x + \ln x - 2x}{2x + 1} \quad \text{②} \end{aligned}$$

**The Indeterminate Forms  $0^0$ ,  $\infty^0$ ,  $1^\infty$**  We turn now to three indeterminate forms of exponential type. Here the trick is to reduce the power of given expression by taking a logarithm. This usually yields a  $0/0$  form, which we can apply L'Hôpital's Rule to.

**EXAMPLE 7** Find  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} (x + 1)^{1/x}$ .

**SOLUTION** This takes the indeterminate form  $1^\infty$ . Let  $y = (x + 1)^{1/x}$  so

$$\ln y = \ln(x + 1) \ln(x + 1)^{1/x} = \frac{\ln(x + 1)}{x}.$$

Using L'Hôpital's Rule for  $0/0$  forms, we obtain

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \ln y = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\ln(x + 1)}{x} \stackrel{\text{①}}{=} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\frac{1}{x+1}}{1} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{1}{x+1} = 1.$$

Now  $y = e^{\ln y}$  and since the exponential function  $f(y) = e^y$  is continuous,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} y = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} e^{\ln y} = e^{\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \ln y} = e^1 = e.$$

**EXAMPLE 8** Find  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} (\tan x)^{\sec x}$ .

**SOLUTION** This has the indeterminate form  $\infty^0$ . Let  $y = (\tan x)^{\sec x}$ , so

$$\ln y = \sec x \ln \tan x = \frac{\ln \tan x}{\cos x}.$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \ln y &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln \tan x}{\cos x} \stackrel{\text{①}}{=} \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{1}{\tan x}}{-\sin x} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{-\sec x}{-\sin x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\cos x}{\sin^2 x} = 0. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} y = e^0 = 1$$

**FIGURE 8.1** We have classified certain limit problems as indeterminate forms using the seven symbols: if  $0 < x < \infty$ ,  $0 < x < \infty$ ,  $x > 0$ ,  $x > 0$ ,  $x > 0$ , and  $x > 0$ . Each involves a competition of opposing forces which means that the result is not obvious. However, with the help of L'Hôpital's Rule, which applies directly only to the  $\frac{0}{0}$  form or  $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$  forms, we can usually determine the limit.

There are many other possibilities symbolized by  $\frac{0}{0}$  (example  $0 < x < \infty$ ,  $x > 0$ ,  $x > 0$ ,  $x > 0$ ,  $x > 0$ ,  $x > 0$ ) and  $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$ . Why don't we call these indeterminate forms? Because in each of these cases the forces work together, and the impact is 0.

### EXAMPLE 9 Find $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} (\ln x)^{\cos x}$ .

**SOLUTION** We might call this a  $\frac{0}{0}$  form, but it is not indeterminate. Since  $\ln x$  is approaching  $\infty$  and  $\cos x$  is the exponent, it is more correctly an  $\infty^0$  number, which serves only to make it approach zero faster. Thus,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} (\ln x)^{\cos x} = 0$$

## Concepts Review

1. If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = 0$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = \infty$ , then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)g(x)$  is an indeterminate form. To apply L'Hôpital's Rule, we may rewrite this limit as  $\frac{\quad}{\quad}$ .

2. If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = 0$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = 0$ , then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)g(x)$  is an indeterminate form. To apply L'Hôpital's Rule, we may rewrite this limit as  $\frac{\quad}{\quad}$ .

3. If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \infty$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = \infty$ , then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)g(x)$  is an indeterminate form. To apply L'Hôpital's Rule, we may rewrite this limit as  $\frac{\quad}{\quad}$ .

## Problem Set 8.2

Find each limit, or describe the behavior of the function near the point of interest. Express  $\infty$  as  $\infty$ .

1.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^{1000}}{x^{1001}}$

2.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{(\ln x)^2}{x^2}$

3.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x}{x^{1001}}$

4.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{(\ln x)^2}$

5.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x \sin x + 5}{x^2}$

6.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln x + 5}{\ln x + 1}$

7.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(\ln x)^{1000}}{\ln x}$

8.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1/2} \frac{\ln x}{\ln x - 1}$

9.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^2}{x^2 + 1}$

10.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^2 \cos x}{x^2}$

11.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x \ln x^{1000}$

12.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^2 \cos^2 x$

13.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \cos^2 x - \sin^2 x$

14.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (\ln x - \sin x)$

15.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (x^2)^2$

16.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (\cos x)^{1000}$

17.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (x \cos x)^{1000}$

18.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \left( \cos^2 x - \frac{1}{x^2} \right)$

19.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x$

20.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \cos^2 x$

21.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \sin x^{1000}$

22.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^2$

23.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x$

25.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (\tan x)^{1000}$

27.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (\sin x)^2$

29.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x \cos x$

31.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2}{x^2 + 1}$

33.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (\cos x)^{1000}$

35.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} e^{\cos x}$

36.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (\ln x + 1) - \ln(x + 1)$

37.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x}{\ln x}$

39.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x}{\ln x}$

41.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x}{\ln x}$

43.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x}{\ln x}$

45.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x}{\ln x}$

47.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x}{\ln x}$

49.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x}{\ln x}$

24.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x \cos x$

26.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^2 \cos x$

28.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (\cos x - \sin x)^{1000}$

30.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x$

32.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x} \ln x$

34.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^{1000} \ln x$

36.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} e^{\cos x}$

38.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (\ln x + 1) - \ln(x + 1)$

40.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x}{\ln x}$

42.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x}{\ln x}$

44.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x}{\ln x}$

46.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x}{\ln x}$

48.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x}{\ln x}$

50.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x}{\ln x}$

41. Find each limit using L'Hôpital's Rule. Assume  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = M$ .

(a)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$

(b)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$

42. Find each limit.

(a)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^3$

(b)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (x^2)$

(c)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^{1/2}$

(d)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} ((x^2)^{1/2})$

(e)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^{1/3}$

43. Graph  $y = x^{1/2}$  for  $x \geq 0$ . Show what happens for very small  $x$  and very large  $x$ . Indicate the maximum value.

44. Find each limit.

(a)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (x^2 + 2x - 1)$

(b)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (x^2 + 2x - 1)$

(c)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (x^2 + 2x - 1)$

(d)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (x^2 + 2x - 1)$

45. Let  $k \geq 0$ . Find

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^k}{x^k + 1}$$

*Hint:* Through this has the  $\infty/\infty$  form, l'Hopital's Rule is not helpful. Think of it geometrically.46. Let  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  be positive constants with  $\sum_{i=1}^n x_i = 1$  andlet  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n$  be positive numbers. Take natural logarithms and then use l'Hopital's Rule to show that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^{a_1} + x^{a_2} + \dots + x^{a_n}}{x^{a_1} + x^{a_2} + \dots + x^{a_n}} = 1$$

Here  $\prod$  means product that is,  $\prod_{i=1}^n a_i$  means  $a_1 a_2 \dots a_n$ . In particular if  $a, b, x$  and  $y$  are positive and  $a + b = 1$ , then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^a + x^b}{x^a + x^b} = 1$$

47. Verify the last statement in Problem 46 by considering each of the following.

(a)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^2 + 1} = 1$

(c)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^2 + 2x + 1}{x^2 + 2x + 1} = 1$

48. Consider  $f(x) = x^{1/2}$ .(a) Graph  $f(x)$  for  $x = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5$  and plot it in the same graph window.(b) For  $x > 0$ , find  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x)$ .

(c)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(x)}{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^{1/2}}{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x^{-1/2} = 0$

(d) Find  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^x f(x) dx$ . Then justify your answer rigorously.49. Find the absolute maximum and minimum points (if they exist) for  $f(x) = (x^{1/2} + x^2 + 2)^{1/2}$  on  $[0, \infty)$ .Answers to odd-numbered problems: 1.  $f'(x) = x^{-1/2}$ 2.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x)/f'(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^{1/2} + x^2 + 2}{1/2x^{1/2}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} 2x^{1/2} + 2x^{3/2} + 4x^{1/2} = \infty$ 3.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(x)}{f'(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^{1/2}}{1/2x^{1/2}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} 2x = \infty$ 

## 8.3 Improper Integrals: Infinite Limits of Integration

In the definition of  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$  we assumed that  $a$  and  $b$  were finite.However, in many applications in physics, chemistry, and engineering we wish to allow  $a$  or  $b$  (or both) to be  $\infty$  or  $-\infty$ . We must therefore find a way to give meaning to symbols like

$$\int_a^\infty \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx, \quad \int_{-\infty}^0 e^{-x} dx, \quad \int_0^\infty x e^{-x} dx$$

These integrals are called **improper integrals with infinite limits**.Consider the function  $f(x) = e^{-x}$ . It takes perfectly good sense to ask for  $\int_a^b e^{-x} dx$  or  $\int_{-\infty}^b e^{-x} dx$  or  $\int_a^\infty e^{-x} dx$  where  $a$  is any positive number. As the table on the next page indicates, as we increase the upper limit in the definite integral, the value of the integral approaches the value of the improper integral. We can give meaning to  $\int_a^\infty e^{-x} dx$  by beginning by integrating from  $a$  to an arbitrary upper limit, say  $b$ , which using integration by parts gives

$$\int_a^b e^{-x} dx = [-e^{-x}]_a^b = \int_a^\infty e^{-x} dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} [-e^{-x}]_a^b = e^{-a}$$

Now imagine that the value of  $b$  marches off to infinity. See the accompanying table. As the above calculation shows, as  $b \rightarrow \infty$ , the value of the definite integral converges to  $e^{-a}$ . Thus it seems natural to define

$$\int_a^\infty e^{-x} dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b e^{-x} dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} [-e^{-x}]_a^b = e^{-a}$$

| Integral                      | Picture | Exact Value            | Numerical Approximation |
|-------------------------------|---------|------------------------|-------------------------|
| $\int_0^1 x e^{-x} dx$        |         | $1 - e^{-1} = 1e^{-1}$ | 0.7541                  |
| $\int_0^2 x e^{-x} dx$        |         | $1 - e^{-2} = 2e^{-2}$ | 0.5940                  |
| $\int_0^3 x e^{-x} dx$        |         | $1 - e^{-3} = 3e^{-3}$ | 0.8049                  |
| $\int_0^b x e^{-x} dx$        |         | $1 - e^{-b} = be^{-b}$ |                         |
| $\int_0^{\infty} x e^{-x} dx$ |         | lim                    | $\frac{1}{2}$           |

Here is the general definition.

#### Definition

$$\int_a^{\infty} f(x) dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^b f(x) dx = \lim_{a \rightarrow -\infty} \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

If the limit on the right side and limit (side) values exist, then we say that the improper integral (improper integrals) **converge** and have these values. Otherwise, the integrals are said to **diverge**.

**EXAMPLE 1** Find, if possible,  $\int_0^{\infty} x e^{-x} dx$ .

**SOLUTION**

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^{\infty} x e^{-x} dx &= \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^b x e^{-x} dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \left[ -x e^{-x} - \int -e^{-x} dx \right]_0^b \\ &= \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \left[ -x e^{-x} - e^{-x} \right]_0^b \end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$\int_0^{\infty} x e^{-x} dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \left[ -x e^{-x} - e^{-x} \right]_0^b = \frac{1}{2}$$

We say the integral converges and has value  $\frac{1}{2}$ . ■

**EXAMPLE 1** Find, if possible,  $\int_0^{\infty} \sin x \, dx$ .

**SOLUTION**

$$\int_0^{\infty} \sin x \, dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^b \sin x \, dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} [-\cos x]_0^b \\ = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} (-\cos b + \cos 0)$$

The limit does not exist; we conclude that the given integral diverges. Think about the geometric meaning of  $\int_0^b \sin x \, dx$  to support this result.

**EXAMPLE 2** According to Newton's Inverse Square Law, the force exerted by the earth on a space capsule is  $k/x^2$ , where  $x$  is the distance (in miles, for instance) from the capsule to the center of the earth (Figure 2). The force  $F$  is required to lift the capsule is therefore  $F(x) = k/x^2$ . How much work is done in propelling a 1000-pound capsule out of the earth's gravitational field?

**SOLUTION** We can assume  $k$  by noting that if  $x = 3960$  miles, the radius of the earth,  $F = 1.66 \times 10^{10}$  pounds. If  $x$  is in miles,  $F$  is in pounds. The work done (in mile-pounds) is therefore

$$1.66 \times 10^{10} \int_{3960}^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2} \, dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} 1.66 \times 10^{10} \left[ -\frac{1}{x} \right]_{3960}^b \\ = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} 1.66 \times 10^{10} \left( -\frac{1}{b} + \frac{1}{3960} \right) \\ = 1.66 \times 10^{10} \left( 0 + \frac{1}{3960} \right) \\ \approx 4.19 \times 10^6 \text{ mile-pounds}$$

**DEFINITION** We now give a definition for  $\int_a^{\infty} f(x) \, dx$ .

#### Definition

If both  $\int_a^b f(x) \, dx$  and  $\int_b^c f(x) \, dx$  converge then  $\int_a^{\infty} f(x) \, dx$  is said to converge and have value

$$\int_a^{\infty} f(x) \, dx = \int_a^b f(x) \, dx + \int_b^c f(x) \, dx$$

Otherwise,  $\int_a^{\infty} f(x) \, dx$  diverges.

**EXAMPLE 3** Determine if  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2} \, dx$  converges or diverges.

**SOLUTION**

$$\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2} \, dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_1^b \frac{1}{x^2} \, dx \\ = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \left[ -\frac{1}{x} \right]_1^b = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \left( -\frac{1}{b} + \frac{1}{1} \right) \\ = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \left( -\frac{1}{b} \right) + 1 = 0 + 1 = 1$$

Since the integrand is an even function

$$\int_{-1}^0 \frac{1}{1-x^2} dx = \int_0^1 \frac{1}{1-x^2} dx = \frac{\pi}{2}.$$

Therefore

$$\int_{-1}^1 \frac{1}{1-x^2} dx = \int_{-1}^0 \frac{1}{1-x^2} dx + \int_0^1 \frac{1}{1-x^2} dx = \frac{\pi}{2} + \frac{\pi}{2} = \pi. \quad \blacksquare$$

We will use the notation  $F(x)^+$  to mean  $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} F(x-t)$  and  $F(x)^-$  to mean  $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} F(x+t)$ . Note that in none of these cases are we substituting infinity. Each is defined as a limit, which we can work out, if needed, in determining improper integrals.

**Example 8.1.1** *Continuous random variables* When we first introduced random variables and probability density functions back in Section 5.3 we had a restriction on cases where the set of possible outcomes was bounded. In many situations there is no upper (or lower) limit for the set of possible outcomes. For example, the continuous probability density functions will have a lower bound, a maximum, or both. Now that we have covered improper integrals we can dispense with this restriction.

If the PDF of a continuous random variable  $X$  is defined on the entire range of the set of possible outcomes then the requirements for a PDF are

1.  $f(x) \geq 0$
2.  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = 1$

The PDF of a random variable allows us to find probabilities by integration. For example, Figure 3 illustrates the probability that  $X$  is between  $a$  and  $b$ .

The mean and variance of a random variable are then defined by

$$\begin{aligned} \mu &= E(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x) dx \\ \sigma^2 &= E(X^2) - \mu^2 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 f(x) dx - \mu^2 \end{aligned}$$

The standard deviation of a random variable is a measure of its dispersion or spread, not only for the probability, and it can be computed from (see Problem 4 of Section 5.7)

$$\sigma = \sqrt{E(X^2) - \mu^2}.$$

When  $\sigma$  is small, the distribution of probability is extremely spread out (distributed very closely around the mean when  $\sigma$  is large). The probability is distributed in

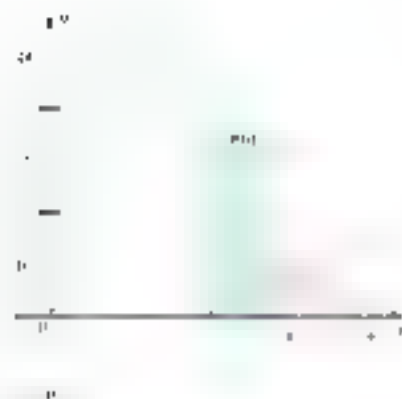
The next two examples, and some of the exercises, introduce several other families of probability distributions.

**EXAMPLE 8.1.2** The **exponential distribution**, which is sometimes used to model the lifetimes of electrical or mechanical components, has PDF

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \lambda e^{-\lambda x} & \text{if } x \geq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases}$$

where  $\lambda$  is some positive constant.

- (a) Show that  $f(x)$  is a valid PDF.
- (b) Find the mean  $\mu$  and the variance  $\sigma^2$ .
- (c) Find the cumulative distribution function (CDF)  $F(x)$ .
- (d) If a component's lifetime  $X$  is measured in hours as a continuous random variable having an exponential distribution with  $\lambda = 0.01$ , what is the probability that the component works for at least 20 hours?



## SOLUTION

(a) The function  $f$  is always nonnegative and

$$\begin{aligned}\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx &= \int_{-\infty}^0 x^2 dx + \int_0^{\infty} \lambda e^{-\lambda x} dx \\&= 0 + \left[ -e^{-\lambda x} \right]_0^{\infty} \\&= 1\end{aligned}$$

so  $f(x)$  is a valid PDF.

(b)

$$\begin{aligned}E(X) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xf(x) dx \\&= \int_{-\infty}^0 x \cdot 0 dx + \int_0^{\infty} x\lambda e^{-\lambda x} dx\end{aligned}$$

We apply integration by parts to the second integral and  $u = x$ ,  $dv = \lambda e^{-\lambda x} dx$  so that  $du = dx$ ,  $v = -e^{-\lambda x}$ . Thus

$$\begin{aligned}E(X) &= \left[ -xe^{-\lambda x} \right]_0^{\infty} + \int_0^{\infty} e^{-\lambda x} dx \\&= (-0 + 0) + \left[ -\frac{1}{\lambda} e^{-\lambda x} \right]_0^{\infty} \\&= \frac{1}{\lambda}.\end{aligned}$$

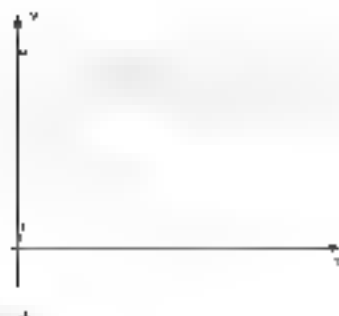
The variance is

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma^2 &= E(X^2) - \mu^2 \\&= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 f(x) dx - \left(\frac{1}{\lambda}\right)^2 \\&= \int_{-\infty}^0 x^2 \cdot 0 dx + \int_0^{\infty} x^2 \lambda e^{-\lambda x} dx = \lambda \int_0^{\infty} x^2 e^{-\lambda x} dx \\&= \lambda \left( -\frac{x^2}{\lambda} e^{-\lambda x} - \int_0^{\infty} -\frac{2x}{\lambda} e^{-\lambda x} dx \right) \\&= \lambda \left( -\frac{0}{\lambda} + \frac{2}{\lambda} \int_0^{\infty} x e^{-\lambda x} dx \right) \\&= \frac{2}{\lambda} \left( -\frac{x}{\lambda} e^{-\lambda x} - \int_0^{\infty} -\frac{1}{\lambda} e^{-\lambda x} dx \right) \\&= \frac{2}{\lambda} \left( -\frac{0}{\lambda} + \frac{1}{\lambda} \right) = \frac{2}{\lambda^2}.\end{aligned}$$

(c) For  $x < 0$ , the CDF is  $F(x) = P(X \leq x) = 0$ . For  $x \geq 0$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}F(x) &= \int_{-\infty}^x f(t) dt \\&= \int_{-\infty}^0 0 dx + \int_0^x \lambda e^{-\lambda t} dt \\&= 0 + \left[ -e^{-\lambda t} \right]_0^x \\&= 1 - e^{-\lambda x}.\end{aligned}$$

A graph of the CDF is shown in Figure 4.





- (d) Set  $x = 0.9$ . The probability that the component works for at least 20 hours is the probability that the lifetime is 70 hours or greater:

$$\begin{aligned} P(X \geq 70) &= \int_{70}^{\infty} 0.01e^{-0.01x} dx \\ &= e^{-0.01x} \Big|_{70}^{\infty} \\ &= e^{-0.7} \\ &\approx 0.519 \end{aligned}$$

The **normal distribution** is the only other shape given by a probability density distribution, since, to obtain  $\mu$ , we need any number, and the variance can be any positive number. The normal distribution with parameters  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$  has PDF

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left[-(x - \mu)^2 / 2\sigma^2\right]$$

(The parameters  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$  are not to be equal: the mean and variance differ.) As they vary, the distribution takes the shape shown in Figure 5. The mean  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$  might be shown on the PDF for the normal distribution with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ . It is surprisingly difficult to show that

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp\left[-(x - \mu)^2 / 2\sigma^2\right] dx = 1$$

although we will do so in Section 13.4. The properties of the normal distribution include the following:

- its graph is symmetric about the line  $x = \mu$ ;
- it has a maximum at  $x = \mu$ ;
- it has inflection points when  $x = \mu \pm \sigma$ ;
- the mean is  $\mu$ ;
- the variance is  $\sigma^2$ .

Problem 13 involves some other properties of the normal distribution. The normal distribution with  $\mu = 0$  and  $\sigma = 1$  is called the **standard normal distribution** and is the normal distribution that is graphed in Figure 5.

**EXAMPLE 6** Show that

$$(a) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x e^{-x^2} dx = 0$$

$$(b) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 e^{-x^2} dx = \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2}$$

**SOLUTION**

$$(a) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x e^{-x^2} dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow -\infty} \int_b^0 x e^{-x^2} dx + \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^b x e^{-x^2} dx$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left[ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-x^2/2} \right]_0^x \\
 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}
 \end{aligned}$$

Since  $xe^{-x^2/2}$  is an odd function

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xe^{-x^2/2} dx = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_0^{\infty} xe^{-x^2/2} dx + \int_{-\infty}^0 xe^{-x^2/2} dx = 0$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xe^{-x^2/2} dx &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x e^{-u^2/2} du = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_0^{\infty} x e^{-x^2/2} dx \\
 &\quad + \int_{-\infty}^0 x e^{-x^2/2} dx \\
 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} = \frac{2}{\sqrt{2\pi}}
 \end{aligned}$$

(b) Since  $e^{-x^2/2}$  is an even function and since  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-x^2/2} dx = 1$ ,

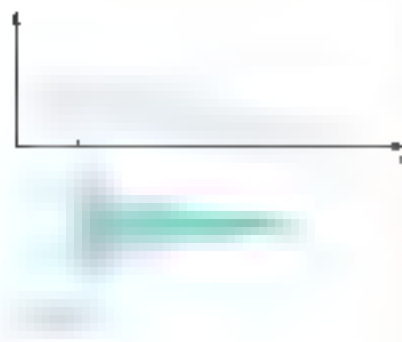
$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_0^{\infty} e^{-x^2/2} dx = \frac{1}{2}$$

We then apply integration by parts and l'Hôpital's Rule.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_0^{\infty} x^2 e^{-x^2/2} dx &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_0^x (x)(e^{-x^2/2}) dx \\
 &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \left( -xe^{-x^2/2} + \int_0^x e^{-x^2/2} dx \right) \\
 &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \left( 0 + \int_0^{\infty} e^{-x^2/2} dx \right) = \frac{1}{2}
 \end{aligned}$$

Since  $x^4 e^{-x^2/2}$  is an even function, we get the same contribution to the area from  $-\infty$  to  $0$ .

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^4 e^{-x^2/2} dx = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} + \frac{1}{2}$$



**EXAMPLE 5** Let the curve  $y = 1/x$  with  $x \geq 1$  be revolved about the  $x$ -axis, thereby generating a surface called Gabriel's horn (Figure 6). We claim that

1. the volume  $V$  of this horn is finite,
2. the surface area  $A$  of the horn is infinite.

To put the results in practical terms, they seem to say that the horn can be filled with a finite amount of paint, and so there is not enough paint to cover its inside surface. Before we try to unravel this paradox, let us establish (1) and (2). We use results for volume from Section 5.7 and for surface area from Section 5.4.



Սուրբ Բեռնարդոսը՝ 12-րդ դարի ֆրանսիացի քահանայ, ասել է՝  
Երկար առաքելությունը մեզ համար ինչպես ծառի մեջ թռչող թռչուն  
կենդանի է մնում մինչև որ ինքն անհետանա:  
Իր լիարժեք առաքելության ժամանակ  
ժողովուրդը Բեռնարդոսին համարում էր ինչպես ծառի մեջ թռչող թռչուն:  
ՆՃ

தெய்வப் புகழை உத: ளுள்:

Although the above is the most common  
and useful device for the purpose,  
it is not the only one.

4.

מאמר

$$= \left[ \ln \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1}{2} \right)^n} \right] =$$

1997 2000 2003 2006 2009 2012 2015 2018 2021 2024 2027 2030 2033 2036 2039 2042 2045 2048 2051 2054 2057 2060 2063 2066 2069 2072 2075 2078 2081 2084 2087 2090 2093 2096 2099 2102 2105 2108 2111 2114 2117 2120 2123 2126 2129 2132 2135 2138 2141 2144 2147 2150 2153 2156 2159 2162 2165 2168 2171 2174 2177 2180 2183 2186 2189 2192 2195 2198 2201 2204 2207 2210 2213 2216 2219 2222 2225 2228 2231 2234 2237 2240 2243 2246 2249 2252 2255 2258 2261 2264 2267 2270 2273 2276 2279 2282 2285 2288 2291 2294 2297 2300 2303 2306 2309 2312 2315 2318 2321 2324 2327 2330 2333 2336 2339 2342 2345 2348 2351 2354 2357 2360 2363 2366 2369 2372 2375 2378 2381 2384 2387 2390 2393 2396 2399 2402 2405 2408 2411 2414 2417 2420 2423 2426 2429 2432 2435 2438 2441 2444 2447 2450 2453 2456 2459 2462 2465 2468 2471 2474 2477 2480 2483 2486 2489 2492 2495 2498 2501 2504 2507 2510 2513 2516 2519 2522 2525 2528 2531 2534 2537 2540 2543 2546 2549 2552 2555 2558 2561 2564 2567 2570 2573 2576 2579 2582 2585 2588 2591 2594 2597 2600 2603 2606 2609 2612 2615 2618 2621 2624 2627 2630 2633 2636 2639 2642 2645 2648 2651 2654 2657 2660 2663 2666 2669 2672 2675 2678 2681 2684 2687 2690 2693 2696 2699 2702 2705 2708 2711 2714 2717 2720 2723 2726 2729 2732 2735 2738 2741 2744 2747 2750 2753 2756 2759 2762 2765 2768 2771 2774 2777 2780 2783 2786 2789 2792 2795 2798 2801 2804 2807 2810 2813 2816 2819 2822 2825 2828 2831 2834 2837 2840 2843 2846 2849 2852 2855 2858 2861 2864 2867 2870 2873 2876 2879 2882 2885 2888 2891 2894 2897 2900 2903 2906 2909 2912 2915 2918 2921 2924 2927 2930 2933 2936 2939 2942 2945 2948 2951 2954 2957 2960 2963 2966 2969 2972 2975 2978 2981 2984 2987 2990 2993 2996 2999 3002 3005 3008 3011 3014 3017 3020 3023 3026 3029 3032 3035 3038 3041 3044 3047 3050 3053 3056 3059 3062 3065 3068 3071 3074 3077 3080 3083 3086 3089 3092 3095 3098 3101 3104 3107 3110 3113 3116 3119 3122 3125 3128 3131 3134 3137 3140 3143 3146 3149 3152 3155 3158 3161 3164 3167 3170 3173 3176 3179 3182 3185 3188 3191 3194 3197 3200 3203 3206 3209 3212 3215 3218 3221 3224 3227 3230 3233 3236 3239 3242 3245 3248 3251 3254 3257 3260 3263 3266 3269 3272 3275 3278 3281 3284 3287 3290 3293 3296 3299 3302 3305 3308 3311 3314 3317 3320 3323 3326 3329 3332 3335 3338 3341 3344 3347 3350 3353 3356 3359 3362 3365 3368 3371 3374 3377 3380 3383 3386 3389 3392 3395 3398 3401 3404 3407 3410 3413 3416 3419 3422 3425 3428 3431 3434 3437 3440 3443 3446 3449 3452 3455 3458 3461 3464 3467 3470 3473 3476 3479 3482 3485 3488 3491 3494 3497 3500 3503 3506 3509 3512 3515 3518 3521 3524 3527 3530 3533 3536 3539 3542 3545 3548 3551 3554 3557 3560 3563 3566 3569 3572 3575 3578 3581 3584 3587 3590 3593 3596 3599 3602 3605 3608 3611 3614 3617 3620 3623 3626 3629 3632 3635 3638 3641 3644 3647 3650 3653 3656 3659 3662 3665 3668 3671 3674 3677 3680 3683 3686 3689 3692 3695 3698 3701 3704 3707 3710 3713 3716 3719 3722 3725 3728 3731 3734 3737 3740 3743 3746 3749 3752 3755 3758 3761 3764 3767 3770 3773 3776 3779 3782 3785 3788 3791 3794 3797 3800 3803 3806 3809 3812 3815 3818 3821 3824 3827 3830 3833 3836 3839 3842 3845 3848 3851 3854 3857 3860 3863 3866 3869 3872 3875 3878 3881 3884 3887 3890 3893 3896 3899 3902 3905 3908 3911 3914 3917 3920 3923 3926 3929 3932 3935 3938 3941 3944 3947 3950 3953 3956 3959 3962 3965 3968 3971 3974 3977 3980 3983 3986 3989 3992 3995 3998 4001 4004 4007 4010 4013 4016 4019 4022 4025 4028 4031 4034 4037 4040 4043 4046 4049 4052 4055 4058 4061 4064 4067 4070 4073 4076 4079 4082 4085 4088 4091 4094 4097 4100 4103 4106 4109 4112 4115 4118 4121 4124 4127 4130 4133 4136 4139 4142 4145 4148 4151 4154 4157 4160 4163 4166 4169 4172 4175 4178 4181 4184 4187 4190 4193 4196 4199 4202 4205 4208 4211 4214 4217 4220 4223 4226 4229 4232 4235 4238 4241 4244 4247 4250 4253 4256 4259 4262 4265 4268 4271 4274 4277 4280 4283 4286 4289 4292 4295 4298 4301 4304 4307 4310 4313 4316 4319 4322 4325 4328 4331 4334 4337 4340 4343 4346 4349 4352 4355 4358 4361 4364 4367 4370 4373 4376 4379 4382 4385 4388 4391 4394 4397 4400 4403 4406 4409 4412 4415 4418 4421 4424 4427 4430 4433 4436 4439 4442 4445 4448 4451

$$I = \int_C \left( \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{dx}{dt} \right)^2 + \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{dy}{dt} \right)^2 + \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{dz}{dt} \right)^2 \right) dt = \frac{1}{2} \int_C \left( \frac{dx}{dt} \right)^2 + \left( \frac{dy}{dt} \right)^2 + \left( \frac{dz}{dt} \right)^2 dt$$

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$$4 \int_0^{\pi} \sin^2 x \, dx = 2\pi \quad \text{if } \sin^2 x = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \sin^2 x = 0$$

15.  $\int_0^1 \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx = \frac{1}{2} \ln 2$

1975-76

10

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 53 54 55 56 57 58 59 60 61 62 63 64 65 66 67 68 69 70 71 72 73 74 75 76 77 78 79 80 81 82 83 84 85 86 87 88 89 90 91 92 93 94 95 96 97 98 99 100 101 102 103 104 105 106 107 108 109 110 111 112 113 114 115 116 117 118 119 120 121 122 123 124 125 126 127 128 129 130 131 132 133 134 135 136 137 138 139 140 141 142 143 144 145 146 147 148 149 150 151 152 153 154 155 156 157 158 159 160 161 162 163 164 165 166 167 168 169 170 171 172 173 174 175 176 177 178 179 180 181 182 183 184 185 186 187 188 189 190 191 192 193 194 195 196 197 198 199 200 201 202 203 204 205 206 207 208 209 210 211 212 213 214 215 216 217 218 219 220 221 222 223 224 225 226 227 228 229 230 231 232 233 234 235 236 237 238 239 240 241 242 243 244 245 246 247 248 249 250 251 252 253 254 255 256 257 258 259 260 261 262 263 264 265 266 267 268 269 270 271 272 273 274 275 276 277 278 279 280 281 282 283 284 285 286 287 288 289 290 291 292 293 294 295 296 297 298 299 300 301 302 303 304 305 306 307 308 309 310 311 312 313 314 315 316 317 318 319 320 321 322 323 324 325 326 327 328 329 330 331 332 333 334 335 336 337 338 339 340 341 342 343 344 345 346 347 348 349 350 351 352 353 354 355 356 357 358 359 360 361 362 363 364 365 366 367 368 369 370 371 372 373 374 375 376 377 378 379 380 381 382 383 384 385 386 387 388 389 390 391 392 393 394 395 396 397 398 399 400 401 402 403 404 405 406 407 408 409 410 411 412 413 414 415 416 417 418 419 420 421 422 423 424 425 426 427 428 429 430 431 432 433 434 435 436 437 438 439 440 441 442 443 444 445 446 447 448 449 450 451 452 453 454 455 456 457 458 459 460 461 462 463 464 465 466 467 468 469 470 471 472 473 474 475 476 477 478 479 480 481 482 483 484 485 486 487 488 489 490 491 492 493 494 495 496 497 498 499 500 501 502 503 504 505 506 507 508 509 510 511 512 513 514 515 516 517 518 519 520 521 522 523 524 525 526 527 528 529 530 531 532 533 534 535 536 537 538 539 540 541 542 543 544 545 546 547 548 549 550 551 552 553 554 555 556 557 558 559 560 561 562 563 564 565 566 567 568 569 570 571 572 573 574 575 576 577 578 579 580 581 582 583 584 585 586 587 588 589 590 591 592 593 594 595 596 597 598 599 600 601 602 603 604 605 606 607 608 609 610 611 612 613 614 615 616 617 618 619 620 621 622 623 624 625 626 627 628 629 630 631 632 633 634 635 636 637 638 639 640 641 642 643 644 645 646 647 648 649 650 651 652 653 654 655 656 657 658 659 660 661 662 663 664 665 666 667 668 669 670 671 672 673 674 675 676 677 678 679 680 681 682 683 684 685 686 687 688 689 690 691 692 693 694 695 696 697 698 699 700 701 702 703 704 705 706 707 708 709 710 711 712 713 714 715 716 717 718 719 720 721 722 723 724 725 726 727 728 729 730 731 732 733 734 735 736 737 738 739 740 741 742 743 744 745 746 747 748 749 750 751 752 753 754 755 756 757 758 759 760 761 762 763 764 765 766 767 768 769 770 771 772 773 774 775 776 777 778 779 780 781 782 783 784 785 786 787 788 789 790 791 792 793 794 795 796 797 798 799 800 801 802 803 804 805 806 807 808 809 810 811 812 813 814 815 816 817 818 819 820 821 822 823 824 825 826 827 828 829 830 831 832 833 834 835 836 837 838 839 840 841 842 843 844 845 846 847 848 849 850 851 852 853 854 855 856 857 858 859 860 861 862 863 864 865 866 867 868 869 870 871 872 873 874 875 876 877 878 879 880 881 882 883 884 885 886 887 888 889 890 891 892 893 894 895 896 897 898 899 900 901 902 903 904 905 906 907 908 909 910 911 912 913 914 915 916 917 918 919 920 921 922 923 924 925 926 927 928 929 930 931 932 933 934 935 936 937 938 939 940 941 942 943 944 945 946 947 948 949 950 951 952 953 954 955 956 957 958 959 960 961 962 963 964 965 966 967 968 969 970 971 972 973 974 975 976 977 978 979 980 981 982 983 984 985 986 987 988 989 990 991 992 993 994 995 996 997 998 999 1000 1001 1002 1003 1004 1005 1006 1007 1008 1009 1010 1011 1012 1013 1014 1015 1016 1017 1018 1019 1020 1021 1022 1023 1024 1025 1026 1027 1028 1029 1030 1031 1032 1033 1034 1035 1036 1037 1038 1039 1040 1

Thus,

$\frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{x}} \right) = \frac{\partial L}{\partial x}$

doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0141111.g001

If we throw water over our mathematics. As I'm sure he burn a hole along the side, I open up and find that I've a large amount of paint. We could not possibly paint this surface with a paint of a uniform thickness. However we could do it if we allow the paint coat to get thinner and thinner as we move farther and farther from the horizontal one. And if course that's exactly what happens when we fill the universe with a cubic unit of paint (imaginary paint can be spread over infinite surfaces).

[illegible]

**EXAMPLE 2** Show that  $\int_1^{\infty} 1/x^p dx$  diverges for  $p \leq 1$  and converges for  $p > 1$ .

**Section 104.** We showed in our analysis to establish that the following proposition:

$$\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx = \arctan x \Big|_0^1 = \frac{\pi}{4}$$

### האסטרטגיה של הממשלה

## Concepts Review

1. *Journal of the American Medical Association*, 1997; 277: 1001-1005.

החלטת הוועדה

3.  $\int_0^1 x^2 \ln x \, dx$  converges or diverges if so, how?

[illegible]

المجلة ١٠٠

4.  $\int_0^1 x^2 dx = \frac{1}{3}$

## Problem Set 8.3

In Problems 1–24, evaluate each improper integral or show that it diverges.

1.  $\int_{-1}^{\infty} x^2 dx$

2.  $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{dx}{x^2}$

3.  $\int_1^{\infty} 2\pi x^2 dx$

4.  $\int_0^{\infty} dx$

5.  $\int_0^{\infty} x dx$

6.  $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2} dx$

7.  $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x} dx$

8.  $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^3} dx$

9.  $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^4} dx$

10.  $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^5} dx$

11.  $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^6} dx$

12.  $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^7} dx$

13.  $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^8} dx$

14.  $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^9} dx$

15.  $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^{10}} dx$

16.  $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^{11}} dx$

17.  $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^{12}} dx$

18.  $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^{13}} dx$

19.  $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^{14}} dx$

20.  $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^{15}} dx$

21.  $\int_0^{\infty} \cosh x dx$  *Hint: Use a table of integrals or a CAS.*

22.  $\int_0^{\infty} \sinh x dx$

23.  $\int_0^{\infty} e^{-x} \sin x dx$  *Hint: Use a table of integrals or a CAS.*

24.  $\int_0^{\infty} e^{-x} \cos x dx$

25. Find the area of the region under the curve  $y = 2 - 4x^2 = -4x^2 + 2$  to the right of  $x = 1$ . *Hint: Use partial fractions.*

26. Find the area of the region under the curve  $y = 1 - x^2 + 1$  to the right of  $x = 1$ .

27. Suppose that Newton's law for the force of gravity had the form  $\frac{k}{x^2}$  rather than  $\frac{k}{x^3}$  (see Example 5). Show that it would then be impossible to send anything out of the earth's gravitational field.

28. If a 1000-pound capsule weighs only 100 pounds on the moon (radius = 600 miles), how much work is done in propelling this capsule out of the earth's gravitational field (see Example 3)?

29. Suppose that a company expects its annual profits  $t$  years from now to be  $P(t)$  dollars and that interest is considered to be compounded continuously at an annual rate  $r$ . Then the present value of its future profits can be shown to be

$$PV = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-rt} P(t) dt$$

Find  $PV$  if  $r = 0.08$  and  $P(t) = 100,000$ .

30. Do Problem 29 assuming that  $f(t) = 100,000e^{-0.08t}$ .

31. A continuous random variable  $X$  has a uniform distribution if it has a probability density function of the form

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a} & \text{if } a \leq x \leq b \\ 0 & \text{if } x < a \text{ or } x > b \end{cases}$$

(a) Show that  $\int_a^b f(x) dx = 1$ .

(b) Find the mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$  of the uniform distribution.

(c) If  $a = 0$  and  $b = 10$ , find the probability that  $X$  is less than 2.

32. A random variable  $X$  has a Weibull distribution if it has probability density function

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{\beta}{\theta} \left(\frac{x}{\theta}\right)^{\beta-1} e^{-(x/\theta)^{\beta}} & \text{if } x > 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x \leq 0 \end{cases}$$

(a) Show that  $\int_0^{\infty} f(x) dx = 1$ . (Assume  $\beta > 0$ .)

(b) If  $\theta = 3$  and  $\beta = 2$ , find the mean  $\mu$  and the variance  $\sigma^2$ .

(c) If the lifetime of a computer monitor is a random variable  $X$  that has a Weibull distribution with  $\theta = 4$  and  $\beta = 2$  (where age is measured in years), find the probability that a monitor will last less than 4 years.

33. Sketch the graph of the normal probability density function

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-(x-\mu)^2/(2\sigma^2)}$$

and show, using calculus, that  $\sigma$  is the distance from the mean  $\mu$  to the coordinate of one of the inflection points.

34. The Pareto probability density function has the form

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} kM^k & \text{if } x \leq M \\ \frac{kM^k}{x^{k+1}} & \text{if } x > M \end{cases}$$

where  $k$  and  $M$  are positive constants.

(a) Find the value of  $C$  that makes  $f(x)$  a probability density function.

(b) For the value of  $C$  found in part (a), find the value of the mean  $\mu$ . Is the mean finite for all positive  $k$ ? If not, how does the mean depend on  $k$ ?

(c) For the value of  $C$  found in part (a), find the variance  $\sigma^2$ . How does the variance depend on  $k$ ?

35. The Pareto distribution is often used as a model income distribution. Suppose that in some economy the income distribution does follow a Pareto distribution with  $k = 3$ . Suppose that the mean income is \$20,000.

(a) Find  $M$  and  $C$ .

(b) Find the variance  $\sigma^2$ .

(c) Find the fraction of income earners who earn more than \$50,000. *(Note: This is the same as asking what is the probability that a randomly chosen person has an income of less than \$50,000.)*

36. In electromagnetic theory, the magnetic potential  $u$  at a point on the axis of a circular coil is given by

$$u = k \int_0^{\pi} \frac{dx}{2r - x \cos \theta}$$

where  $k$ ,  $r$ , and  $\theta$  are constants. Evaluate  $u$ .

37. There is a subtlety in the definition of  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$  that is illustrated by the following. Show that

(a)  $\int_0^{\infty} x dx$  diverges and

$$(b) \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^b x dx = 0.$$

38. Consider an infinitely long wire extending with the positive  $x$ -axis and having mass density  $\delta(x) = (1 + x^2)^{-1}$ ,  $\delta(x) \geq 0$ .

(a) Calculate the total mass of the wire.

(b) Show that this wire does not have a center of mass.

39. Give an example of a region in the first quadrant that gives a solid of finite volume when revolved about the  $x$ -axis but gives  $\infty$  when it is revolved about the  $y$ -axis. Which is the  $y$ -axis?

40. Let  $f$  be a continuous function on an interval defined on

(a)  $x = 0$  to  $x = \infty$  with  $f(x) = x^{-1}$ . (b)  $x = 0$  to  $x = \infty$  with  $f(x) = x^{-2}$ .

(c)  $x = 0$  to  $x = \infty$  with  $f(x) = x^{-3}$ . (d)  $x = 0$  to  $x = \infty$  with  $f(x) = x^{-4}$ .

(e) Is it possible that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x)$  does not exist?

41. We can use a computer to approximate  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$  by

taking  $b$  very large in  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$  provided we know that the first

integral converges. Calculate  $\int_1^{100} (1/x^p) dx$  for  $p = 1, 2, 3, 4$

and 0.99. Note that this gives no hint that the integral  $\int_1^{\infty} (1/x^p) dx$  converges for  $p > 1$  and diverges for  $p \leq 1$ .

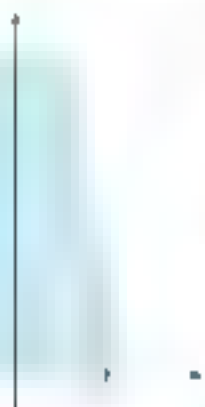
42. A wire extends from  $x = 0$  to  $x = \infty$  with mass density  $\delta(x) = (1 + x^2)^{-1}$ . (a) Find the total mass of the wire.

(b) Approximate  $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-x^2/2} dx$  for  $n = 1, 2, 3$ , and 4.

43. (a)  $\int_0^{\infty} x dx$  (b)  $\int_0^{\infty} x^2 dx$  (c)  $\int_0^{\infty} x^3 dx$  (d)  $\int_0^{\infty} x^4 dx$

(e)  $\int_0^{\infty} x^5 dx$  (f)  $\int_0^{\infty} x^6 dx$  (g)  $\int_0^{\infty} x^7 dx$  (h)  $\int_0^{\infty} x^8 dx$

## 8.4 Improper Integrals: Infinite Integrands



8.4

Consider the more complicated integrations that we have done here. Some of them look simple enough but are incorrect.

$$\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x} dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \left[ \ln x \right]_1^b = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} (\ln b - \ln 1) = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \ln b = \infty.$$

One of the problems is that the integrand  $f(x) = 1/x$  is not bounded. The value of the integral (if there is one) has to be a positive number. (Why?)

Where is our mistake? To answer we refer back to Section 4.2. Recall that for a function to be integrable on the interval  $[a, b]$  it must be bounded. Thus, the function  $f(x) = 1/x$  is not bounded on  $[1, \infty)$  and is not integrable on this interval.

We say that  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x} dx$  is an improper integral with an infinite interval. A *convergent improper integral* is a more accurate but less colorful term.

Until now we have carefully pointed out where our integrations were wrong. We have been able to do this because we have been able to find a function that has important applications. Our task in this section is to define the objects of a new kind of integral.

Let  $f$  be a function on the interval  $[a, \infty)$ . We give the definition for the case where  $f$  tends to infinity at the right endpoint of the interval of integration. There is a completely analogous definition for the case where  $f$  tends to infinity at the left endpoint.

### Definition

Let  $f$  be continuous on the half-open interval  $[a, b)$  and suppose that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow b^-} f(x) = \infty$ . Then

$$\int_a^{\infty} f(x) dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

provided that the limit exists and is finite. Otherwise, we say that the integral diverges.



Note the geometric interpretation shown in Figure 2.

**EXAMPLE 1** Evaluate, if possible, the improper integral  $\int_2^{\infty} \frac{dx}{\sqrt{x-4}}$ .

**SOLUTION** Note that the integrand tends to infinity at 2.

$$\begin{aligned}\int_2^{\infty} \frac{dx}{\sqrt{x-4}} &= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int_2^t \frac{dx}{\sqrt{x-4}} = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \lim_{u \rightarrow 4^+} \frac{t}{\sqrt{u-4}} \\ &= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \lim_{u \rightarrow 4^+} \frac{t}{\sqrt{u-4}} = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{t}{0} = \infty.\end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 2** Evaluate, if possible,  $\int_0^{16} \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}} dx$ .

**SOLUTION**

$$\begin{aligned}\int_0^{16} \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}} dx &= \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \int_t^{16} \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}} dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \left[ 2\sqrt{x} \right]_t^{16} \\ &= \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \left( 2\sqrt{16} - 2\sqrt{t} \right) = 8.\end{aligned}$$

### Two Key Examples

In our Examples 1 and 2, we required that

$$\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^p} dx$$

converge if and only if  $p > 1$ . From 4.4.11, if the integral converges, we know that

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{t^p} = 0.$$

converge if and only if  $p < 1$ . The first line is an infinite limit of integrals; the second has an infinite integrand. If you feel at home with these two situations, you should also be at home with any other improper integrals that you may meet.

**EXAMPLE 3** Evaluate, if possible,  $\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^p} dx$ .

**SOLUTION**

$$\begin{aligned}\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^p} dx &= \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \int_t^1 \frac{1}{x^p} dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \left[ \frac{1-p}{1-p} x^{1-p} \right]_t^1 \\ &= \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \left( \frac{1-p}{1-p} \left( 1 - t^{1-p} \right) \right) = \frac{1-p}{1-p} = 1.\end{aligned}$$

We conclude that the integral diverges.

**EXAMPLE 4** Show that  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^p} dx$  converges if  $p > 1$  but diverges if  $p \leq 1$ .

**SOLUTION** Example 3 took care of the case  $p = 1$ . If  $p \neq 1$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^p} dx &= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int_1^t \frac{1}{x^p} dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \left[ \frac{1-p}{1-p} x^{1-p} \right]_1^t \\ &= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{1-p}{1-p} \left( t^{1-p} - 1 \right) \right) = \begin{cases} \frac{1-p}{1-p} & \text{if } p > 1 \\ \infty & \text{if } p \leq 1 \end{cases}\end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 5** Sketch the graph of the hypocycloid of four cusps  $x^{2/3} + y^{2/3} = 1$  and find its perimeter.

**SOLUTION** The graph is shown in Figure 3. To find the perimeter, it is enough to find the length  $L$  of the first quadrant portion and quadruple it. We estimate  $L$  to be a bit more than  $\sqrt{2} \approx 1.4$ . Its exact value (see Section 8.4) is

$$L = \int_0^1 \sqrt{1-x^2} dx = \frac{\pi}{2}.$$

By implicit differentiation of  $x^{2/3} + y^{2/3} = 1$ , we obtain

$$\frac{2}{3}x^{-1/3} = -\frac{2}{3}\frac{y}{x} \quad \text{or}$$

or

$$\frac{y}{x} = -\frac{x}{y}.$$

Thus

$$y^2 = 1 - x^{2/3} \quad \text{or} \quad y = \pm \sqrt{1 - x^{2/3}},$$

and so

$$L = \int_0^1 \sqrt{1 - (y')^2} dx = \int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^{1/3}} dx.$$

The value of this improper integral can be found from the solution in Example 4 of  $\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^{1/3}} dx = 3$ . We conclude that the hypocycloid has perimeter  $4 \times 3 = 12$ . ■

EXAMPLE 5 Evaluate  $\int_0^1 \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}} dx$ . **SOLUTION** The integrand  $f(x) = 1/\sqrt{x}$  has an integrand function that is not finite at an interior point of the interval  $[0, 1]$ . Here is the appropriate definition to give meaning to such an integral.

#### Definition

Let  $f$  be continuous on  $[a, b]$ , except at a point  $c$  where  $a < c < b$  and suppose that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} |f(x)| = \infty$ . Then we define

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^c f(x) dx + \int_c^b f(x) dx$$

provided both integrals on the right converge. Otherwise we say that  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$  diverges.

EXAMPLE 6 Show that  $\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x} dx$  diverges.

**SOLUTION**

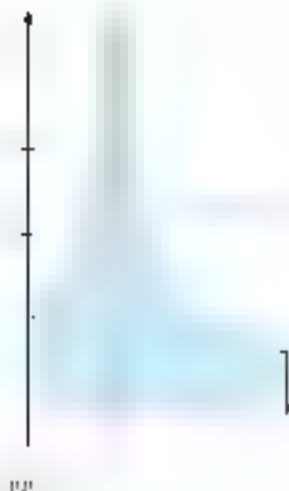
$$\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x} dx = \int_0^{1/2} \frac{1}{x} dx + \int_{1/2}^1 \frac{1}{x} dx.$$

The second of the integrals on the right diverges by Example 4. This is enough to give the conclusion. ■

EXAMPLE 7 Evaluate (if possible) the improper integral  $\int_0^2 \frac{1}{x^2} dx$ .

**SOLUTION** The integrand tends to infinity at  $x = 0$  (see Figure 4). Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^2 \frac{1}{x^2} dx &= \int_0^1 \frac{dx}{(x-1)^{2/3}} + \int_1^2 \frac{dx}{(x-1)^{2/3}} \\ &= \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \int_0^1 \frac{dx}{(x-1)^{2/3}} + \lim_{t \rightarrow 1^-} \int_1^2 \frac{dx}{(x-1)^{2/3}} \\ &= \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} [3(x-1)^{1/3}]_0^1 - \lim_{t \rightarrow 1^-} [3(x-1)^{1/3}]_1^2 \\ &= 3 \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} [(t-1)^{1/3} + 1] - 3 \lim_{t \rightarrow 1^-} [2^{1/3} - (x-1)^{1/3}] \\ &= 3 - 6 \sqrt[3]{2} \approx -6.73. \end{aligned}$$







41. Find the area of the region between the curves  $y = x - 3$ ,  $y = 2x^2$  and  $y = 0$  for  $0 \leq x \leq 4$ .

42. Find the area of the region between the curves  $y = x^2$  and  $y = 2x^2 - x^3$  for  $0 \leq x \leq 1$ .

43. Let  $R$  be the region in the first quadrant below the curve  $y = \sqrt{1 - x^2}$  and to the left of  $x = 1$ .

- (a) Show that the area of  $R$  is finite by finding its value.  
 (b) Show that the volume of the solid generated by revolving  $R$  about the  $y$ -axis is infinite.

44. Find  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x^2} \int_0^x t^2 e^{-t} dt$ .

45. Is  $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{\sin x}{x} dx$  an improper integral? Find its value.

**PROBLEM 46. (Comparison Test)** If  $0 \leq f(x) \leq g(x)$  on  $(a, \infty)$ , it

can be shown that the convergence of  $\int_a^{\infty} g(x) dx$  implies the

convergence of  $\int_a^{\infty} f(x) dx$  and the divergence of  $\int_a^{\infty} f(x) dx$

implies the divergence of  $\int_a^{\infty} g(x) dx$ . Use this to show that

$\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2} dx$  converges.

**HINT:** On  $(1, \infty)$ ,  $1/x^2 \leq 1/x$ .

47. Use the Comparison Test of Problem 46 to show that  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2} dx$  converges.

48. Use the Comparison Test of Problem 46 to show that  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2} dx$  diverges.

49. Use the Comparison Test of Problem 46 to determine whether  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2} dx$  converges or diverges.

50. Formulate a comparison test for improper integrals with infinite intervals.

51. (a) Use Example 2 in Section 8.2 to show that for any positive number  $n$  there is a number  $M$  such that

$$\frac{1}{x^n} < \frac{1}{x} \quad \text{for } x > M.$$

(b) Use part (a) and Problem 46 to show that  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^n} dx$  converges.

52. Using Problem 51, show that  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^n} dx$  converges for  $n > 1$ .

**PROBLEM 53. (Gamma Function)** Let  $\Gamma(x) = \int_0^{\infty} t^{x-1} e^{-t} dt$ .

This integral converges by Problems 51 and 52. Show each of the following (note that the gamma function is defined for every positive real number  $x$ ):

$$(a) \Gamma(1) = 1 \quad (b) \Gamma(x+1) = x\Gamma(x)$$

$$(c) \Gamma(x) = \frac{1}{x} \Gamma(x+1) \quad \text{if } x \text{ is a positive integer.}$$

54. Evaluate  $\int_0^{\infty} t^x e^{-t} dt$  for  $x = 1, 2, 3, 4$ , and  $5$ , thereby confirming Problem 53(c).

55. The gamma probability density function is

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(x)} e^{-x} x^{x-1} \quad \text{if } x > 0$$

where  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are positive constants. Both the gamma and the Weibull distributions are used in model lifetimes of people, machines, and equipment.

(a) Find the value of  $C$ , depending on both  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  that makes  $f(x)$  a probability density function.

(b) For the value of  $C$  found in part (a), find the value of the mean  $\mu$ .

(c) For the value of  $C$  found in part (a), find the variance  $\sigma^2$ .

**PROBLEM 56. The Laplace transform**, named after the French mathematician Pierre-Simon de Laplace (1749–1827), of a function  $f(x)$  is given by  $L(f(x))(s) = \int_0^{\infty} f(x) e^{-sx} dx$ . Laplace

transformations are useful for solving differential equations.

(a) Show that the Laplace transform of  $e^{ax}$  is given by  $L(e^{ax})(s) = 1/(s-a)$  and is defined for  $s > a$ .

(b) Show that the Laplace transform of  $e^{ax}$  is given by  $L(e^{ax})(s) = 1/(s-a)$  and is defined for  $s > a$ .

(c) Show that the Laplace transform of  $\sin(ax)$  is given by  $L(\sin(ax))(s) = a/(s^2 + a^2)$  and is defined for  $s > 0$ .

57. By interchanging each of the following integrals in an order and then evaluating the resulting integrations, show

$$(a) \int_0^{\infty} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2} dx dy = \int_0^{\infty} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2} dy dx$$

$$(b) \int_0^{\infty} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2} dx dy = \int_0^{\infty} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2} dy dx$$

$$(c) \int_0^{\infty} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2} dx dy = \int_0^{\infty} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2} dy dx$$

$$(d) \int_0^{\infty} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2} dx dy = \int_0^{\infty} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2} dy dx$$

$$(e) \int_0^{\infty} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2} dx dy = \int_0^{\infty} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2} dy dx$$

$$(f) \int_0^{\infty} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2} dx dy = \int_0^{\infty} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2} dy dx$$

$$(g) \int_0^{\infty} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2} dx dy = \int_0^{\infty} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2} dy dx$$

$$(h) \int_0^{\infty} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2} dx dy = \int_0^{\infty} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2} dy dx$$

$$(i) \int_0^{\infty} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2} dx dy = \int_0^{\infty} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2} dy dx$$

$$(j) \int_0^{\infty} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2} dx dy = \int_0^{\infty} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2} dy dx$$

$$(k) \int_0^{\infty} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2} dx dy = \int_0^{\infty} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2} dy dx$$

$$(l) \int_0^{\infty} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2} dx dy = \int_0^{\infty} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2} dy dx$$

$$(m) \int_0^{\infty} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2} dx dy = \int_0^{\infty} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2} dy dx$$

$$(n) \int_0^{\infty} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2} dx dy = \int_0^{\infty} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2} dy dx$$

$$(o) \int_0^{\infty} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2} dx dy = \int_0^{\infty} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2} dy dx$$

$$(p) \int_0^{\infty} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2} dx dy = \int_0^{\infty} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2} dy dx$$

## 8.5 Chapter Review

### Concepts Test

Respond with true or false to each of the following assertions. Be prepared to justify your answer.

1.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x} = 0$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x^2} = 0$ .

2.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x} = 0$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x^2} = 0$ .

3.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x} = 0$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x^2} = 0$ .

4.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x} = 0$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x^2} = 0$ .

5.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x} = 0$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x^2} = 0$ .

6.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x} = 0$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x^2} = 0$ .

7.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x} = 0$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x^2} = 0$ .

8.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x} = 0$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x^2} = 0$ .

9.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x} = 0$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x^2} = 0$ .

10.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x} = 0$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x^2} = 0$ .

8. If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = 0$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} g(x) = \infty$ , then  
 $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} [f(x)]^{g(x)} = 0$ . Assume  $f(x) \neq 0$  for  $x > a$ .  
 9. If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = 1$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} g(x) = \infty$ , then  
 $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} [f(x)]^{g(x)} = \infty$ .

10. If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = 0$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} g(x) = \infty$ , then  
 $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} [f(x)]^{g(x)} = 0$ .  
 11. If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = L$ , then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} [f(x)]^{g(x)} = L^L$ .

12. If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = L$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} g(x) = \infty$ , then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} [f(x)]^{g(x)} = \infty$ .

(Assume  $g(x) \neq 0$  for  $x > a$ .)

13. If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = 2$ , then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = e$ .  
 14. If  $f(x) \neq 0$  for  $x > a$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = 0$ , then  
 $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} [f(x)]^{g(x)} = 0$ .

15. If  $p(x)$  is a polynomial, then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{p(x)}{e^x} = 0$ .

16. If  $p(x)$  is a polynomial, then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{p(x)}{e^x} = 0$ .

17. If  $f(x)$  and  $g(x)$  are both differentiable and  
 $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)} = L$ , then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = L$ .

18.  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^p} dx$  converges for all  $p > 0$ .

19.  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^p} dx$  diverges for all  $p > 0$ .

20. If  $f$  is continuous on  $(0, \infty)$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = 0$ , then  
 $\int_1^{\infty} f(x) dx$  converges.

21. If  $f$  is continuous on  $(0, \infty)$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = 0$ , then  
 $\int_1^{\infty} f(x) dx$  converges.

22. If  $f$  is continuous on  $(0, \infty)$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = 0$ , then  
 $\int_1^{\infty} f(x) dx$  converges.

23. If  $f$  is continuous on  $(0, \infty)$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = 0$ , then  
 $\int_1^{\infty} f(x) dx$  converges.

24. If  $f$  is continuous on  $(0, \infty)$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = 0$ , then  
 $\int_1^{\infty} f(x) dx$  converges.

25. If  $f$  is continuous on  $(0, \infty)$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = 0$ , then  
 $\int_1^{\infty} f(x) dx$  converges.

### Sample Test Problems

Find each limit in Problems 1–18.

- $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{4x}{\ln x}$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln x}{x}$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sin x}{x}$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\cos x}{x}$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{e^x}{x}$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{e^x}{x^2}$

7.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x}$

8.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x^2}$

9.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x^3}$

10.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt{x} \ln x$

11.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{1}{\sin x} - \frac{1}{x} \right)$

12.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} (\ln x)^{1/x}$

13.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2x^2}{\ln x}$

14.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{e^x}{x}$

15.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{e^x}{x^2}$

16.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{e^x}{x^3}$

17.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{e^x}{x^4}$

18.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left( x \ln x - \frac{e^x}{2} \right)$

In Problems 19–38, evaluate the given improper integral or show that it diverges.

19.  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2} dx$

20.  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^3} dx$

21.  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^4} dx$

22.  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^5} dx$

23.  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^6} dx$

24.  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^7} dx$

25.  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^8} dx$

26.  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^9} dx$

27.  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^{10}} dx$

28.  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^{11}} dx$

29.  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^{12}} dx$

30.  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^{13}} dx$

31.  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^{14}} dx$

32.  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^{15}} dx$

33.  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^{16}} dx$

34.  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^{17}} dx$

35.  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^{18}} dx$

36.  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^{19}} dx$

37.  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^{20}} dx$

38.  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^{21}} dx$

39.  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2} dx$

40.  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^3} dx$

41.  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^4} dx$

42.  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^5} dx$

43.  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^6} dx$

44.  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^7} dx$

45.  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^8} dx$

46.  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^9} dx$

47.  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^{10}} dx$

48.  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^{11}} dx$

49.  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^{12}} dx$

50.  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^{13}} dx$

51.  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^{14}} dx$

52.  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^{15}} dx$

53.  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^{16}} dx$

54.  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^{17}} dx$

55.  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^{18}} dx$

56.  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^{19}} dx$

57.  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^{20}} dx$

58.  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^{21}} dx$

29. For what values of  $p$  does the integral  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^p} dx$  converge, and for what values does it diverge?

40. For what values of  $p$  does the integral  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^p} dx$  converge, and for what values does it diverge?

In Problems 41–44, use a comparison test or Theorem 45 of Section 8.4 to decide whether each integral converges or diverges.

41.  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{dx}{\sqrt{x^2 + 1}}$

42.  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{\ln x}{x^2} dx$

43.  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx$

44.  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{\ln x}{x} dx$

45.  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2} dx$

46.  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^3} dx$

47.  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^4} dx$

48.  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^5} dx$

49.  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^6} dx$

50.  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^7} dx$

# REVIEW & PREVIEW PROBLEMS

Recall from Section 12.1 that the converse of an implication  $P \Rightarrow Q$  is  $Q \Rightarrow P$  and the contrapositive of  $P \Rightarrow Q$  is  $\neg Q \Rightarrow \neg P$ . In  $P \Rightarrow Q$ ,  $P$  is the hypothesis and  $Q$  is the conclusion. Which, among the original statement, its converse, and its contrapositive are always true?

1.  $f$  is differentiable at  $c$  implies  $f$  is continuous at  $c$ .
2.  $f$  is continuous at  $c$  implies  $f$  is differentiable at  $c$ .
3. If  $f$  is differentiable at  $c$  then  $f$  is continuous at  $c$ .
4. If  $f$  is continuous at  $c$  then  $f$  is differentiable at  $c$ .
5. If  $f$  is right continuous at  $c$  then  $f$  is continuous at  $c$ .
6. If  $f$  is differentiable at  $c$  always then  $f$  is continuous at  $c$ . (Assume  $f$  is differentiable for all  $c$ .)
7. If  $f(x) = x^2$  then  $f'(x) = 2x$ .
8. If  $c = 0$  then  $e^c = 1$ .

In Problems 9–12, evaluate the given sum.

$$9. \sum_{k=1}^n (k^2 + 1)$$

$$10. \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k^2 + 1}$$

$$11. \sum_{k=1}^n k$$

$$12. \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k}$$

Estimate the value of the limits.

$$13. \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x^2}$$

$$14. \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^x}{x^2}$$

$$15. \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^2$$

$$16. \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^3$$

Write  $\int_0^1 f(x) dx$  as the sum of two integrals.

$$17. \int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^2} dx$$

$$18. \int_0^1 x^2 dx$$

$$19. \int_0^1 x^2 e^{-x} dx$$

$$20. \int_0^1 x^2 e^{-x} dx$$

$$21. \int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx$$

$$22. \int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx$$

- Infinite Sequences
- Infinite Series
- Positive Series, The Integral Test
- Positive Series, Other Tests
- Alternating Series, Absolute Convergence and Conditional Convergence
- Power Series
- Operations on Power Series
- Taylor and Maclaurin Series
- The Taylor Ap, approximation to a function

Someone is sure to argue that there are many different sequences that begin

$$1, 1, 1, 1, 1, \dots$$

and we agree. For example, the

$$2n$$

$$(n = 1, 2, \dots)$$

generates three five numbers. What our experts would think of this argument? When we ask you to look at a picture, we mean it simply and without further



## 1.1 Infinite Sequences

In simple language, a sequence

$$a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4, \dots$$

is an ordered arrangement of real numbers, one for each positive integer. A more formal definition of an infinite sequence is a function whose domain is the set of positive integers and whose range is a set of real numbers. We then denote a sequence as  $a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots$  by  $\{a_n\}$  or simply by  $a_n$ . Occasionally we will extend the notation slightly by allowing the domain for  $n$  to begin at 0, giving  $a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots$  or to a  $\pm$  value other than 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48, 49, 50, 51, 52, 53, 54, 55, 56, 57, 58, 59, 60, 61, 62, 63, 64, 65, 66, 67, 68, 69, 70, 71, 72, 73, 74, 75, 76, 77, 78, 79, 80, 81, 82, 83, 84, 85, 86, 87, 88, 89, 90, 91, 92, 93, 94, 95, 96, 97, 98, 99, 100, 101, 102, 103, 104, 105, 106, 107, 108, 109, 110, 111, 112, 113, 114, 115, 116, 117, 118, 119, 120, 121, 122, 123, 124, 125, 126, 127, 128, 129, 130, 131, 132, 133, 134, 135, 136, 137, 138, 139, 140, 141, 142, 143, 144, 145, 146, 147, 148, 149, 150, 151, 152, 153, 154, 155, 156, 157, 158, 159, 160, 161, 162, 163, 164, 165, 166, 167, 168, 169, 170, 171, 172, 173, 174, 175, 176, 177, 178, 179, 180, 181, 182, 183, 184, 185, 186, 187, 188, 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989, 990, 991, 992, 993, 994, 995, 996, 997, 998, 999, 1000.

by an explicit formula for the  $n$ th term, as in

$$a_n = 3n - 2, \quad n \geq 1$$

or by a recursion formula

$$a_1 = 1, \quad a_n = a_{n-1} + 3, \quad n \geq 2$$

Note that each of our three illustrative sequences is finite and has both an explicit formula and the first few values of the sequence, but they generate

$$1, 1, 1, 1, 1, \dots$$

$$1, 1, 1, 1, 1, \dots$$

$$1, 1, 1, 1, 1, \dots$$

$$1, 1, 1, 1, 1, \dots$$

$$1, 1, 1, 1, 1, \dots$$

$$1, 1, 1, 1, 1, \dots$$

$$1, 1, 1, 1, 1, \dots$$

$$1, 1, 1, 1, 1, \dots$$

Can you find the four sequences not defined? Each has values that pile up near 1 (see the diagrams in Figure 1.1). But can you say  $a_n \rightarrow 1$ ? The correct response is that sequences  $\{a_n\}$  and  $\{b_n\}$  converge to 1, but  $\{c_n\}$  and  $\{d_n\}$  do not.

For a sequence to converge to 1 means first that values of the sequence should get close to 1. But that first demand can be made less rigorous: close to all or beyond a certain value. The values of the sequence  $a_n$  and  $b_n$  are close to 1, but  $c_n$  and  $d_n$  are not. While sequence  $d_n$  does not converge, this does not mean  $c_n$  does not converge. Sequence  $c_n$  does not converge at all, we say it diverges.

Here is the formal definition, which we first introduced in Section 1.5.

**Definition**

The sequence  $\{a_n\}$  is said to **converge** to  $L$ , and we write

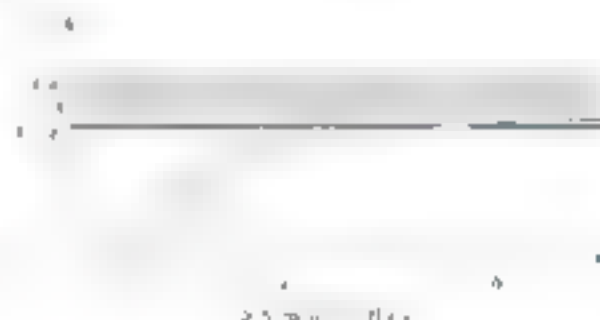
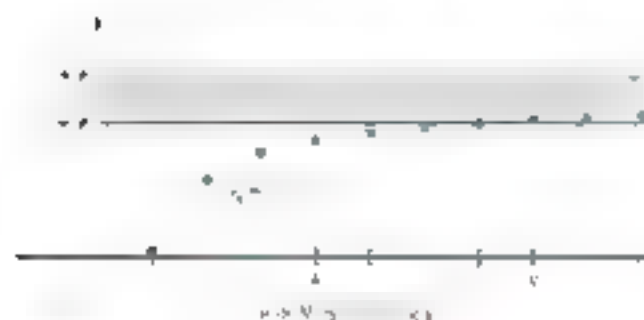
$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$$

if for each positive number  $\epsilon$  there is a corresponding positive number  $N$  such that

$$n > N \Rightarrow |a_n - L| < \epsilon$$

A sequence that fails to converge to any finite number  $L$  is said to **diverge**, or, be divergent.

To see a relationship with limits at infinity, Section 5.2, consider graphing  $a_n = 1 - 1/n$  and  $a(x) = 1 - 1/x$ . The only difference is that in the sequence case the domain is restricted to the positive integers. In the first case we write  $a(1) = 0$  in the second  $a(x) = 0$ . Note the correspondence of the two  $N$ 's in the diagram in Figure 2.



**EXAMPLE 1** Show that if  $p$  is a positive integer then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n^p} = 0$$

**SOLUTION** This is almost obvious from earlier work, but we can give a formal demonstration. Let an arbitrary  $\epsilon > 0$  be given. Choose  $N$  to be any number greater than  $(1/\epsilon)^{1/p}$ . Then  $n > N$  implies that

$$|a_n - 0| = \frac{1}{n^p} < \frac{1}{n} < \frac{1}{N} < \frac{1}{(1/\epsilon)^{1/p}} = \epsilon$$

All the familiar limit theorems hold for convergent sequences. We state them without proof.

**Theorem 9.1** Properties of Limits of Sequences

Let  $\{a_n\}$  and  $\{b_n\}$  be convergent sequences and  $k$  a constant. Then

- $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} ka_n = k$
- $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} ka_n = k$  for all  $a_n$
- $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$  and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = M \Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n b_n = LM$
- $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$  and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = M \Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = \frac{L}{M}$  provided that  $M \neq 0$

**EXAMPLE 2** Find  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3n}{n^2 + 1}$ .

**SOLUTION** To decide what is happening as  $n$  approaches  $\infty$ , we multiply both  $n$  and  $n^2 + 1$  by  $1/n^2$ . If  $n$  gets large, it is wise to divide the numerator and denominator by the largest power of  $n$  that occurs in the denominator. This justifies our first step below. The others are justified by appealing to statements about the limit as indicated by the circled numbers.

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3n}{n^2 + 1} &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3}{n + 1/n} \\ &\stackrel{(1)}{=} \frac{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 3}{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (n + 1/n)} \\ &\stackrel{(2)}{=} \frac{3}{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n + \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 1/n} \\ &\stackrel{(3)}{=} \frac{3}{\infty + 0} = 0.\end{aligned}$$

By this time, the limit theorems are so familiar that we will not state them explicitly. From the first step to the final result.

**EXAMPLE 3** Does the sequence  $\{(\ln n)/e^n\}$  converge and if so, to what number?

**SOLUTION** Here, and in many sequences problems, we are advised to use the following almost obvious fact (see Figure 2).

$$\text{If } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(n) = L \text{ then } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(n)/n = 0.$$

This is convenient because we can apply L'Hôpital's Rule to the continuous variable problem. In particular, by L'Hôpital's Rule

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln n}{e^n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1/n}{e^n} = 0.$$

Thus

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln n}{e^n} = 0.$$

That is,  $\{(\ln n)/e^n\}$  converges to 0.

Here is another theorem that we have seen before in a slightly different guise (Theorem 4.3D).

**Theorem 9.1 Squeeze Theorem**

Suppose that  $\{a_n\}$  and  $\{c_n\}$  both converge to  $L$  and that  $a_n \leq b_n \leq c_n$  for  $n \geq N$  ( $N$  a fixed integer). Then  $\{b_n\}$  also converges to  $L$ .

**EXAMPLE 4** Show that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\cos^2 n}{n} = 0$ .

**SOLUTION** For  $n \geq 1$ ,  $-1 \leq \cos n \leq 1$  and  $-1/n \leq \cos^2 n/n \leq 1/n$ . Since  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 1/n = 0$  and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} -1/n = 0$ , the result follows by the Squeeze Theorem.

In Chapter 4, we showed using L'Hôpital's Rule that  $e^x$  grows faster than any power of  $x$  and  $\ln x$  grows slower than any power of  $x$ . Thus we would expect that  $\ln x/x^n$  and  $1/(x^n \ln x)$  both go to 0.

For sequences of variable sign, it is helpful to have the following result.

### Theorem C

If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_n| = 0$ , then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$ .

**Proof** Since  $-|a_n| \leq a_n \leq |a_n|$ , the result follows from the Squeeze Theorem. ■

What happens to the numbers in the sequence  $\{0.999^n\}$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ? We suggest that you calculate  $0.999^n$  for  $n = 10, 20, 30, \dots$  and  $\dots 00$  in your calculator, to make a good guess. Then note the following example.

**EXAMPLE 5** Show that if  $-1 < r < 1$  then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} r^n = 0$ .

**SOLUTION** If  $r = 0$ , the result is obvious. We suppose otherwise. Then  $0 < 1 - r < 1 + r$  for some number  $p = 1 - r > 0$ . By the Binomial Formula

$$\frac{1}{r^{1/p}} = (1 + p)^n = 1 + pn + (\text{positive terms}) \geq pn$$

Thus

$$0 < |r| = \frac{1}{r^{1/p}} \leq \frac{1}{pn}$$

Since  $pn \rightarrow \infty$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , it follows from the Squeeze Theorem that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} r^{1/p} = 0$ . For equivalent  $n$ ,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} r^n = 0$ . ■

What if  $r > 1$ , for example  $r = 1.5$ ? Then  $r^n$  will march off toward  $\infty$ . In this case, we write

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} r^n = \infty, \quad r > 1$$

However, we say that the sequence  $\{r^n\}$  does not converge. A sequence that approaches a finite limit. The sequence  $\{r^n\}$  also diverges when  $r \leq -1$ .

If  $a_1 \leq a_2 \leq a_3 \leq \dots$ , a sequence is called a **nondecreasing sequence**  $\{a_n\}$ , by which we mean  $a_n \leq a_{n+1}$ . One example is the sequence  $\{n^2\}$ , another is  $\{1/n\}$ . If you know about it,  $a_n = n^2$  may describe itself, but such a sequence can do one of only two things. Either it approaches  $\infty$  (in which case it cannot do that because it is bounded above) or it approaches a limit (see Figure 3). Here is the formal statement of this very important result.

### Theorem D Monotonic Sequence Theorem

If  $L$  is an upper bound for a nondecreasing sequence  $\{a_n\}$ , then the sequence converges to a limit  $A$  that is less than or equal to  $L$ . Similarly, if  $L$  is a lower bound for a nonincreasing sequence  $\{a_n\}$ , then the sequence converges to a limit  $B$  that is greater than or equal to  $L$ .

The expression **monotonic sequence** is used to describe either a nondecreasing or nonincreasing sequence; hence the name for this theorem.

Theorem D describes a very deep property of the real number system. It is equivalent to the *completeness property* of the real numbers, which in simple language says that the real line has no holes in it (see Problems 47 and 48). It is this property that distinguishes the real number line from the rational number line (which is full of holes). A great deal more could be said about this, but we hope Theorem D appeals to your intuition and that you will accept it on faith now; you will use a more advanced course.

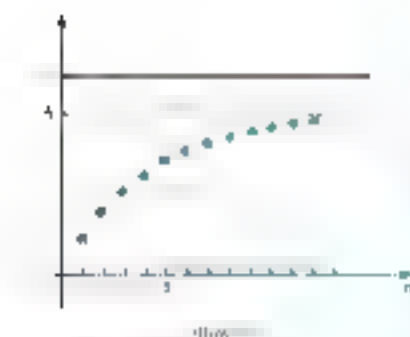


FIGURE 3

We make one more comment about Theorem D. It is not necessary that the sequences  $\{a_n\}$  and  $\{b_n\}$  be monotonic initially, only that they be monotonic from some point on, that is, for  $n \geq N$ . In fact, the convergence or divergence of a sequence does not depend on the character of the initial terms, but rather on what is true for large  $n$ .

**EXAMPLE 6** Show that the sequence  $b_n = n^3/2^n$  converges by using Theorem D.

**SOLUTION** The first few terms of this sequence are

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} 1 & 9 & 27 & 9 & 49 & & \\ n & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 \end{array}$$

For  $n \geq 5$  the sequence appears to be decreasing. In fact, we now establish. Each of the following inequalities is equivalent to the others:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{b_n}{b_{n+1}} &= \frac{n^3/2^n}{(n+1)^3/2^{n+1}} \\ &= \frac{n^3}{(n+1)^3} \cdot \frac{2^{n+1}}{2^n} \\ &= \frac{2n^3}{(n+1)^3} \\ &= \frac{2n^3}{n^3 + 3n^2 + 3n + 1} \\ &= \frac{2n^3}{n^3 + 3n^2 + 3n + 1} \end{aligned}$$

The last inequality is clearly true for  $n \geq 5$ , since the sequence  $\{2n^3/(n^3 + 3n^2 + 3n + 1)\}$  is bounded above and below and, as is proved by using the Mean Value Theorem, Theorem 9.1.1, that it has a limit.

It would be only going a little farther to show that the limit is zero. ■

## Concepts Review

1. All convergent sequences  $\{a_n\}$  are  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \text{_____}$ .
2. We say the sequence  $\{a_n\}$  converges if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \text{_____}$ .
3. An increasing sequence  $\{a_n\}$  is  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \text{_____}$  if and only if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \text{_____}$ .
4. The sequence  $\{n^k\}$  converges if and only if  $k < \text{_____}$ .

## Problem Set 9.1

In Problems 1–20, we express formulas for  $a_n$  in words. Write the first six terms  $a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4, a_5, a_6$  of the sequence, and, if it can, give  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$ .

1.  $a_n = \frac{n}{n+1}$

2.  $a_n = \frac{n^2}{n+1}$

3.  $a_n = \frac{n+1}{n^2}$

4.  $a_n = \frac{n^2}{n+1}$

5.  $a_n = \frac{n}{n+1}$

6.  $a_n = \frac{n}{n+1}$

7.  $a_n = \frac{n}{n+1}$

8.  $a_n = \frac{n}{n+1}$

9.  $a_n = \frac{\cos n\pi}{n}$

10.  $a_n = e^{-n} \sin n$

11.  $a_n = \frac{n}{n+1}$

12.  $a_n = \frac{n}{n+1}$

13.  $a_n = \frac{n}{n+1}$

14.  $a_n = \frac{n}{n+1}$

15.  $a_n = \frac{n}{n+1}$

16.  $a_n = \frac{n}{n+1}$

17.  $a_n = \frac{n}{n+1}$

18.  $a_n = \frac{n}{n+1}$

19.  $a_n = \frac{n}{n+1}$

20.  $a_n = \frac{n}{n+1}$

Use Theorem 9.1.1.

In Problems 21–24, we give an open interval  $I$ . For each sequence, determine whether the sequence converges or diverges, and if it converges, give its limit.

21.  $a_n = \frac{n}{n+1}$

22.  $a_n = \frac{n}{n+1}$

23.  $a_n = \frac{n}{n+1}$

24.  $a_n = \frac{n}{n+1}$

25.  $a_n = \frac{n}{n+1}$



$$26. \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n^2}$$

$$27. \sin 2 \sin \frac{1}{2}, 3 \sin \frac{1}{3}, 4 \sin \frac{1}{4}, \dots$$

$$28. \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n^2} = \frac{\pi^2}{12}$$

$$29. \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n^2} = \frac{\pi^2}{12}$$

$$30. 1 - \frac{1}{2^2} + \frac{1}{3^2} - \frac{1}{4^2} + \dots$$

In Problems 31–36, write the first four terms of the sequence  $\{a_n\}$  then use Theorem 3 to show that the sequence converges.

$$31. a_n = \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n^2}$$

$$32. a_n = \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n^2}$$

$$33. a_n = \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n^2}$$

$$34. a_n = \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n^2}$$

$$35. a_n = \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n^2}$$

$$36. a_n = \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n^2}$$

37. Assuming that  $a_1 = \sqrt{3}$  and  $a_{n+1} = \sqrt{3 + a_n}$  determine a convergent sequence. Find  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$  to four decimal places.

38. Show that  $\{a_n\}$  of Problem 37 is bounded above and increasing. Conclude from Theorem D that  $\{a_n\}$  converges. Hint: Use the inductive principle.

39. Find  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$  of Problem 37 algebraically. Hint: Let  $L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$ . Then, since  $a_{n+1} = \sqrt{3 + a_n}$ ,  $L = \sqrt{3 + L}$ . Now square both sides and solve for  $L$ .

40. Use the technique of Problem 39 to find  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$  of Problem 38.

41. Assuming that  $a_1 = 0$  and  $a_{n+1} = 1.3^n$  determine a convergent sequence. Find  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$  to four decimal places.

42. Show that  $\{a_n\}$  of Problem 41 is increasing and bounded above by 2.

43. Plug

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n \left( \frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{n+1} \right)$$

into Wolfram and evaluate definite integral

44. Show that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{n^2} = \frac{1}{n} = \frac{1}{2}$$

45. Using the definition of limit prove that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0$ . That is, for a given  $\epsilon > 0$ , find  $N$  such that  $n > N \Rightarrow 0 < \frac{1}{n} < \epsilon$ .

46. As in Problem 45, prove that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n^2} = 0$ .

47. For  $x = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$ , a number that is irrational, you will find that  $\{a_n\}$  does not have a limit. However, the formula  $a_n = \frac{1}{n}$  does have a limit. In fact, a number between 0 and 1, the sequence of rational numbers  $1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{4}, \dots$  has no limit within the rational numbers.

EXERCISE 48. The completeness property of the real numbers says that for every set of real numbers that is bounded above there exists a real number that is a least upper bound for the set. This

property is usually taken as an axiom for the real numbers. Prove Theorem D using this property.

49. Prove that if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$  and  $\{b_n\}$  is bounded then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n b_n = L$ .

50. Prove that if  $\{a_n\}$  converges and  $\{b_n\}$  diverges then  $\{a_n + b_n\}$  diverges.

51. If  $\{a_n\}$  and  $\{b_n\}$  both diverge, does it follow that  $\{a_n + b_n\}$  diverges?

EXERCISE 52. A Lucas sequence  $\{f_n\}$ , called the **Fibonacci sequence** after Leonardo Fibonacci, who introduced it around 1190, is defined by the recursion formula

$$f_{n+2} = f_{n+1} + f_n$$

with  $f_1 = 1$  and  $f_2 = 1$ .

(b) Let  $\phi = \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2} \approx 1.618$ . The Greeks called this number the *golden ratio*, claiming that a rectangle whose dimensions were in this ratio was “perfect.” It can be shown that

$$f_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left[ \left( \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2} \right)^n - \left( \frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2} \right)^n \right]$$

$$\phi = \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}$$

$$\phi = \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}$$

Check that this gives the right result for  $n = 1$  and  $n = 2$ . The general result can be proved by induction (it is a nice challenge). More in line with this section, use this explicit formula to prove that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f_{n+1}}{f_n} = \phi$ .

(c) Using the three just proved, show that  $\phi$  satisfies the equation  $x^2 = x + 1$ . Then, using the quadratic formula, use the Quadratic Formula to show that the two roots of this equation are  $\phi$  and  $-\frac{1}{\phi}$ . (Two numbers that occur in the explicit formula for  $f_n$ .)

53. Consider an equilateral triangle containing  $1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + n = n(n+1)/2$  circles, each of diameter 1 and stacked as indicated in Figure 4 for the case  $n = 5$ . Find  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{A_n}{H_n}$  where  $A_n$  is the total area of the circles and  $H_n$  is the area of the triangle.



In Problem 54, we use the fact that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0$  to find the limit.

$$54. \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{n} \right)^n$$

$$55. \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{2n} \right)^n$$

$$56. \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{n} \right)^{2n}$$

$$57. \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{n} \right)^{n^2}$$



We make the following formal definition.

### Definition

The infinite series  $\sum a_n$  **converges** and has **sum**  $S$  or the **sequence** of partial sums  $\{S_n\}$  converges to  $S$  if  $\{a_n\}$  **converges**; **otherwise** the series **diverges**. A **divergent** series has no sum.

**Geometric Series** A series of the form

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} ar^{k-1} = a + ar + ar^2 + \cdots + ar^{n-1} + \cdots$$

where  $a \neq 0$ , is called a **geometric series**.

**EXAMPLE 1** Show that a geometric series converges, and has sum  $S = a/(1 - r)$  if  $|r| < 1$  but diverges if  $|r| \geq 1$ .

**SOLUTION** Let  $S_n = a + ar + ar^2 + \cdots + ar^{n-1}$ . If  $r = 1$ ,  $S_n = nr$ , which grows without bound, and so  $\{S_n\}$  diverges. If  $r \neq 1$ , we may write

$$S_n - rS_n = (a + ar + \cdots + ar^{n-1}) - (ar + ar^2 + \cdots + ar^n) = a - ar^n$$

and so

$$S_n = \frac{a - ar^n}{1 - r} = \frac{a}{1 - r} - \frac{ar^n}{1 - r}.$$

If  $|r| < 1$  then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} r^n = 0$  (Section 9.1), so  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n = \frac{a}{1 - r}$  and so

$$S = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n = \frac{a}{1 - r}.$$

If  $|r| \geq 1$ ,  $|ar^n| \geq |a|$ . The sequence  $\{ar^n\}$  diverges and, hence, the sequence  $\{S_n\}$  **diverges**. ■

**EXAMPLE 2** Use the result of Example 1 to find the sum of the following two geometric series.

(a)  $\frac{1}{3} + \frac{2}{9} + \frac{1}{27} + \frac{1}{81} + \cdots$

(b)  $1 + (-1)^n$   $\frac{51}{100}$   $\frac{51}{10,000}$   $\frac{51}{1,000,000}$

**SOLUTION** (a)

(a)  $S = \frac{a}{1 - r} = \frac{\frac{1}{3}}{1 - \frac{2}{3}} = \frac{\frac{1}{3}}{\frac{1}{3}} = 1$  (b)  $S = \frac{a}{1 - r} = \frac{\frac{51}{100}}{1 - \frac{51}{100}} = \frac{\frac{51}{100}}{\frac{49}{100}} = \frac{51}{49}$

Interestingly, the procedure in part (b) suggests how to show that any repeating decimal represents a rational number. ■

**EXAMPLE 3** The diagram in Figure 1 represents an equilateral triangle containing infinitely many circles tangent to the triangle and neighboring circles and touching at the corners. What fraction of the area of the triangle is occupied by the circles?

**SOLUTION** Suppose for convenience that the large circle has radius 1, which makes the triangle have sides of length  $2\sqrt{3}$ . Consideration of the various sizes of circles, with a bit of geometric reasoning, will show that the center of the large circle is



Figure 1

two-thirds of the way from the upper vertex to the base, we see that the radii of these circles are  $1 - \frac{1}{3} = \frac{2}{3}$  and conclude that the vertical stack has area

$$A = 1 + \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^4 + \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^6 + \cdots = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^{2k} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{4}{9}\right)^k = \frac{1}{1 - 4/9} = \frac{9}{5}.$$

The total area of all the circles is three times this number in fact, since the area of the big circle that circumscribes the triangle is  $\pi$  or  $\frac{9}{4}\pi$ . Since the triangle has area  $\frac{\sqrt{3}}{4}$ , the fraction of this area occupied by the circles is

$$\frac{11\pi}{24\sqrt{3}} \approx 0.83.$$

**EXAMPLE 4** Suppose that Peter and Paul take turns tossing a fair coin until one of them crosses a head. If Peter starts first, what is the probability that he wins?

**SOLUTION** Peter can win by tossing a head on the first toss, which happens with probability  $\frac{1}{2}$ . Or he can wait until these three events happen in succession: Peter tosses a tail, Paul tosses a tail, and Peter tosses a head. Each of these events has probability  $\frac{1}{2}$ , so the probability of this sequence of events is  $\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^3$ . Another way for Peter to win is for the first four tosses to be tails, while Paul wins on the fifth. The overall probability that Peter wins is  $\frac{1}{2} + \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^3 + \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^5 + \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^7 + \cdots$ . This geometric series converges, so that the probability that Peter wins is the sum of the geometric series

$$\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{32} + \cdots = \frac{1/2}{1 - 1/4} = \frac{2}{3}.$$

Paul therefore wins with probability  $1 - \frac{2}{3} = \frac{1}{3}$ . Peter has the greater chance of winning because he goes first.  $\blacksquare$

### Logic

Consider these two statements:

$$1. \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \text{ converges, then}$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0.$$

2. If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$ , then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges.

The first statement is true for any sequence  $\{a_n\}$ ; the second is not. This provides another example of an **if-then** statement: the first statement **implies** the second.

Recall that the **contrapositive** of a statement is true whenever the statement is true. The contrapositive of the first statement is

3. If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \neq 0$ , then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  diverges.

**A General Test for Divergence** Consider the geometric series  $x + ax + ax^2 + \cdots + ax^{n-1} + \cdots$  once more. Its  $n$ th term  $a_n$  is given by  $a_n = ax^{n-1}$ . Example 4 shows that a geometric series converges **iff**  $|x| < 1$  and  $a_1 \neq 0$ .

Could this possibly be true of all series? The answer is no, although half of the statement is only true for geometric series. This leads to an important **divergence test** for series:

### THEOREM 9.2.1 nth-Term Test for Divergence

If the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges, then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$ . Equivalently, if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \neq 0$  or  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$  does not exist, then the series diverges.

**Proof** Let  $S_n$  be the  $n$ th partial sum and  $S = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n$ . Note that  $a_n = S_n - S_{n-1}$ . Since  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_{n-1} = S$ , it follows that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n - \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_{n-1} = S - S = 0.$$

**EXAMPLE 5** Show that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^2}{n^3 + 1}$  diverges.

## SOLUTION

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n}{2n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2} \neq 0$$

Thus, by the  $n$ th-Term Test, the series diverges.  $\blacksquare$

**CAUTION** Students invariably want to turn Theorem 4 around and make it say that if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$  implies convergence of  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ , the harmonic series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n} = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \cdots$$

shows that this is false. Clearly  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0$ . However, the series diverges, as we now show.

**EXAMPLE 4** Show that the harmonic series diverges.

**SOLUTION** We show that  $S_n$  grows without bound. Imagine  $n = 16$ , for instance, with

$$\begin{aligned} S_n &= 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{5} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{7} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{9} + \frac{1}{10} + \frac{1}{11} + \frac{1}{12} + \frac{1}{13} + \frac{1}{14} + \frac{1}{15} + \frac{1}{16} \\ &= \left( 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} \right) + \left( \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{12} \right) + \left( \frac{1}{5} + \frac{1}{10} + \frac{1}{15} \right) + \left( \frac{1}{7} + \frac{1}{14} + \frac{1}{21} \right) + \left( \frac{1}{9} + \frac{1}{18} + \frac{1}{27} \right) + \left( \frac{1}{11} + \frac{1}{22} + \frac{1}{33} \right) \\ &\quad + \left( \frac{1}{13} + \frac{1}{26} + \frac{1}{39} \right) + \left( \frac{1}{15} + \frac{1}{30} + \frac{1}{45} \right) + \frac{1}{16} \\ &\approx 1.68 + 0.5 + 0.47 + 0.41 + 0.37 + 0.33 + 0.3 + 0.25 \\ &\approx 4.33 \end{aligned}$$

It is clear that by taking  $n$  sufficiently large we can make  $S_n$  as large as we like. In this expression, we made this  $S_n$  grow by grouping  $n = 16$  terms. Hence, the harmonic series diverges.  $\blacksquare$

**EXAMPLE 5** A geometric series is one of the few series where we can actually write an explicit formula for  $S_n$ . A **collapsing series** is another type. (Example 2 of Section 9.1.)

**EXAMPLE 6** Show that the following series converges and find its sum.

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2 + k}$$

**SOLUTION**  $\frac{1}{k^2 + k}$  is a partial fraction decomposition so we get

$$\frac{1}{k(k+1)} = \frac{1}{k} - \frac{1}{k+1}$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} S_n &= \sum_{k=1}^n \left( \frac{1}{k} - \frac{1}{k+1} \right) = \left( \frac{1}{1} - \frac{1}{2} \right) + \left( \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{3} \right) + \cdots + \left( \frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{n+1} \right) \\ &= 1 - \frac{1}{n+1} \end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n = 1$$

The series converges and has sum

**A Note on Terminology**

This theorem introduces a new bit of terminology. The symbol

$\sum a_n$  is now being used both for the infinite series  $a_1 + a_2 + \cdots$  and for the sum of this series, which is a number.

For problems 1–10,  $\sum a_n$  is a convergent series. Convergence series behave much like finite sums, what you expect to be true often is true.

**Theorem 9.2** Linearity of Convergent Series

If  $\sum a_n$  and  $\sum b_n$  both converge, and if  $c$  is a constant, then  $\sum ca_n$  and  $\sum (a_n + b_n)$  also converge, and

$$(i) \sum ca_n = c \sum a_n$$

$$(ii) \sum (a_n + b_n) = \sum a_n + \sum b_n$$

**Proof** By hypothesis, let  $\sum a_n$  and  $\sum b_n$  both converge. Now, use the principle that it may with limits to manipulate and the properties of limits to prove each.

$$(i) \sum ca_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n ca_k = c \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n a_k$$

$$= c \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n a_k = c \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$$

$$(ii) \sum (a_n + b_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum (a_k + b_k) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( \sum_{k=1}^n a_k + \sum_{k=1}^n b_k \right) \\ = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n a_k + \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n b_k = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} b_k$$

**EXAMPLE 1** Evaluate the series  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2}$ .

**SOLUTION** By Theorems 9.1 and 9.2(ii),

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left( \frac{1}{k^2} \right)^2 = \left( \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2} \right)^2 = \left( \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2} \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^4} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2} = \frac{1}{2}$$

**Theorem 9.3**

If  $\sum a_n$  diverges and  $c \neq 0$ , then  $\sum ca_n$  diverges.

We leave the proof of this theorem to you (Problem 41). It implies, for example, that

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k} \cdot 1$$

diverges, since we know that the harmonic series diverges.

The associative law of addition allows us to group terms in a finite sum in any way that we please. For example,

$$1 + 2 + 3 + 4 + 5 = (1 + 2) + (3 + 4) + 5 = 4 + 5 + 5 = 14 = 1 + 2 + 3 + 4 + 5$$

But sometimes we lose sight of the definition of an *infinite* series as the limit of a sequence of partial sums, and we let our intuition guide us into a paradox. For example, the series

$$1 - 1 + 1 - 1 + \cdots$$

has partial sums

$$\begin{aligned} S_1 &= 1 \\ S_2 &= 1 - 1 = 0 \\ S_3 &= 1 - 1 + 1 = 1 \\ S_4 &= 1 - 1 + 1 - 1 = 0 \end{aligned}$$

The sequence of partial sums,  $1, 0, 1, 0, \dots$ , diverges, thus the series  $1 - 1 + 1 - 1 + \cdots$  diverges. We might, however, view the series as

$$(1 - 1) + (1 - 1) + \cdots$$

and claim that the sum is 0. Alternatively, we might view the series as

$$1 +$$

and claim that the sum is 1. The sum of the series cannot be 0 or 1 or both. But given our interpretation of terms in a series is correct, the problem is that the series is *divergent*. In such a case we can't group terms in any way that we wish.

### Theorem D Grouping Terms in an Infinite Series

The terms of a convergent series can be grouped in any way provided the order of the terms is maintained, and the new series will converge with the same sum as the original series.

**Proof** Let  $\sum a_n$  be the original convergent series and let  $\{S_n\}$  be its sequence of partial sums. If  $\sum b_n$  is a series formed by grouping the terms  $a_n$  in the  $m$ th  $b_n$  is a sequence of partial sums then each  $T_n$  is one of the  $b_n$ 's and the  $T_n$  might be

$$T_1 = a_1, \quad T_2 = (a_2 + a_3), \quad T_3 = (a_4 + a_5 + a_6), \quad T_4 = (a_7 + a_8)$$

in which case  $T_4 = 0$ . Thus  $\{T_n\}$  is a subsequence  $\{a_{k_n}\}$  of  $\{a_n\}$  chosen with care should convince you that if  $S_n \rightarrow S$  then  $T_n \rightarrow S$ . ■

## Concepts Review

1. An expression of the form  $a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + \cdots$  is called a **series**.
2. A series  $a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + \cdots$  is said to converge if the sequence  $S_n$  converges where  $S_n =$
3. The geometric series  $a + ar + ar^2 + \cdots$  converges if  $|r| < 1$ . In this case the sum of the series is
4. If  $|r| = 1$ , we can be sure that the series  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} ar^n$

# Problem Set 9.2

In Problems 1–14, indicate whether the given series converges or diverges. If it converges, find its sum. (Note that the first four series can be written in a few terms of the series.)

1.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 2^n$
2.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$
3.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$
4.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^3}$
5.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^4}$
6.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^5}$
7.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^6}$
8.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^7}$
9.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^8}$
10.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^9}$
11.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{10}}$
12.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{11}}$
13.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{12}}$
14.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{13}}$

In Problems 15–24, find the exact sum of each series. Write the sum in the form  $\frac{a}{b}$ , where  $a$  and  $b$  are integers and the fraction is in the simplest form of ratio of two integers (see Example 2).

15.  $0.222222$
16.  $0.212121$
17.  $0.111111$
18.  $0.121212$
19.  $0.499999$
20.  $0.101010$

21. Evaluate  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n}$ .

22. Evaluate  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{3^n}$ .

23. Show that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \ln \frac{n}{n+1}$  diverges. How? Obtain a formula for  $S_n$ .

24. Show that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \ln \left( 1 + \frac{1}{n^2} \right) = \ln 2$ .

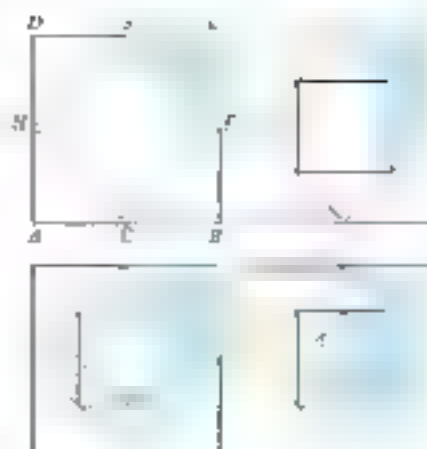
25. A ball is dropped from a height of 100 feet. Each time it hits the floor, it rebounds to  $\frac{1}{4}$  its previous height. Find the total distance it travels before coming to rest.

26. Three people, A, B, and C, divide an apple as follows: First, A takes  $\frac{1}{3}$  of the apple. Then, B takes  $\frac{1}{4}$  of the remainder. Finally, C takes the entire remainder. How much of the apple does each person get?

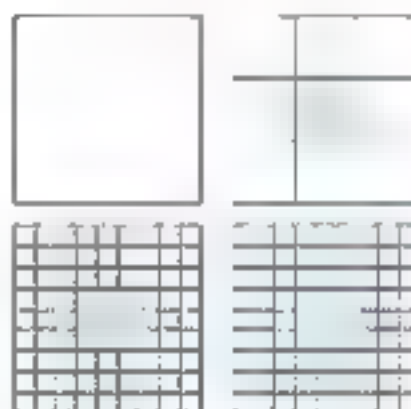
27. Suppose that the government pumps an extra \$5 billion into the economy. Assume that each business and individual saves 25% of its income and spends the rest, so of the initial \$5 billion, 75% is spent by individuals and businesses. Of that amount, 90% is spent and so forth. What is the total increase in spending due to the government action? (This is called the *multiplier effect* in economics.)

28. Do Problem 27 assuming that only 10% of the income is saved in each step.

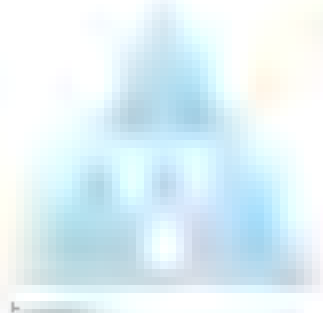
29. Assume that square  $ABCD$  (Figure 2) has sides of length 1 unit. Let  $E$ ,  $F$ ,  $G$ , and  $H$  are the midpoints of the sides. If the indicated pattern is continued indefinitely, what will be the area of the painted region?



30. If the pattern shown in Figure 3 is continued indefinitely, what fraction of the original square will eventually be painted?



31. Each triangle in the descending chain (Figure 4) has its vertices at the midpoints of the sides of the triangle that it is inscribed in. If the indicated pattern of painting is continued indefinitely, what fraction of the original triangle will be painted? Does the original triangle need to be equilateral for this to be true?



32. Circles are inscribed in the triangles of Problem 31 as indicated in Figure 5. If the original triangle is equilateral, what fraction of the area is eventually painted?



33. The Koch snowflake is formed as follows. Begin with an equilateral triangle which we'll assume has sides of length 3. On each side, replace the middle third with two sides of an equilateral triangle having sides of length 1. Then on each of these 12 sides replace the middle third with two sides of an equilateral triangle having sides of length 1. The Koch snowflake is the result of continuing this process indefinitely. The first four stages are shown in Figure 6.

- Find the perimeter of the Koch snowflake or show that it is infinite.
- Find the area of the Koch snowflake or show that it is infinite.

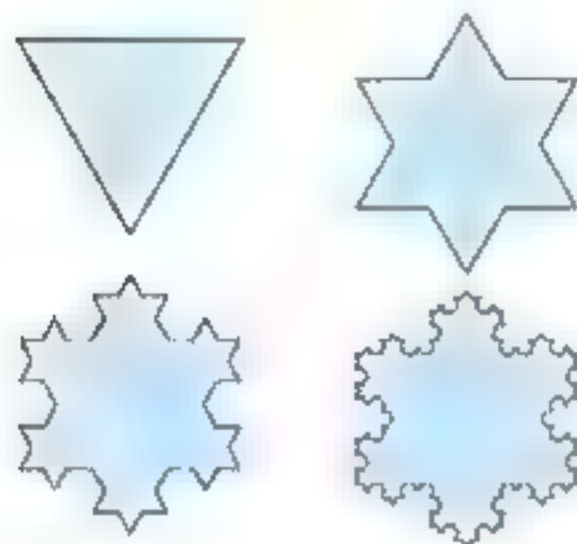


Figure 6

34. Consider the right triangle  $ABC$  as shown in Figure 7. Point  $A_1$  is determined by drawing a perpendicular to line  $AB$  through  $C$ .  $B_1$  is formed by drawing a line parallel to  $AC$  through  $A$ . This process is continued to produce  $A_2, A_3, \dots$  and  $B_2, B_3, \dots$ . Find a formula for the areas of the triangles formed in this way and show that the series sums to the area of  $\triangle ABC$ .



Figure 7

35. is one version of Zeno's paradox. Achilles can run ten times as fast as the tortoise, but the tortoise has a 100-yard head start. Achilles cannot catch the tortoise, says Zeno, because when Achilles runs 100 yards the tortoise will have moved 10 yards ahead, when Achilles runs another 10 yards, the tortoise will have moved 1 yard ahead, and so on. Convince Zeno that Achilles will catch the tortoise and tell him exactly how many yards Achilles will have to run to do it.

36. Tom and Joel are good runners, both able to run at a constant speed of 10 miles per hour. Their amazing dog, Trix, can do even better: he runs at 20 miles per hour. Starting 100 meters (1000 feet) apart, Tom and Joel run toward each other while Trix runs back and forth between them. How far does Trix run by the time the dogs meet? Assume that Trix started with 'her' running toward Joel and that he is able to turn her instant turnarounds. Solve the problem two ways.

- Use a geometric series.
- Find a shorter way to do the problem.

37. Suppose that Pete and Paul alternate flipping a coin in which the probability of a head is  $\frac{1}{3}$  and the probability of a tail is  $\frac{2}{3}$ . If they stop until someone gets a head, and Peter goes first, what is the probability that Peter wins?

38. Repeat Problem 37 for the case where the probability of a head is  $p$  and the probability of a tail is  $1 - p$ .

39. Suppose that Mary rolls a fair die until a "6" occurs. Let  $N$  denote the random variable that is the number of times needed for this "6" to occur. Find the probability distribution for  $N$  and verify that all the probabilities sum to 1.

40. Use the fact that

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} e^{-n} = \frac{1}{1 - e^{-1}}$$

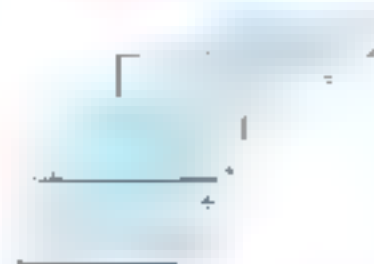
(which we will derive in Section 9.7) to find the expected value of the random variable  $N$  in Problem 39.

41. Prove if  $\sum a_n$  diverges, so does  $\sum ca_n$  for  $c \neq 0$ .

42. Use Problem 41 to conclude that  $\frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{9} + \frac{1}{27} = \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{9} + \frac{1}{27} + \dots$ .

43. Suppose that one has an unlimited supply of identical blocks each 1 unit long.

- Show that they may be stacked as in Figure 8 without toppling. Hint: Consider centers of mass.
- How far can one stack the top block's front edge to the right of the bottom block using this method of stacking?



44. How large must  $N$  be in order for  $S_N = \sum_{n=1}^N \frac{1}{n^2}$  to exceed 4? Hint: Computer calculations show that for  $S_N$  to exceed 20,  $N = 272,800,661$ , and for  $S_N$  to exceed 100,  $N = 5,034,753,600$ .

45. Prove that if  $\sum a_n$  diverges and  $\sum b_n$  converges, then  $\sum (a_n + b_n)$  diverges.

46. Show that it is possible for  $\sum a_n$  and  $\sum b_n$  both to diverge and yet for  $\sum (a_n + b_n)$  to converge.

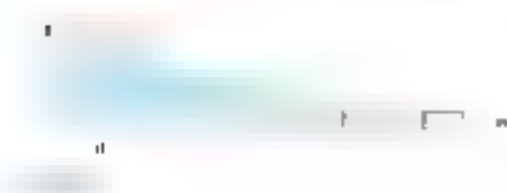
47. By looking at the region in Figure 4 first vertically and then horizontally, conclude that

$$1 + \frac{1}{2^n} + \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} + \frac{1}{2^{n+2}} + \cdots = \frac{1}{2^{n-1}}.$$

and use this to calculate

(b)  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n}$

(c)  $\frac{1}{2}$  by (horizontal) summation of the general of the region



48. Let  $r$  be a fixed number with  $|r| < 1$ . Then it can be shown that  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} r^n$  converges with sum  $\frac{1}{1-r}$ . The comparison in  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} r^n$  shows that

$$(1-r)S = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} r^n$$

and then obtain a formula for  $S$  thus generalizing Problem 47a.

49. Many drugs are eliminated from the body in an exponential manner. Thus if a drug is given in dosages of size  $C$  at time

intervals of length  $\tau$ , the amount  $q_n$  of the drug in the body just after the  $n$ th dose is

$$q_n = C(1 - e^{-k\tau}) + C e^{-k\tau} + C e^{-2k\tau} + \cdots + C e^{-nk\tau}$$

where  $k$  is a positive constant that depends on the type of drug.

(a) Derive a formula for  $A$ , the amount of drug in the body just after dose  $n$  has been received, in terms of  $C$ ,  $\tau$ , and  $k$ .

(b) Evaluate  $A$  if it is known that one-half of a dose is eliminated from the body in 6 hours and doses of size 2 milligrams are given every 6 hours.

50. Find a formula for the series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left( \frac{1}{2^n} - \frac{1}{4^n} \right)$$

51. Show that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$  converges where  $\frac{1}{n^2}$  is the  $n$ th term of the sequence introduced in Problem 44 of Section 9.1. (Hint: Use a double integral.)

52.

53. Find a formula for the sum of the series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left( \frac{1}{n^2} - \frac{1}{(n+1)^2} \right)$$

## Positive Series: The Integral Test

Let  $a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots$  be a sequence of positive numbers. The series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  is said to converge if and only if the sequence of partial sums  $S_n = a_1 + a_2 + \cdots + a_n$  converges to a finite limit  $S$ . The series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  is said to diverge if the sequence of partial sums  $S_n$  does not converge to a finite limit.

We introduced some important ideas in Section 9.1, but we did not give them names. For the very special type of series given by  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^p}$ , we gave them names. In this section, we will give names to the partial sums  $S_n$  and the limit  $S$ . We will also give names to the terms  $a_n$  of the series. The first question is: What is the sum of the series? The second question is: What is the limit of the sequence of partial sums?

There are always two important questions to ask about a series.

1. Does the series converge?
2. If it converges, what is its sum?

How shall we answer these questions? Someone may suggest that we use a computer. To answer the first question, which is and is not a more general one, we can use the computer to get us partial sums  $S_n$ . These numbers seem to be approaching a limit, and the series converges. And, in the case  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$ , the sum of the series is  $\frac{\pi^2}{6}$ . The second question is: What is the limit of the sequence of partial sums? The answer is that the computer can only give us a partial answer.

Consider the harmonic series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$$

introduced in Section 9.1 and discussed in Example 1 and Problem 44 of this section. We know that the series diverges, but we did not know it at the time. The partial sums  $S_n$  of this series grow without bound, but they grow so slowly that it takes over 272 million terms for  $S_n$  to reach 20 and over  $10^{10}$  terms for  $S_n$  to reach 100. Because of the inherent limitation in the number of digits that it can handle, a computer would eventually give repeated values for  $S_n$ , suggesting wrongly that the  $S_n$ 's were converging. What is the limit for the harmonic series? True for any slowly diverging series. We will use a computer only as a guide to help us with mathematical tests of convergence and divergence, a subject to which we now turn.

In this and the next section, we restrict our attention to series with positive (or at least nonnegative) terms. With this restriction, we will be able to give some remarkably simple convergence tests for series with a nonnegative term. They are presented in Section 9.3.

**Monotone Convergence Theorem** (The first result flows directly from the Monotone Sequence Theorem (Theorem 9.1D))

### Theorem 9.3B Bounded Sum Test

A series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  of nonnegative terms converges if and only if its partial sums  $S_n$  are bounded above.

**Proof** As usual let  $S_n = a_1 + a_2 + \cdots + a_n$ . Since  $a_n \geq 0$ ,  $S_{n+1} \geq S_n$ ; that is,  $\{S_n\}$  is a nondecreasing sequence. Thus by Theorem 9.1D, the sequence  $\{S_n\}$  converges provided that there is a number  $L$  such that  $S_n \leq L$  for all  $n$ . Otherwise, the  $S_n$  will grow without bound in which case  $\{S_n\}$  diverges. ■

**EXAMPLE 1** Show that the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n}$  converges.

**SOLUTION** We aim to show that the partial sums  $S_n$  are bounded above. Note first that

$$n! = 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdots n \geq 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 2 \cdots 2 = 2^{n-1}$$

and so  $1/n! \leq 1/2^{n-1}$ . Thus

$$\begin{aligned} S_n &= \frac{1}{1!} + \frac{1}{2!} + \frac{1}{3!} + \cdots + \frac{1}{n!} \\ &\leq 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} + \cdots + \frac{1}{2} \end{aligned}$$

These  $n$  terms come from a geometric series with  $r = 1/2$ . We can use directly a formula in the solution of Example 1 of Section 9.2. We obtain

$$S_n = \frac{1}{1 - 1/2} - \frac{1}{2^n} = 2 - \frac{1}{2^n} < 2$$

Thus by the Bounded Sum Test, the given series converges. The argument also shows that its sum  $S$  is at most 2. Later we will show that  $S = e - 1 \approx 1.71828$ . ■

**Comparison Test** The behavior of  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$  and  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} b_k$  with respect to convergence is similar and gives a very powerful test.

### Theorem 9.3C Integral Test

Let  $f$  be a continuous positive nonincreasing function on the interval  $[1, \infty)$  and suppose that  $a_n = f(n)$  for all positive integers  $n$ . Then the infinite series

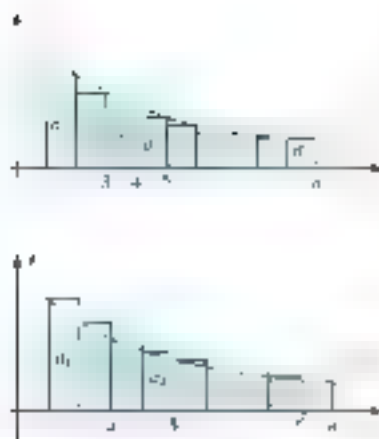
$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$$

converges if and only if the improper integral

$$\int_1^{\infty} f(x) dx$$

converges.

We remark that the integer 1 may be replaced by any positive integer  $M$  throughout this theorem (see Example 4).



**Proof** The diagrams in Figure 9.3.1 indicate how we may interpret the partial sums of the series  $\sum_{k=1}^n a_k$  as areas, and thereby relate the series to a corresponding integral. Note that the area of each rectangle is equal to its height, since the width is 1 in each case. From these diagrams, we easily see that

$$\sum_{k=1}^n a_k \leq \int_1^n f(x) \, dx \leq \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} a_k$$

Now suppose that  $\int_1^\infty f(x) \, dx$  converges. Then, by the left inequality above,

$$\sum_{k=1}^n a_k \leq \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} a_k + a_n \leq \int_1^n f(x) \, dx + a_n \leq \int_1^n f(x) \, dx + f(1)$$

Thus, due to the Bounded Sum Test,  $\sum_{k=1}^\infty a_k$  converges to  $s$ .

On the other hand, suppose that  $\sum_{k=1}^\infty a_k$  converges. Then, by the right inequality above, if  $t \leq n$ ,

$$\int_1^t f(x) \, dx = \int_1^n f(x) \, dx - \sum_{k=n+1}^t a_k \leq \sum_{k=1}^n a_k \leq \sum_{k=1}^\infty a_k = s$$

Since  $\int_1^t f(x) \, dx$  increases with  $t$  and is bounded above by  $s = \sum_{k=1}^\infty a_k$ , we conclude that  $\int_1^\infty f(x) \, dx$  converges. ■

The conclusion to Theorem 9.3 is also stated this way: The series  $\sum_{k=1}^\infty f(k)$  and the improper integral  $\int_1^\infty f(x) \, dx$  converge or diverge together. You should verify that this is equivalent to our statement.

### EXAMPLE 2 (p-Series Test) The series

$$\sum_{k=1}^\infty k^{-p} = 1 + \frac{1}{2^p} + \frac{1}{3^p} + \cdots$$

where  $p$  is a constant is called a **p-series**. Show each of the following.

- The  $p$ -series converges if  $p > 1$ .
- The  $p$ -series diverges if  $p \leq 1$ .

**SOLUTION** If  $p < 0$ , the function  $f(x) = x^{-p}$  is continuous, positive, and increasing on  $[1, \infty)$  and  $f(x) > 1/k$  for all  $k$ . Thus, by the integral test,  $\sum_{k=1}^\infty 1/k$

converges if and only if  $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int_1^t x^{-p} \, dx$  exists as a finite number.

If  $p < 0$ ,

$$\int_1^t x^{-p} \, dx = \left[ \frac{x^{1-p}}{1-p} \right]_1^t = \frac{t^{1-p}}{1-p} - \frac{1}{1-p}$$

If  $p > 0$ ,

$$\int_1^t x^{-p} \, dx = -\frac{1}{p} x^{-p+1} = -\frac{1}{p} t^{-p+1} + \frac{1}{p}$$

Since  $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} t^{1-p} = 0$  if  $p > 1$  and  $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} t^{-p+1} = \infty$  if  $p < 1$  and since  $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} t^{-p+1} = 1$  if  $p = 1$ , we conclude that the  $p$ -series converges if  $p > 1$  and diverges if  $0 \leq p \leq 1$ .

## The Tail of a Series

The beginning of a series plays no role in its convergence or divergence. Only the tail is important; the tail really does wag the dog! By the arithmetic series, we mean

$$u_N + u_{N+1} + u_{N+2} + \cdots$$

where  $N$  denotes an arbitrarily large number. Hence, in testing for convergence or divergence of a series, we can ignore the beginning terms or even change them. Clearly, however, the sum of a series does depend on all its terms, including the initial ones.

We still have the case  $p < 0$  to consider. In this case the  $n$ th term of  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} k^n$  (that is,  $k^n$ ) does not even tend toward 0. Thus, by the  $n$ th-Term Test, the series diverges.

Note that the case  $p = 1$  gives the harmonic series, which was treated in Section 9.2. Our results here and there are consistent. The harmonic series converges.

**EXAMPLE 1** Does  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2}$  converge or diverge?

**SOLUTION** By the  $p$ -Series Test,  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} 1/k^2$  converges. The insertion or removal of a finite number of terms in a series cannot affect its convergence or divergence, though it may affect its sum. Thus, the  $p$ -Series Test applies.

**EXAMPLE 2** Determine whether  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k \ln k$  converges or diverges.

**SOLUTION** The hypotheses of the Integral Test are satisfied for  $f(x) = x \ln x$  on  $[1, \infty)$ . That is, it is continuous, positive, and decreasing on  $[1, \infty)$  and  $f$  is integrable, as we noted right after Theorem 9.5. Now,

$$\int_1^{\infty} x \ln x \, dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int_1^t x \ln x \, dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{1}{2} x^2 \ln x - \frac{1}{4} x^2 \right) = \infty.$$

Thus  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k \ln k$  diverges.

As we have seen, the  $n$ th-Term Test is not useful for  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} 1/k^2$ . So far we have been concerned with whether a series converges or diverges, but up to now we have not asked what its sum is. In the case of a series, as in the case of a function, we have not addressed the question of why a series converges. For a series, the answer is that the partial sums  $S_n$  approach a limit. In this problem we can use the method suggested by the theorem on approximating the sum of a series.

If we use the  $n$ th partial sum  $S_n$  to approximate the sum of the series

$$S = a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + \cdots$$

then the error we make is

$$E = S - S_n = a_{n+1} + a_{n+2} + \cdots$$

Let  $f(x)$  be a function with the property that  $a_n = f(n)$ , that is,  $f$  is such that  $f(n) = a_n$  for  $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ . Then, under the conditions of Theorem 9.5,  $f$  has these properties:

$$E = a_{n+1} + a_{n+2} + \cdots = \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} f(k) \approx \int_{n+1}^{\infty} f(x) \, dx$$

(see Figure 2). We can use this result to find an upper bound on the error by using the first  $n$  terms to approximate the sum of the series and we can use it to determine how large  $n$  must be to approximate  $S$  to a desired accuracy.

**EXAMPLE 3** Find an upper bound for the error in using the sum of the first twenty terms to approximate the sum of the convergent series  $S = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2}$ .

**SOLUTION** The strong chance that  $f(x) = 1/x^2$  has a function is positive, continuous, and nonincreasing on  $[1, \infty)$ . The error satisfies

$$E = S - \sum_{k=1}^{20} \frac{1}{k^2} = \int_{21}^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2} \, dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \left( -\frac{1}{x} \right) \bigg|_{21}^t = \frac{1}{21} \approx \frac{1}{20} = 0.05.$$

Even with twenty terms, the error is somewhat large.

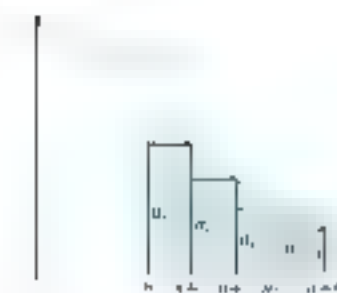


Figure 2

**EXAMPLE 6** How large must  $n$  be so that the partial sum  $S_n$  approximates the sum of the series in Example 5 with an error of no more than 0.005?

**SOLUTION** The error satisfies

$$|r_n| = \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2} = \int_n^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2} dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \left( -\frac{1}{x} \right) \bigg|_n^t = \frac{1}{n}.$$

Thus, in order to guarantee that the error is less than 0.005, we need to have

$$\frac{1}{n} < 0.005$$

$$\frac{1}{n} < 0.005$$

$$n > \left( \frac{1}{0.005} \right)^2 = 400^2 = 160,000$$

## Concepts & Review

1. A series  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$  of nonnegative terms converges if and only if  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} a_k = 0$ .
2. The Integral Test relates the convergence of  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$  and the convergence of  $\int_1^{\infty} f(x) dx$  if  $f$  is \_\_\_\_\_ and  $f$  is \_\_\_\_\_ and  $f(x) = a_x$ .
3. The insertion or removal of a finite number of terms in a series does not affect its \_\_\_\_\_, although it may affect its sum.
4. The series  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} 1/k^p$  converges if and only if \_\_\_\_\_.

## Problem Set 9.3

Use the Integral Test to determine the convergence or divergence of each of the following series.

1.  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2}$
2.  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{2}{2k^2 + 1}$
3.  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2 + 1}$
4.  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2 + 1}$
5.  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2 + 1}$
6.  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(k+1)^2}$
7.  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{4k^2 + 1}$
8.  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2 + 1}$
9.  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2 + 1}$
10.  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2 + 1}$
11.  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2 + 1}$
12.  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2 + 1}$

In Problems 13–18, use the Integral Test to determine the convergence or divergence of the series. If the series converges, find its sum.

13.  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2 + 1}$
14.  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2 + 1}$
15.  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2 + 1}$
16.  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2 + 1}$
17.  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2 + 1}$
18.  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2 + 1}$

19.  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2 + 1}$
20.  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2 + 1}$
21.  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2 + 1}$
22.  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2 + 1}$

In Problems 23–28, use the Integral Test to determine the convergence or divergence of the series. If the series converges, find its sum.

23.  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2 + 1}$
24.  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2 + 1}$
25.  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2 + 1}$
26.  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2 + 1}$
27.  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2 + 1}$
28.  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2 + 1}$

In Problems 29–32, use the Integral Test to determine the convergence or divergence of the series. If the series converges, find its sum.

29.  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2 + 1}$
30.  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2 + 1}$
31.  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2 + 1}$
32.  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2 + 1}$

33. For what values of  $p$  does  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 1/[n(\ln n)^p]$  converge? Explain.

34. Does  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (1/n - \ln n - \ln(\ln n))$  converge or diverge? Explain.

35. Use diagrams as in Figure 4 to show that

$$\ln n = \int_1^n \frac{1}{x} dx$$

Hint:  $\int_1^n \frac{1}{x} dx = \ln n$

36. Using Problem 35, show that the sequence

$$B_n = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \cdots + \frac{1}{n} - \ln n$$

is increasing and bounded above by 1.

37. Use the result of Problem 35 to prove that  $\ln n \sim \ln n$  in Problem 36 exists. The limit, denoted  $\gamma$ , is called **Euler's constant** and is approximately 0.5772. It is currently not known whether  $\gamma$  is rational or irrational. It is known, however, that if  $\gamma$  is rational, then its denominator in its reduced form is at least  $n^{10}$ .

38. Use Problem 35 to get good upper and lower bounds for the sum of the first  $n$  million terms of the harmonic series.

39. From Problem 37 we infer that

$$\frac{1}{n} < B_n < \frac{1}{n-1}$$

Use this to determine the number of terms of the harmonic series that are needed to get a sum greater than 20 and compare with the result reported in Problem 44 of Section 9.2.

40. Now that we have shown the existence of Euler's constant, the hard way (Problems 35–37), we will solve a much more general problem the easy way and watch  $\gamma$  appear out of this as a constant. Let  $f$  be continuous and decreasing on  $[1, \infty)$  and let

$$B_n = \sum_{k=1}^n f(k) - \int_1^n f(x) dx$$

Note that  $B_n$  is the area of the shaded region in Figure 5.

- Why is it obvious that  $B_n$  increases with  $n$ ?
- Show that  $B_n < f(1)$ . **Hint:** Simply shift all the little shaded pieces a fixed amount to the right.
- Conclude that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} B_n$  exists.
- How do we get  $\gamma$  out of this?



41. Let  $f$  be continuous, increasing, and concave down on  $[1, \infty)$  as in Figure 6. Furthermore, let  $A_n$  be the area of the shaded region. Show that  $A_n$  is increasing with  $n$ , that  $A_n \leq T$  where  $T$  is the area of the outlined triangle, and thus that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n$  exists.

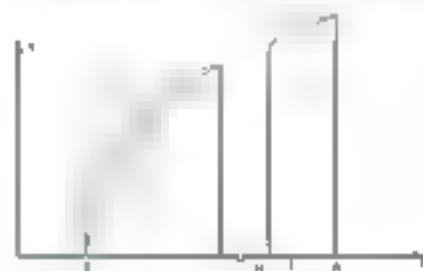


Figure 6

42. Verify that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} B_n = \gamma$  in Problem 39.

(a) Show that

$$A_n = \int_1^n \ln x dx = \left[ \frac{\ln x + 1}{2} \right]_1^n = \frac{\ln n + 1}{2} - \frac{1}{2}$$

(b) Conclude from part (a) and Problem 41 that

$$\gamma = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^2}{(n+1)^2} \sqrt{n}$$

even. It can be shown that  $\gamma = \sqrt[3]{n}$ .

(c) This means that  $\gamma = \sqrt[3]{2\pi n}$  (see 9.2), which is called **Spring's Formula**. Use it to estimate  $\gamma$  with the value that your calculator gives for  $\pi$ .

43. Show that the error used in approximating  $\gamma$  by  $\gamma_n$  is often

$$\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{n}$$

where the notation is the same as in the discussion preceding Example 3.

44. Use the result of Problem 43 to show that the error used in approximating  $\gamma$  by  $\gamma_n$  is often

## 9.4

### Positive Series: Other Tests

We have completely analyzed the convergence and divergence of two series: the geometric series and the  $p$ -series.

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} r^n \text{ converges if } |r| < 1 \text{ and diverges otherwise}$$





We suspect convergence, so our inclination is to compare  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$  with  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$ , but unfortunately

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1/n^2}{1/n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0$$

which gives us just as little information as the wrong way for what we want. After some experimenting, we discover that

$$\frac{1}{(n-2)^2} \sim \frac{1}{n^2}$$

as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ; since  $\sum 1/n^2$  converges, so does  $\sum 1/(n-2)^2$ .

Can we avoid these convolutions with inequalities? Our intuition tells us that  $\sum a_n$  and  $\sum b_n$  converge or diverge together provided  $b_n/a_n$  and  $a_n/b_n$  are upper and lower bounds for  $a_n/b_n$  (or  $b_n/a_n$ ), and this is the same idea (but let us not give it a name) that underlies the content of our next theorem.

### Theorem 9.1 Limit Comparison Test

Suppose that  $a_n \geq 0$ ,  $b_n > 0$  and

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = l$$

if  $l > 0$  and  $l < \infty$ , then  $\sum a_n$  and  $\sum b_n$  converge or diverge together; if  $l = 0$  and  $\sum b_n$  converges, then  $\sum a_n$  converges.

**Proof** Begin by taking  $l = l > 0$  in the definition of a limit of a sequence (Section 9.1). There is a number  $N$  such that  $n \geq N \Rightarrow |(a_n/b_n) - l| < l/2$ , that is,

$$\frac{l}{2} < \frac{a_n}{b_n} < \frac{3l}{2}.$$

This inequality is equivalent to the double inequality

$$\frac{l}{2} b_n < a_n < \frac{3l}{2} b_n.$$

Hence for  $n \geq N$

$$b_n < \frac{2}{l} a_n \quad \text{and} \quad a_n < \frac{3l}{2} b_n.$$

These two inequalities, together with the  $n$  in the inequalities, enable us to show that  $\sum a_n$  and  $\sum b_n$  converge or diverge together. We leave you to do it. (In fact, such a result is the theorem of the earlier Problem 22.) ■

**EXAMPLE 1** Determine the convergence or divergence of each series.

$$(a) \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{3n^2}{n^3 + 2n^2 + 11} \quad (b) \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n^2 + 19n}}$$

**SOLUTION** We apply the Limit Comparison Test, but we still must decide what we should compare each term with. We see what the behavior is like, or large  $n$ , by looking at the large-degree terms in the numerator and denominator in the first case. The  $n$ th term is  $(3n^2)/(n^3 + 2n^2 + 11) \sim 3/n$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

$$\text{So } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(3n^2)/(n^3 + 2n^2 + 11)}{1/\sqrt{n^2 + 19n}} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3n^2 \sqrt{n^2 + 19n}}{n^3 + 2n^2 + 11} = 3.$$

$$\text{If } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3n^2 \sqrt{n^2 + 19n}}{n^3 + 2n^2 + 11} = 3, \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n^2 + 19n}} = 0.$$

Since  $\sum 1/n$  converges and  $\sum 1/n$  diverges, we conclude that the series in (a) converges and the series in (b) diverges. ■

**EXAMPLE 4** Does  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\ln n}{n}$  converge or diverge?

**SOLUTION** To what shall we compare  $\ln n/n$ ? If we try  $1/n$ , we get

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln n}{n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \ln n = \infty.$$

The test fails because its conditions are not satisfied. On the other hand, if we take  $b_n = 1/n^2$ ,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln n}{1/n^2} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln n}{n^2} = 0.$$

Again the test fails. Possibly something better will result if we work with  $b_n = 1/n^{1/2}$ :

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln n}{n^{1/2}} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^{1/2} \ln n}{n} = 0.$$

The last equation follows from L'Hôpital's Rule. We conclude from the second part of the Limit Comparison Test that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \ln n/n$  converges, since  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 1/n^{1/2}$  converges by the  $p$ -Series Test.  $\square$

**DISCUSSION** In this example, we tried several different tests before the comparison test was required to get an answer. We just thought we'd try a few known tests to find one that's just right for comparison with the series that we want to test. Wouldn't it be nice if we could somehow find a test series with no delay, thereby determining convergence or divergence of our  $\sum a_n$  immediately? This is what we do with the Ratio Test.

### THEOREM Ratio Test

Let  $\sum a_n$  be a series of positive terms and suppose

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} = \rho.$$

- (i) If  $\rho < 1$ , the series converges.
- (ii) If  $\rho > 1$  or if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_{n+1}/a_n = \infty$ , the series diverges.
- (iii) If  $\rho = 1$ , the test is inconclusive.

**Proof** Here is what is behind the Ratio Test. Since  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_{n+1}/a_n = \rho$ , it follows that the sequence  $a_{n+1}/a_n$  comes as close as we like to  $\rho$ . A geometric sequence converges when its ratio is less than 1 and diverges when its ratio is greater than 1. Laying down this argument is the task before us.

- (i) Since  $\rho < 1$ , we may choose a number  $r$  such that  $\rho < r < 1$  (for example,  $r = (\rho + 1)/2$ ). Next choose  $N$  so large that  $n \geq N$  implies that  $a_{n+1}/a_n < r$ . (This can be done since  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_{n+1}/a_n = \rho < r$ .)

Then

$$a_{N+1} < r a_N$$

$$a_N < r a_{N-1} < r^2 a_{N-2}$$

$$a_{N-1} < r a_{N-2} < r^2 a_{N-3}$$

Since  $ra_n + r^2a_n + r^3a_n + \cdots$  is a geometric series with  $0 < r < 1$ , it converges. By the Ordinary Comparison Test,  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges, and hence  $sr$  does  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ .

(ii) Since  $p > 1$ , there is a number  $N$  such that  $a_{n+1}/a_n > 1$  for all  $n \geq N$ . Thus

$$\begin{aligned} a_{N+1} &> a_N \\ a_{N+2} &> a_{N+1} > a_N \\ &\vdots \end{aligned}$$

Hence  $a_n > a_N > 0$  for all  $n \geq N$ , which means that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$  cannot be zero. By the  $n$ th-Term Test for Divergence,  $\sum a_n$  diverges.

(iii) We know that  $\sum a_n$  diverges whereas  $\sum a_n x^n$  converges for the first series.

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_{n+1} x^{n+1}}{a_n x^n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} x = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} x$$

For the second series

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{a_n + 1} = 0 = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n}$$

Thus the Ratio Test does not distinguish between convergence and divergence when  $\rho = 1$ . ■

The Ratio Test will always be inconclusive for  $\sum a_n$  where  $a_n$  is a rational expression of  $n$  since in this case  $p = 1$  (the cases  $a_n = 0$  and  $a_n = n$  were treated above). However, for a series whose  $n$ th term involves  $n^p$  or  $e^n$ , the Ratio Test usually works beautifully.

**EXAMPLE 5** Test for convergence or divergence:  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^n}{n^n}$

**SOLUTION**

$$\rho = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(n+1)^{n+1}}{n^n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(n+1)^{n+1}}{n^n}$$

We conclude by the Ratio Test that the series converges. ■

**EXAMPLE 6** Test for convergence or divergence:  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2^n}{n^n}$

**SOLUTION**

$$\begin{aligned} \rho &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2^{n+1}}{(n+1)^{n+1}} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2^{n+1}}{(n+1)^{n+1}} \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{2}{n+1} \right)^{n+1} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

We conclude that the given series diverges. ■

**EXAMPLE 7** Test for convergence or divergence:  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^n}{n^n}$

**SOLUTION** We will need the fact that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{n} \right)^n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{n} \right)^{n+1} = e$$

which follows from Theorem 6.5A. Taking this as known, we may write

$$\begin{aligned} \rho &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(n+1)!}{(n+1)^{n+1}} \cdot \frac{n^n}{n!} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{n}{n+1} \right)^n \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{\left( 1 + \frac{1}{n} \right)^n} = \frac{1}{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{n} \right)^n} = \frac{1}{e} < 1 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore the given series converges. ■

**Summary** To test a series  $\sum a_n$  of positive terms for convergence or divergence look carefully at  $a_n$ .

- 1 If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \neq 0$  conclude from the  $n$ th-Term Test that the series diverges.
- 2 If  $a_n$  involves  $n!$ ,  $e^n$ , or  $n^n$  try the Ratio Test.

If  $a_n$  involves nonconstant powers of  $n$ , try the Limit Comparison Test. To calculate  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n/b_n$  often it is best to find the leading terms in  $a_n$  and  $b_n$  as the quotient of the leading terms from the numerator and denominator.

- 3 If the  $a_n$  above do not work, try the Comparison Test, the Integral Test, or the Bounded Sum Test.
- 4 Some series require a clever inequality.  $a_n < b_n$  and  $\sum b_n$  convergent implies convergence of  $\sum a_n$ .  $a_n > b_n$  and  $\sum b_n$  divergent implies divergence of  $\sum a_n$ .

## Concepts Review

- 1 The **Ordinary Comparison Test** says that if \_\_\_\_\_ and  $\sum b_n$  converges then  $\sum a_n$  also converges.
- 2 Suppose that  $a_n > 0$  and  $b_n > 0$  for all  $n$ . If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n/b_n = L$  then  $\sum a_n$  and  $\sum b_n$  \_\_\_\_\_ if  $L > 0$  and  $\sum a_n$  and  $\sum b_n$  \_\_\_\_\_ if  $L = 0$  or  $L = \infty$ .

- 3  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \rho = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n}$ . The **Ratio Test** says that a series  $\sum a_n$  of positive terms converges if \_\_\_\_\_, diverges if \_\_\_\_\_, and may or may not if \_\_\_\_\_.

- 4  $a_n > 0$  and  $b_n > 0$  are appropriate conditions for the \_\_\_\_\_ test. If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n/b_n = L < \infty$  and  $\sum b_n$  converges then \_\_\_\_\_.

## Problem Set 9.4

In Problems 1–4, use the **Limit Comparison Test** to determine convergence or divergence.

- 1  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{n^2 + 1}$
- 2  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n!}{n^2 + 1}$
- 3  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2 + n + 1}$
- 4  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2 + 1}$

In Problems 5–8, use the **Ratio Test** to determine convergence or divergence.

- 5  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^n}{n!}$
- 6  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^n}{n}$
- 7  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n!}{n^{100}}$
- 8  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n! \cdot e^{-n}$

$$9. \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^2}{n!}$$

$$10. \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^n}{n!}$$

In Problems 11–34, determine convergence or divergence for each of the series. Indicate the test you use.

- 11  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^n}{n!}$
- 12  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n!}{n^n}$
- 13  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{n^n}$
- 14  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^n}$
- 15  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^n}{n!}$
- 16  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(n!)^2}{n^n}$
- 17  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{4n}{n^2 + 1}$
- 18  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^n}{n!}$

19.  $1 + 2 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{5} + \dots$

Find  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$ .

20.  $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} + \dots$

21.  $1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{16} + \dots$

22.  $1 + \frac{1}{2^2} + \frac{1}{3^2} + \frac{1}{4^2} + \dots$

23.  $1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{16} + \dots$

24.  $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{16} + \dots$

25.  $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{16} + \dots$

26.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$

27.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^3}$

28.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^4}$

29.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^5}$

30.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^6}$

31.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^7}$

32.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^8}$

33.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^9}$

34.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{10}}$

35. Let  $a_n > 0$  and suppose that  $\sum a_n$  converges. Prove that  $\sum a_n/n$  converges.

36. Prove that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n!/n^n = 0$  by considering the series  $\sum n!/n^n$ . [Hint: Example 7 followed by nth-Term Test.]

37. Prove that if  $a_n \geq 0$ ,  $b_n \geq 0$ ,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n/b_n = 0$ , and  $\sum b_n$  converges, then  $\sum a_n$  converges.

38. Prove that if  $a_n \geq 0$ ,  $b_n \geq 0$ ,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n/b_n = \infty$ , and  $\sum b_n$  diverges, then  $\sum a_n$  diverges.

39. Suppose that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 1$ . Prove that  $\sum a_n$  diverges.

40. Prove that if  $\sum a_n$  is a convergent series of positive terms then  $\sum \ln(1 + a_n)$  converges.

41. Root Test Prove that if  $a_n > 0$  and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n)^{1/n} = R$  then  $\sum a_n$  converges if  $R < 1$  and diverges if  $R \geq 1$ .

42. Test for convergence or divergence using the Root Test.

(a)  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{n}\right)^{1/n}$

(b)  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{n}\right)^{1/n^2}$

43. Test for convergence or divergence. In some cases, a clever manipulation using the properties of logarithms will simplify the problem.

(a)  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \ln \left(\frac{1}{n}\right)$

(b)  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$

(c)  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$

44. Let  $p > 0$  and let  $n$  be a positive integer. Write  $n$  as a sum of  $p$  positive integers. Use the inequality  $\ln x \leq x - 1$  to prove that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^p}$  converges.

45. Use the addition of series to decide whether the series converges or diverges.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$

46. Use the addition of series to decide whether the series converges or diverges.

(a)  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \ln \left(\frac{1}{n}\right)$

(b)  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$

(c)  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$

## 9.3 Alternating Series, Absolute Convergence, and Conditional Convergence

In the last two sections we considered series of nonnegative terms. Now we move on to series for which some terms are negative. In particular, we study **alternating series**, that is, series of the form

$$a_1 - a_2 + a_3 - a_4 + \dots$$

where  $a_n \geq 0$  for all  $n$ . An important example is the **alternating harmonic series**

$$1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} + \dots$$

We have seen that the harmonic series diverges; we shall soon see that the alternating harmonic series converges.

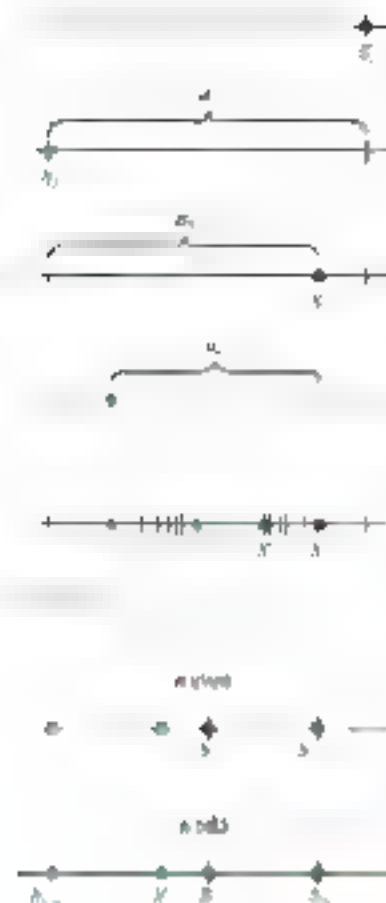


Figure 2

Let  $a_n > 0$  for all  $n \geq 1$ . Let us suppose that the sequence  $a_n$  is decreasing, that is,  $a_n > a_{n+1}$  for all  $n$ . Also, let  $S_n$  have its usual meaning. Thus, for the  $n$ th partial sum  $S_n = a_1 - a_2 + a_3 - a_4 + \dots + (-1)^{n-1} a_n$ , we have

$$S_1 = a_1$$

$$S_2 = a_1 - a_2 = S_1 - a_2$$

$$S_3 = a_1 - a_2 + a_3 = S_2 + a_3$$

$$S_4 = a_1 - a_2 + a_3 - a_4 = S_3 - a_4$$

and so on. A geometric interpretation of these partial sums is shown in Figure 2. Note that the even-numbered terms  $S_2, S_4, S_6, \dots$  are increasing and bounded above and hence must converge to some limit  $L$ . Similarly, the odd-numbered terms  $S_1, S_3, S_5, \dots$  are decreasing and bounded below. They also converge, say to  $S$ .

Both  $L$  and  $S$  lie between  $S_{2n}$  and  $S_{2n+1}$  for all  $n$  (see Figure 2) and so

$$L = S = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_{2n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_{2n+1} = S.$$

Thus, by condition  $a_n \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  we guarantee that  $S = L$  and consequently the convergence of the series is being confirmed, which we call  $S$ . Finally, we note that since  $S$  is between  $S_n$  and  $S_{n+1}$ ,

$$|S - S_n| \leq |S_{n+1} - S_n| = a_{n+1}.$$

That is, the error made by using  $S_n$  as an approximation to the sum  $S$  of the whole series is not more than the magnitude of the first neglected term. We thus have the following theorem.

### Theorem 9.5 Alternating Series Test

Let

$$a_n = a_n > 0, \quad a_n \rightarrow 0$$

be an alternating series with  $a_n > a_{n+1} > 0$ . If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$  then the series converges. Moreover, the error made by using the partial sum  $S_n$  of the series to approximate the sum  $S$  of the series is not more than  $a_{n+1}$ .

**EXAMPLE 1** Show that the alternating harmonic series

$$1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{5} - \frac{1}{6} + \dots$$

converges. How many terms of this series would we need or take on to get a partial sum  $S_n$  within 0.01 of the sum  $S$  of the whole series?

**SOLUTION** The alternating harmonic series satisfies the hypotheses of the series  $A$  and so converges. We want  $|S - S_n| < 0.01$  and this will follow if  $a_{n+1} < 0.01$ . Since  $a_{n+1} = \frac{1}{n+1}$ , we require  $\frac{1}{n+1} < 0.01$ , which is  $\frac{1}{n+1} < \frac{1}{100}$ . Thus we need to take 99 terms to make sure that we have the required accuracy. This gives us a idea of how slowly the alternating harmonic series converges. This problem is for a clever way of finding the sum of this series.

**EXAMPLE 2** Show that

$$1 - \frac{1}{2^2} + \frac{1}{3^2} - \frac{1}{4^2} + \frac{1}{5^2} - \frac{1}{6^2} + \dots$$

converges. Calculate  $S$  and estimate the error made by using half a value for the sum of the whole series.

**SOLUTION** The Alternating Series Test (Theorem A) applies and guarantees convergence.

$$S_4 = 1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{8} - \frac{1}{24} = \frac{1}{4} = 0.25$$

$$|S - S_4| \leq a_5 = \frac{1}{6} \approx 0.0014$$

**EXAMPLE 3** Show that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} \frac{1}{n^2}$  converges.

**SOLUTION** To see a feeling for this series we write the first few terms:

$$1 - \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{9} - \frac{1}{16} + \frac{1}{25} - \frac{1}{36} + \cdots$$

The series is alternating and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n^2} = 0$  (Theorem B), but unfortunately the terms are not decreasing initially. If, however, they *are* decreasing after the first few terms, this is good enough, since when starting in the beginning of a series never affects a value  $\epsilon$  of  $a_n$  downstream. To show that the sequence  $\frac{1}{n^2}$  is decreasing from the first term on, consider the function

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2}$$

Note that if  $x \geq 3$  the derivative

$$f'(x) = \frac{\frac{d}{dx} \frac{1}{x^2} = \frac{-2}{x^3} \leq -\frac{2}{3^3} \approx -0.093$$

$$\frac{1}{x^2} \approx 0.093$$

Thus  $f$  is decreasing on  $[3, \infty)$ , and so  $\frac{1}{n^2}$  is decreasing for  $n \geq 3$  (not  $n \geq 1$ ). (For a different demonstration of this last fact, see Example 4 of Section 9.1.)

**Absolute Convergence** Does a series such as

$$1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{16} - \frac{1}{32} + \frac{1}{64} - \frac{1}{128} + \cdots$$

in which there is a pattern of two positive terms followed by one negative term converge or diverge? The Alternating Series Test does not apply. However, since the corresponding series of all positive terms

$$1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{16} + \frac{1}{32} + \frac{1}{64} + \frac{1}{128} + \cdots$$

converges (a series with  $a_n = \frac{1}{2^n}$ ), it seems reasonable to think that the same series with some terms negative should converge (even faster). This is the content of our next theorem.

### Absolute Convergence Test

If  $\sum |u_n|$  converges, then  $\sum u_n$  converges.

**Proof** We use a trick. Let  $v_n = u_n + |u_n|$  so

$$u_n = v_n - |u_n|$$

Now  $0 \leq v_n \leq 2|u_n|$ , and so  $\sum v_n$  converges by the Direct Comparison Test, following from the Limit-By-Theorem (Theorem 9.2B). Also  $\sum |u_n| = \sum |u_n| - \sum u_n$  converges.

A series  $\sum a_n$  is said to **converge absolutely** if  $\sum |a_n|$  converges. Theorem B asserts that absolute convergence implies convergence. All our tests for convergence of series of positive terms are also tests for absolute convergence, and series in which  $a_n$  is not always negative do not fall under the Ratio Test, which we now restate.

### THEOREM C Absolute Ratio Test

Let  $\sum a_n$  be a series of nonzero terms and suppose that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|a_{n+1}|}{|a_n|} = \rho.$$

- (i) If  $\rho < 1$  the series converges absolutely (hence converges).
- (ii) If  $\rho > 1$  the series diverges.
- (iii) If  $\rho = 1$  the test is inconclusive.

**Proof** Proofs (i) and (ii) are direct results of the Ratio Test. For (iii), we could conclude from the original Ratio Test that  $\sum a_n$  diverges, but here we assume nothing more than  $\sum a_n$  diverges. Since

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|a_n|}{|a_{n+1}|} = \frac{1}{\rho},$$

it follows that for a suitably large  $n$ ,  $|a_n| > |a_{n+1}|$ . This implies that  $|a_n| > |a_{n+1}|$  for all  $n > N$  and so  $|a_n|$  cannot be 0. We conclude by the  $n$ th-Term Test that  $\sum a_n$  diverges. ■

**EXAMPLE 1** Show that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2^n}{n!}$  converges absolutely.

**SOL**  $\rho < 1$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \rho &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{a_{n+1}} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2^{n+1}}{2^n} \cdot \frac{n!}{(n+1)!} \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2}{n+1} = 0. \end{aligned}$$

We conclude from the Absolute Ratio Test that the series converges absolutely (and therefore converges). ■

**EXAMPLE 2** Test for the convergence of the general term  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \cos(n)^{1/n}$ .

**SOL**  $\rho = 1$ . If you write out the first 100 terms of this series, you will discover that the signs of the terms vary in a rather random way. The series is in fact **not** difficult to analyze correctly. However,

$$\left| \cos(n)^{1/n} \right| \leq \frac{1}{n}$$

and so the series converges absolutely by the Ordinary Comparison Test. We conclude from the Absolute Convergence Test (Theorem B) that the series converges. ■

**Conditional Convergence** A common error is to try to turn Theorem B around. That is, one says that, conversely, if a series converges, then it converges absolutely. That is clearly false, witness the alternating harmonic series. We know that

$$1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} + \cdots$$



converges, but that

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n$$

diverges. A series  $\sum a_n$  is called **conditionally convergent** if  $\sum a_n$  converges but  $\sum |a_n|$  diverges. The alternating harmonic series is the premier example of a conditionally convergent series, but there are many others.

**EXAMPLE 6** Show that  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{1}{\sqrt{n+1}}$  is conditionally convergent.

**SOLUTION**  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{1}{\sqrt{n+1}}$  converges by the Alternating Series Test.

However,  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n+1}}$  diverges, since it is a  $p$ -series with  $p = \frac{1}{2}$ . ■

Absolutely convergent series behave much better than conditionally convergent ones. For example, rearranging the absolutely convergent series  $\sum a_n$  yields a series that converges to the same sum. This property of absolutely convergent series is difficult, so we do not include it here.

### REARRANGEMENT Theorem

The terms of an absolutely convergent series can be rearranged without affecting either the convergence or the sum of the series.

For example, the series

$$1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{5} - \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{7} - \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{9} - \frac{1}{10} + \cdots$$

converges absolutely. The rearrangement

$$1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{5} - \frac{1}{10} + \frac{1}{7} - \frac{1}{12} + \cdots$$

converges and has the same sum as the original series.

## Concepts Review

1. If  $a_n \neq 0$  for all  $n$ , the alternating series  $\sum (-1)^n a_n$  will converge provided that the terms are decreasing in size and \_\_\_\_\_.

2. If  $\sum a_n$  converges, we say that the series **converges**. If  $\sum a_n$  converges but  $\sum |a_n|$  diverges, we say that  $\sum a_n$  **converges**.

3. The premier example of a conditionally convergent series is \_\_\_\_\_.

4. The terms of an absolutely convergent series may be \_\_\_\_\_ as well without affecting its convergence or its sum.

## Problem Set 9.5

In Problems 1–6, show that each alternating series converges, and then estimate the error made by using the partial sum  $S_n$  as an approximation to the sum  $S$  of the series. Use  $E$  as your error.

1.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n^2}$

2.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n^3}$

3.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{\ln n}$

4.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n^2}$

5.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n}$

6.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n^2}$

In Problems 7–12, show that each series converges absolutely.

7.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$

8.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^3}$

9.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^4}$

10.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^5}$

11.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^6}$

12.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^7}$

In Problems 13–30, classify each series as absolutely convergent, conditionally convergent, or divergent.



## EXAMPLE 1

The series of sine functions mentioned in the introduction is an example of a *Fourier series*, named after Jean Baptiste Joseph Fourier (1768–1830). Fourier series are of immense importance in the study of wave phenomena, since they allow us to represent a complicated wave as a sum of its fundamental components (called the *Fourier modes* in the case of sound waves). It is a large field, which we leave to other authors and who know.

The general situation is a proper subject for an advanced calculus course. However, even in elementary calculus, we can learn a good deal about the special case of a *power series*. A *power series in  $x$*  has the form

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + \cdots$$

(Here we interpret  $a_n x^n$  to be  $a_0$ , even if  $x = 0$ .) We can immediately answer our two questions for one such power series.

**EXAMPLE 1** Find the convergence set for the power series

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \cdots$$

converge, and what is its sum? Assume that  $x \neq 0$ .

**SOLUTION** We actually studied this series in Section 9.2 (with  $r$  in place of  $x$ ), and called it a *geometric series*. It always gives  $S(x) = 1/(1-x)$  and has sum  $S$  given by

$$S(x) = \frac{1}{1-x}, \quad -1 < x < 1.$$

What is the convergence set? We call the series which *diverges* when  $x = 0$  gives its *divergence set*. What is the set of  $x$  at the *convergence set*? The example suggests that it can be an open interval (see Figure 1). Are there other possibilities?

**EXAMPLE 2** What is the convergence set for

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{(n+1)2^n} = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4}x + \frac{1}{8}x^2 + \frac{1}{16}x^3 + \cdots$$

**SOLUTION** Note that some of the terms may be negative (if  $x$  is negative). To study its absolute convergence, using the Absolute Ratio Test (Section 9.5),

$$\rho = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{1}{(n+2)2^{n+1}} + \frac{1}{(n+1)2^n} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{n}{n+1} \right) = \frac{1}{2} < 1.$$

The series converges absolutely (hence converges) when  $|x| < 2$  and diverges when  $|x| > 2$ . Consequently, it converges when  $|x| = 2$  and diverges when  $|x| > 2$ .

If  $x = 2$  or  $x = -2$  the Ratio Test fails. However, when  $x = 2$  the series is the harmonic series which *diverges*, and when  $x = -2$  it is an *alternating harmonic series* which *converges*. We conclude that the convergence set for the given series is the interval  $-2 \leq x < 2$  (Figure 2).

**EXAMPLE 3** Find the convergence set for  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n/n!$ .

**SOLUTION**

$$\rho = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n+1} = \frac{1}{n+1} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0 < 1.$$

We conclude from the Absolute Ratio Test that the series converges for all  $x$  (Figure 3).

**EXAMPLE 4** Find the convergence set for  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n! x^n$ .





Figure 4

1. The single point  $x = x$ .
2. An interval  $(x - R, x + R)$ , plus possibly one or both end points (Figure 5).
3. The whole real line.

**EXAMPLE 5** Find the convergence set for  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}$ .

**SOLUTION** We apply the Absolute Ratio Test.

$$\rho = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{x^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} \cdot \frac{n!}{x^n} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|x|}{n+1} = 0$$

Thus the series converges if  $|x| < 1$  (that is, if  $-1 < x < 1$ ), converges if  $|x| = 1$  (so convergence occurs for all  $x$ ), and diverges if  $|x| > 1$  as we saw in our earlier discussion of this value. The convergence set is the closed interval  $[-1, 1]$  (Figure 6).

**EXAMPLE 6** Determine the convergence set for

$$\frac{(x+2) \ln 2}{2 \cdot 9} + \frac{(x+2) (\ln 3)^2}{3 \cdot 27} + \frac{(x+2) \ln 4}{4 \cdot 81} + \cdots$$

**SOLUTION** The  $n$ th term is  $a_n = \frac{(x+2)^n \ln n}{n \cdot 3^n}$ ,  $n = 2, 3, 4, \dots$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \rho &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{(x+2)^{n+1} \ln(n+1)}{(n+1) \cdot 3^{n+1}} \cdot \frac{n \cdot 3^n}{(x+2)^n \ln n} \right| \\ &= \frac{|x+2|}{3} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n \cdot \ln(n+1)}{(n+1) \cdot \ln n} = \frac{|x+2|}{3} \end{aligned}$$

We know that the series converges when  $\rho < 1$ , that is, when  $|x+2| < 3$  (or equivalently,  $-5 < x < 1$ ) but we must check the endpoints  $-5$  and

At  $x = -5$

$$a_n = \frac{(-3)^n \ln n}{n \cdot 3^n} = \frac{(-1)^n \ln n}{n}$$

and  $\sum (-1)^n (\ln n)/n$  converges by the Alternating Series Test.

At  $x = 1$ ,  $a_n = (\ln n)/n$  and  $\sum (\ln n)/n$  diverges by comparison with the harmonic series.

We conclude that the given series converges on the interval  $[-5, 1)$ .

## Concepts Review

1. A series of the form  $a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \cdots$  is called a **power series**.
2. Before asking whether a power series converges, we should ask **for what values of  $x$  it converges**.
3. A series  $\sum a_n x^n$  always converges on  $|x| < R$ , where  $R$  is the **radius of convergence**.
4. The series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}$  converges on  $|x| < \infty$ , so  $R = \infty$ .

## Problem Set 9.6

In Problems 1–8, find the convergence set of the given power series.

1.  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} x^n$

2.  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n^n}$

3.  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n}$

4.  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n^n x^n$

5.  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{10^n}{n^n} x^n$

6.  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n^n}$

7.  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^n} x^n$

8.  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^n} x^n$

In Problems 9–18, find the convergence set for the given power series. Hint: First find a formula for the  $n$ th term; then use the Absolute Ratio Test.

9.  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} x^n$

10.  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} x^n$

11.  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} x^n$

12.  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} x^n$

13.  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} x^n$

14.  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} x^n$

15.  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} x^n$

16.  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} x^n$

17.  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} x^n$

18.  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} x^n$

19.  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} x^n$

20.  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} x^n$

21.  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} x^n$

22.  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} x^n$

23.  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} x^n$

24.  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} x^n$

25.  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} x^n$

26.  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} x^n$

27.  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} x^n$

28.  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} x^n$

29. From Example 1, we know that  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n/n!$  converges for all  $x$ . Why can we conclude that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x^n/n! = 0$  for all  $x$ ?

30. Let  $k$  be an arbitrary number and  $-1 < x < 1$ . Prove that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{k(k-1)(k-2)\cdots(k-n+1)}{n!} x^n = 0$$

Hint: See Problem 29.

31. Find the radius of convergence of

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} x^n$$

32. Find the radius of convergence of

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{p^n}{n!} x^n$$

where  $p$  is a positive integer.

33. Find the sum  $S(x)$  of  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (x-3)^n/n!$ . What is the center of  $S(x)$ ?

34. Suppose that  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n = 3^n$  converges at  $x = -1$ . Why can you conclude that it converges at  $x = 0$ ? Can you be sure that it converges at  $x = 2$ ? Explain.

35. Find the convergence set for each series.

(a)  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{3^n + 1}{n!} x^n$  (b)  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{2x - 3}{4^n \sqrt{n}}$

36. Refer to Problem 35 of Section 9.1 where the function sequence  $f_0, f_1, f_2, \dots$  was defined. Find the radius of convergence of  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} f_n(x)^n$ .

37. Suppose that  $a_{n+1} = a_n$  and let  $S(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$ . Show that the series converges for  $|x| < 1$  and give a formula for  $S(x)$ .

38. Follow the direction of Problem 37 in the case where  $a_{n+1} = a_n$  for some fixed positive integer  $p$ .

**Answers to Odd-Numbered Review Problems** 1. power series 2. where  $a_{n+1} = a_n$  for  $n \geq 0$  and  $a_0 = 0$ .

## G 7

Operations on  
Power Series

We know from the previous section that the convergence set of a power series  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$  is an interval  $I$ . This interval is the domain for a new function  $f(x)$ , the sum of the series. The most obvious question to ask about  $f(x)$  is whether we can give a simple formula for it. We have done this for one series, a geometric series.

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} ar^n = \frac{a}{1-r} \quad |r| < 1$$

Actually, there is no reason to hope that the study of all at hand is a new series will be one of the elementary functions studied earlier in this book, though we will make a little progress in that direction in the next two paragraphs. See part 08.

A better question to ask now is whether we can say anything about the properties of  $f(x)$ . For example, is it differentiable? Is it integrable? The answer, with qualifications, is yes.

Think of a power series as a polynomial with infinitely many terms. It behaves like a polynomial, and, both with differentiation and integration, these operations can be performed term by term, as follows.

**Theorem 4**

Suppose that  $S(x)$  is the sum of a power series on an interval  $I$  that is

$$S(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + \cdots$$

Then, if  $x$  is interior to  $I$

$$\begin{aligned} (1) \quad S'(x) &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} D(a_n x^n) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n a_n x^{n-1} \\ &= a_1 + 2a_2 x + 3a_3 x^2 + \cdots \\ (2) \quad \int S(x) dx &= \sum \int a_n x^n = \sum \frac{a_n x^{n+1}}{n+1} \\ &= a_0 x + \frac{1}{2} a_1 x^2 + \frac{1}{3} a_2 x^3 + \cdots \end{aligned}$$

The theorem entails several things. It asserts that  $S$  is both differentiable and integrable on  $I$ , shows how the derivatives and integrals may be calculated, and implies that the radius of convergence of both the series  $\sum n a_n x^{n-1}$  and  $\sum \frac{a_n x^{n+1}}{n+1}$  is the same as for the original series (though we say something about the endpoints of the interval of convergence). The theorem is a big surprise. We leave the proof to more advanced books.

A nice consequence of Theorem 4 is that we can apply a power series with a known sum formula to obtain sum formulas for other series.

**EXAMPLE** Apply Theorem 4 to the geometric series

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n = 1 + x + x^2 + \cdots$$

to obtain formulas for two new series.

**SOLUTION** Differentiating term by term yields

$$1 + x + x^2 + \cdots = 1 + 2x + 3x^2 + \cdots$$

## Euler's formula

The question of what is true at an end point of the interval of convergence of a power series is tricky. One result is due to Norway's greatest mathematician, Niels Henrik Abel (1802–1829). Suppose that

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$$

at  $x = R$  if  $R$  is a particular point in the open  $R$ -interval  $(-R, R)$ . We can prove the result then by term-by-term integration of the original

Integrating term by term gives

$$\int_0^x f(t) dt = \int_0^x 1 dt + \int_0^x t dt + \int_0^x t^2 dt + \cdots$$

That is,

$$\ln(1+x) = x + \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} + \cdots$$

If we replace  $x$  by  $-x$  in the latter and multiply both sides by  $-1$ , we obtain

$$\ln(1-x) = -x + \frac{x^2}{2} - \frac{x^3}{3} + \cdots$$

From Problem 5 of Section 9.5, we know that the expression  $\ln(x) + \ln(1/x) = 0$  (also see the note in the margin).

**EXAMPLE 1** Find (a)  $\ln 2$  and (b) power series representing  $\ln(1-x)$ .

**SOLUTION** Recall that

$$\ln^{-1} x = \int_0^x \frac{1}{1+t} dt$$

From the geometric series for  $1/(1+x)$  with  $x$  replaced by  $-t$ , we get

$$\frac{1}{1-t} = 1 + t + t^2 + t^3 + \cdots$$

Thus

$$\ln(1-x) = \int_0^{-x} (1 - t + t^2 - t^3 + \cdots) dt$$

That is,

$$\ln(1-x) = -x + \frac{x^2}{2} - \frac{x^3}{3} + \cdots$$

[By the note in the margin, this also holds at  $x = -(1-)$ .]

**EXAMPLE 2** Find a formula for the sum of the series

$$S(x) = 1 + \frac{x}{2} + \frac{x^2}{3} + \frac{x^3}{4} + \cdots$$

**SOLUTION** We saw in Section 9.1, Example 1, that the series converges for all  $x$ . Differentiating term by term, we obtain

$$S'(x) = x + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{x}{3} + \frac{x^2}{4} + \cdots$$

That is,  $S'(x) = S(x)$  for all  $x$ . Furthermore,  $S(0) = 1$ . This differential equation has the unique solution  $S(x) = e^x$  (see Section 6.5). Thus,

$$S(x) = 1 + \frac{x}{2} + \frac{x^2}{3} + \frac{x^3}{4} + \cdots$$

**EXAMPLE 3** Obtain the power series representation of  $\ln(1+x)$ .



501 1 31 16 | Simpl. absolute | $r$ | for  $r$  in the series for  $r$ |

$$i^{-4} = 1 \quad X = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

**4. Operations** Convergent power series can be added and subtracted term by term. Theorem 9.7b). In that sense they behave like polynomials. Convergent power series can also be multiplied and divided in a manner suggested by the multiplication and "long" division of polynomials.

**Example:** Multiple can divide by power series or in + be hp

**NOTATION.** We refer to Examples 1 and 2 as the regular series, by way of explanation, to find out the abstract nature of the regularity property and so on. We arrange our work as follows.

$\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{4}$   
 $\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{8}$   
 $\frac{1}{4} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{16}$   
 $\frac{1}{8} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{32}$   
 $\frac{1}{16} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{64}$   
 $\frac{1}{32} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{128}$   
 $\frac{1}{64} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{256}$   
 $\frac{1}{128} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{512}$   
 $\frac{1}{256} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{1024}$   
 $\frac{1}{512} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{2048}$   
 $\frac{1}{1024} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{4096}$   
 $\frac{1}{2048} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{8192}$   
 $\frac{1}{4096} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{16384}$   
 $\frac{1}{8192} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{32768}$   
 $\frac{1}{16384} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{65536}$   
 $\frac{1}{32768} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{131072}$   
 $\frac{1}{65536} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{262144}$   
 $\frac{1}{131072} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{524288}$   
 $\frac{1}{262144} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{1048576}$   
 $\frac{1}{524288} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{2097152}$   
 $\frac{1}{1048576} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{4194304}$   
 $\frac{1}{2097152} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{8388608}$   
 $\frac{1}{4194304} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{16777216}$   
 $\frac{1}{8388608} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{33554432}$   
 $\frac{1}{16777216} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{67108864}$   
 $\frac{1}{33554432} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{134217728}$   
 $\frac{1}{67108864} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{268435456}$   
 $\frac{1}{134217728} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{536871008}$   
 $\frac{1}{268435456} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{1073742016}$   
 $\frac{1}{536871008} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{2147484032}$   
 $\frac{1}{1073742016} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{4294968064}$   
 $\frac{1}{2147484032} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{8589936128}$   
 $\frac{1}{4294968064} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{17179872256}$   
 $\frac{1}{8589936128} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{34359744512}$   
 $\frac{1}{17179872256} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{68719489024}$   
 $\frac{1}{34359744512} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{137438978048}$   
 $\frac{1}{68719489024} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{274877956096}$   
 $\frac{1}{137438978048} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{549755912192}$   
 $\frac{1}{274877956096} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{1099511824384}$   
 $\frac{1}{549755912192} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{2199023648768}$   
 $\frac{1}{1099511824384} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{4398047297536}$   
 $\frac{1}{2199023648768} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{8796094595072}$   
 $\frac{1}{4398047297536} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{17592189190144}$   
 $\frac{1}{8796094595072} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{35184378380288}$   
 $\frac{1}{17592189190144} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{70368756760576}$   
 $\frac{1}{35184378380288} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{140737513521152}$   
 $\frac{1}{70368756760576} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{281475027042304}$   
 $\frac{1}{140737513521152} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{562950054084608}$   
 $\frac{1}{281475027042304} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{1125900108169216}$   
 $\frac{1}{562950054084608} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{2251800216338432}$   
 $\frac{1}{1125900108169216} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{4503600432676864}$   
 $\frac{1}{2251800216338432} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{9007200725353728}$   
 $\frac{1}{4503600432676864} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{18014401450717456}$   
 $\frac{1}{9007200725353728} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{36028802901434912}$   
 $\frac{1}{18014401450717456} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{72057605802869824}$   
 $\frac{1}{36028802901434912} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{144115211605739648}$   
 $\frac{1}{72057605802869824} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{288230423211479296}$   
 $\frac{1}{144115211605739648} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{576460846422958592}$   
 $\frac{1}{288230423211479296} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{1152921692845917184}$   
 $\frac{1}{576460846422958592} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{2305843385691834368}$   
 $\frac{1}{1152921692845917184} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{4601686771383668736}$   
 $\frac{1}{2305843385691834368} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{9203373542767337472}$   
 $\frac{1}{4601686771383668736} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{18406747085534674944}$   
 $\frac{1}{9203373542767337472} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{36813494171069349888}$   
 $\frac{1}{18406747085534674944} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{73626988342138699776}$   
 $\frac{1}{36813494171069349888} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{147253976684277399552}$   
 $\frac{1}{73626988342138699776} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{294507953368554799104}$   
 $\frac{1}{147253976684277399552} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{589015906737109598208}$   
 $\frac{1}{294507953368554799104} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{1178031813474219196416}$   
 $\frac{1}{589015906737109598208} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{2356063626948438392832}$   
 $\frac{1}{1178031813474219196416} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{4712127253896876785664}$   
 $\frac{1}{2356063626948438392832} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{9424254507793753571328}$   
 $\frac{1}{4712127253896876785664} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{18848509015587507142656}$   
 $\frac{1}{9424254507793753571328} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{37697018031175014285312}$   
 $\frac{1}{18848509015587507142656} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{75394036062350028570624}$   
 $\frac{1}{37697018031175014285312} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{150788072124700057141248}$   
 $\frac{1}{75394036062350028570624} \times \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{3015$

There is now discussion in June

[illegible]

The real question relative to Example 4 is whether the answer that we have obtained constitutes a *topological* answer. The answer to this question has been stated without proof answers this question.



Let  $f(x) = \sum a_n x^n$  and  $g(x) = \sum b_n x^n$  with both of these series converging at least for  $|x| < r$ . If the operations of addition, subtraction, multiplication, or division are performed on these series as if they were polynomials, the resulting series will converge for  $|x| < r$  and represent  $f(x) + g(x)$ ,  $f(x) - g(x)$ ,  $f(x)g(x)$ , and  $f(x)/g(x)$  respectively. If  $r = 0$ , the only meaningful conclusion leads to division, but we can guarantee its validity only for  $|x|$  sufficiently small.

We mention that the operation of substitution of one power series in a number is also legitimate for  $x$  sufficiently small, provided that the constant term of the substituted series is zero. Here is an illustration.

### EXAMPLE 5

One of the most remarkable people of the early 17th century was an Indian mathematician Srinivasa Ramanujan. Largely self-educated, Ramanujan found and derived a number of theorems in which he has retained his discoverer. These theorems are only now being thoroughly studied, and many of his major theorems are more complicated than those written in the form of infinite series. He is one

$$\frac{1}{\pi} = \frac{\sqrt{8}}{9801} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k (4k)! (135 - 56k)}{(k!)^4 3330735}.$$

Ramanujan's theorems were used in 1984 to compute the decimal expansion of  $\pi$  to over a billion places. (See Problem 35.)

**EXAMPLE 6** Find the power series for  $e^{4x}$  by using the binomial theorem.

**SOLUTION** Since

$$e^x = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} + \cdots$$

$$e^{4x} = 1 + 4x + \frac{(4x)^2}{2!} + \frac{(4x)^3}{3!} + \frac{(4x)^4}{4!} + \cdots$$

we substitute the series for  $\ln x$  from Example 3 and  $e$  in place of  $x$  in  $e^x$ .

$$e^{4x} = 1 + 4x + \frac{(4x)^2}{2!} + \frac{(4x)^3}{3!} + \frac{(4x)^4}{4!} + \cdots$$

$$= 1 + 4x + \frac{16x^2}{2} + \frac{64x^3}{6} + \frac{256x^4}{24} + \cdots$$

$$= 1 + 4x + 8x^2 + \frac{32}{3}x^3 + \frac{64}{3}x^4 + \cdots$$

$$= 1 + 4x + 8x^2 + \frac{32}{3}x^3 + \frac{64}{3}x^4 + \cdots$$

**EXAMPLE 7** Find the power series for  $\ln(1+x)$  by using the binomial theorem. (See Example 3.)

## Concepts Review

- A function  $f(x)$  is said to be analytic at  $x = a$  if it can be represented by a power series in the interval  $(a - \delta, a + \delta)$  for some  $\delta > 0$ .
- The radius of convergence of the power series expansion for  $\ln(1+x)$  is  $\delta = 1$  and  $a = 0$ .
- The first two terms of the power series expansion for  $\ln(1+x)$  are  $x - \frac{x^2}{2}$ .
- The first two terms of the power series expansion for  $\ln(1-x)$  are  $-x - \frac{x^2}{2}$ .

## Problem Set 9.7

In Problems 1–10, find the power series expansion for  $f(x)$  in powers of  $x$  and give the interval of convergence. In Problems 11–15, find the power series expansion for  $f(x)$  in powers of  $x - a$ .

- $f(x) = \ln(1+x)$
- $f(x) = \ln(1-x)$  (Use Definition Problem)
- $f(x) = \ln(1+x^2)$
- $f(x) = \ln(1-x^2)$
- $f(x) = \ln(1+x^3)$
- $f(x) = \ln(1-x^3)$
- $f(x) = \ln(1+x^4)$
- $f(x) = \ln(1-x^4)$
- $f(x) = \ln(1+x^5)$
- $f(x) = \ln(1-x^5)$
- $f(x) = \ln(1+x^6)$
- $f(x) = \ln(1-x^6)$
- $f(x) = \ln(1+x^7)$
- $f(x) = \ln(1-x^7)$
- $f(x) = \ln(1+x^8)$
- $f(x) = \ln(1-x^8)$

- Obtain the power series for  $\ln(1+x)$  and  $\ln(1-x)$  by using the binomial theorem.

$$\ln(1+x) = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \cdots$$

- Show that any positive number  $\delta$  can be represented by  $\ln(1+x)$  with  $x$  as small as the reciprocal of  $\delta$  of the series of Problem 11. Hence conclude that the natural logarithm can be approximated to any accuracy by means of this series. (In fact, this was the method for approximating  $\ln$ .)

In Problems 12–15, use the fact that  $f(x) = \ln(1+x)$  to find the power series for the given functions.

- $f(x) = e^x$
- $f(x) = xe^x$
- $f(x) = e^{-x}$
- $f(x) = xe^{-x}$

in Problems 17–24, use the methods of Example 5 to find power series for a few each function.

17.  $f(x) = \frac{1}{1-x}$

18.  $f(x) = \ln(1+x)$

19.  $f(x) = \ln x$

20.  $f(x) = \frac{1}{1+x^2} + \ln(1+x)$

21.  $f(x) = \tan^{-1} x (1+x^2+x^4)$

22.  $f(x) = \frac{\tan^{-1} x}{1+x^2+x^4}$

23.  $f(x) = \int_0^x \frac{t^2}{1+t^2} dt$

24.  $f(x) = \int_0^x \tan^{-1} t \, dt$

25. Find the sum of each of the following series by recognizing how it is related to something familiar.

(a)  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n$

(b)  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}$

(c)  $2x + \frac{4x^2}{2} + \frac{8x^3}{3} + \frac{16x^4}{4} + \cdots$

26. Follow the directions of Problem 25.

(a)  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!} - e^x$

(b)  $\sin x + \cos x - e^{ix} - e^{-ix}$

(c)  $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{16} + \cdots$

27. Find the sum of  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} nx^n$

28. Find the sum of  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n(n-1)x^n$

29. Use the method of substitution (Example 6) to find power series through terms of degree 5.

(a)  $\ln(1-x^3) - x$

(b)  $e^x$

30. Suppose that  $f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n x^n$  for  $|x| < R$ . Show that  $a_n = b_n$  for all  $n$ . *Hint:* Let  $x = 0$ , then differentiate, and let  $x = 0$  again. Continue.

31. Find the power series representation of  $x/(x^2 - 3x + 2)$ . *Hint:* Use partial fractions.

32. Let  $y = y(x) = \frac{1}{1-x} + \frac{1}{1-x^2} + \frac{1}{1-x^4} + \cdots$ . Show that  $y$  satisfies the differential equation  $y' = \frac{1}{1-x^2} - y^2$  with the conditions  $y(0) = 0$  and  $y'(0) = 1$ . From this, find a simple formula for  $y$ .

33. Let  $y = y(x)$  be the unique function satisfying

$$y_0 = 0, \quad y' = 1, \quad f_{n+1} = f_n + y^n$$

(See Problem 52 of Section 9.1 and Problem 36 of Section 9.2). If

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} f_n x^n$$

$$f(x) = (f(x) - 1)f(x) + 1$$

and then use this fact to obtain a simple formula for  $f(x)$ .

34. Let  $y = y(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$  where  $a_0 = 1$  as in Problem 33.

Show that  $y$  satisfies the differential equation  $y' = y - y^2$ .

35. Did you ever wonder how people find the decimal expansion of  $\pi$  to a large number of places? One method depends on the following identity (see Problem 36 of Section 6.8).

$$\pi = 16 \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{5}\right) - 4 \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{239}\right)$$

Find the first 6 digits of  $\pi$  using this identity and the series for  $\tan^{-1} x$ . (You will need terms through  $x^5/5$  for  $\tan^{-1}(1/5)$ , but only the first term for  $\tan^{-1}(1/239)$ .) In 1706, John Machin used this identity to calculate the first 100 digits of  $\pi$  while in 1947, John G. Lush and Martin Boyer found the first 3 million digits using the related identity

$$\pi = 48 \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{18}\right) - 32 \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{57}\right) - 20 \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{239}\right)$$

In 1983  $\pi$  was calculated to over 16 million digits by a computer algorithm method. Of course, computers were used in these recent calculations.

36. The number  $e$  is readily calculated to as many digits as desired using the following series for  $e^x$ .

$$e^x = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \cdots$$

This series can also be used to show that  $e$  is irrational. Do so by completing the following argument. Suppose that  $e = p/q$  where  $p$  and  $q$  are positive integers. Choose  $n > q$  and let

$$M = n! \left( e - \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{1}{k!} \right) = \frac{1}{(n+1)!} + \frac{1}{(n+2)!} + \cdots$$

Now  $M$  is a positive integer. Why?

$$M = n! \left( \frac{1}{(n+1)!} + \frac{1}{(n+2)!} + \frac{1}{(n+3)!} + \cdots \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n+1} + \frac{1}{(n+2)} + \frac{1}{(n+3)} + \cdots$$

$$= \frac{1}{n+1} + \frac{1}{(n+2)} + \frac{1}{(n+3)} + \cdots$$

$$= \frac{1}{n+1} + \frac{1}{(n+2)} + \frac{1}{(n+3)} + \cdots$$

which gives a contradiction. Why?

$$1. \text{ Show that } e = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!}$$

$$2. \text{ Show that } e = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!}$$

$$3. \text{ Show that } e = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!}$$

$$4. \text{ Show that } e = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!}$$

## 9.8

## Taylor and Maclaurin Series

The major question still to be asked is: how far can a function  $f$  (expanding about  $a$ ) be represented as a power series about  $a$ ? More generally, if  $x = a^n$ . More precisely, can we find numbers  $c_0, c_1, c_2, c_3, \dots$  such that

$$f(x) = c_0 + c_1(x-a) + c_2(x-a)^2 + c_3(x-a)^3 + \dots$$

for  $x$  belonging to some interval around  $a$ ?

Suppose that such a representation exists. Then, by the theorem on differentiating series (Theorem 9.7A),

$$\begin{aligned} f'(x) &= c_1 + 2c_2(x-a) + 3c_3(x-a)^2 + 4c_4(x-a)^3 + \dots \\ f''(x) &= 2c_2 + 2 \cdot 3c_3(x-a) + 4 \cdot 3c_4(x-a)^2 + \dots \\ f'''(x) &= 3!c_3 + 4!c_4(x-a) + 5 \cdot 4 \cdot 3c_5(x-a)^2 + \dots \end{aligned}$$

When we substitute  $x = a$  and solve for  $c_n$ , we get

$$c_0 = f(a)$$

$$c_1 = f'(a)$$

$$c_2 = \frac{f''(a)}{2!}$$

$$c_3 = \frac{f'''(a)}{3!}$$

$$c_4 = \frac{f^{(4)}(a)}{4!}$$

and, more generally,

$$c_n = \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}.$$

If we take this result for  $n = 1$ , we define  $f'(a)$  as the limit of  $[f(x) - f(a)]/(x-a)$  as  $x \rightarrow a$ . Thus, the coefficients  $c_n$  are determined by the function  $f$ . This also shows that a function  $f$  cannot be represented by two different power series, since if it did, then both would have the same coefficients  $c_n$  and hence would be identical. We summarize in the following theorem.

### **Theorem 9.8** Uniqueness Theorem

Suppose that  $f$  satisfies

$$f(x) = c_0 + c_1(x-a) + c_2(x-a)^2 + c_3(x-a)^3 + \dots$$

for all  $x$  in some interval around  $a$ . Then

$$c_n = \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}.$$

Thus, a function cannot be represented by more than one power series in  $x - a$ . The power series approximation of a function  $f$  about  $a$  is called its **Taylor series** after the English mathematician Brook Taylor (1685–1715). If  $a = 0$ , the corresponding series is called the **Maclaurin series** after the Scottish mathematician Colin Maclaurin (1698–1746).

But, it is obvious that a question remains: over which function  $f$  can we represent  $f$  as a power series in  $x - a$  (which must necessarily be the Taylor series)? The next two theorems give the answer.

**THEOREM 9.10** Taylor's Formula with Remainder

Let  $f$  be a function whose  $(n + 1)$ st derivative  $f^{(n+1)}$  exists on each  $x$  in an open interval  $I$  containing  $a$ . Then, for each  $x$  in  $I$ ,

$$f(x) = f(a) + f'(a)(x - a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(x - a)^2 + \cdots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(x - a)^n + R_n$$

where the remainder (or error)  $R_n(x)$  is given by the formula

$$R_n(x) = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(c)}{(n + 1)!}(x - a)^{n+1}$$

and  $c$  is some point between  $x$  and  $a$ .

**Proof** We will prove the theorem for the special case of  $n = 4$ . In general, for an arbitrary  $n$  follows the same structure and is left as an exercise. See Problems 39–42. First define the function  $R_4(x)$  on  $I$  by

$$\begin{aligned} R_4(x) &= f(x) - f(a) - f'(a)(x - a) - \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(x - a)^2 \\ &\quad - \frac{f^{(3)}(a)}{3!}(x - a)^3 - \frac{f^{(4)}(a)}{4!}(x - a)^4 \end{aligned}$$

Now think of  $x$  and  $a$  as constants, and define a new function  $g$  on  $I$  by

$$\begin{aligned} g(t) &= f(x) - f(t) - f'(t)(x - t) - \frac{f''(t)}{2!}(x - t)^2 - \frac{f^{(3)}(t)}{3!}(x - t)^3 - \frac{f^{(4)}(t)}{4!}(x - t)^4 \\ &= R_{4,t}(x) \end{aligned}$$

Clearly,  $g(t) = 0$  (remember  $x$  is considered fixed) and

$$\begin{aligned} g(a) &= f(x) - f(a) - f'(a)(x - a) - \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(x - a)^2 - \frac{f^{(3)}(a)}{3!}(x - a)^3 \\ &\quad - \frac{f^{(4)}(a)}{4!}(x - a)^4 = R_{4,a}(x) \\ &= R_4(x) - R_{4,t}(x) \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

Since  $x$  and  $a$  are points in  $I$  with the property that  $a < x$ , we can apply the Mean Value Theorem for Derivatives. Here,  $x$  and  $a$  are the endpoints,  $t$  lies between  $a$  and  $x$ , and  $g(a) = g(x) = 0$ . To obtain the derivative of  $g$ , we must repeatedly apply the product rule:

$$\begin{aligned} g'(t) &= 0 - f'(t) - [f''(t)(x - t) - (x - t)f''(t)] \\ &\quad - \frac{1}{2}[f'''(t)(x - t)^2(-1) + (x - t)^2f'''(t)] \\ &\quad - \frac{1}{6}[f^{(4)}(t)(x - t)^3(-1) + (x - t)^3f^{(4)}(t)] - R_{4,t}'(x) \\ &= -\frac{1}{6}(x - t)^4f^{(4)}(t) + 5R_{4,t}'(x) = \frac{5}{6}(x - t)^4 \end{aligned}$$

Thus, by the Mean Value Theorem for Derivatives, there is some  $c$  between  $x$  and  $a$  such that

$$= 2(x-a) = \frac{1}{4} \cdot 2(x-a)^2 \cdot 4(c-a) = 5R_4(x) = \frac{1}{5}(x-a)^5.$$

Thus, each to

$$\frac{1}{4}(x-a)^4 f^{(4)}(c) = 5R_4(x) = \frac{1}{5}(x-a)^5$$

$$R_4(x) = \frac{f^{(5)}(c)}{5!}(x-a)^5$$

This theorem tells us what the error can be when we approximate a function with a finite number of terms of its Taylor series. In the next section, we will further explore the relationship given in Theorem 9.8.

We now turn to answer the question about whether a function can be represented by a power series at  $x = a$ .

### Theorem 9.8 Taylor's Theorem

Let  $f$  be a function with derivatives of all orders in some interval  $a - r < x < a + r$ . The Taylor series

$$f(x) = f(a) + f'(a)(x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(x-a)^2 + \frac{f^{(3)}(a)}{3!}(x-a)^3 + \cdots$$

represents the function  $f$  on the interval  $(a - r, a + r)$  if and only if

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n(x) = 0$$

where  $R_n(x)$  is the remainder in Taylor's Formula

$$R_n(x) = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(c)}{(n+1)!}(x-a)^{n+1}$$

with some point  $c$  in  $(a - r, a + r)$ .

**Proof** We need only recall Taylor's Formula with Remainder (Theorem 9.7):

$$f(x) = f(a) + f'(a)(x-a) + \cdots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(x-a)^n + R_n(x),$$

and the result follows.  $\blacksquare$

Note that if  $a = 0$ , we get the Maclaurin series

$$f(x) = f(0) + f'(0)x + \frac{f''(0)}{2!}x^2 + \frac{f^{(3)}(0)}{3!}x^3 + \cdots$$

**EXAMPLE 1** Find the Maclaurin series (if not a step function that it represents) for  $e^x$  for all  $x$ .

**SOLUTION**

$$f(x) = e^x \quad f'(x) = e^x$$

$$f''(x) = e^x \quad f^{(3)}(x) = e^x$$

$$f^{(4)}(x) = e^x \quad f^{(5)}(x) = e^x$$

$$f^{(n)}(x) = e^x \quad f^{(n+1)}(x) = e^x$$

$$f^{(n)}(0) = e^0 = 1 \quad f^{(n+1)}(0) = e^0 = 1$$

$$f^{(n)}(x) = e^x \quad f^{(n+1)}(x) = e^x$$

### Warning

There is a fact that surprises many students: it is possible that the Taylor series for  $e^x$  converges on an interval that does not represent  $f(x)$  there. This is shown by example in Problem 41. Of course

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n(x) \neq 0$$

in this example.

Thus

$$\sin x = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \frac{x^7}{7!} + \cdots$$

and this is valid for all  $x$  provided we can show that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1} x^{2n+2}}{(2n+2)!} = 0$$

Now we use the **epsilon-delta** definition of  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n(x) = 0$  and let

$$|R_n(x)| \leq \frac{|x|^{2n+2}}{(2n+2)!}$$

But from **Exercise 29** of Section 9.6, if for all  $n$  we have  $|x|^{2n+2} < (2n+2)!$  (see the convergent series in Example 3 and Problem 29 of Section 9.6). As a consequence, we see that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n(x) = 0$ . ■

**EXAMPLE 1** Find the Maclaurin series for  $\cos x$  and show that it represents  $\cos x$  for all  $x$ .

**SOLUTION** We could proceed as in Example 1. However, it is easier to get the  $x$  coefficients by the more direct way of taking derivatives (a consequence of the following Theorem 9.7A). We obtain

$$\cos x = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{x^6}{6!} + \cdots$$
■

**EXAMPLE 2** Find the Maclaurin series for  $f(x) = \cosh x$  in two different ways and show that it represents  $\cosh x$  for all  $x$ .

**SOLUTION**

**Method 1.** This is the direct method:

|                     |               |
|---------------------|---------------|
| $f(x) = \cosh x$    | $f(0) = 1$    |
| $f'(x) = \sinh x$   | $f'(0) = 0$   |
| $f''(x) = \cosh x$  | $f''(0) = 1$  |
| $f'''(x) = \sinh x$ | $f'''(0) = 0$ |

Thus

$$\cosh x = 1 + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} + \frac{x^6}{6!} + \cdots$$

provided we can show that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n(x) = 0$  for all  $x$ .

Now let  $B$  be an arbitrary number and suppose that  $|x| \leq B$ . Then

$$|\cosh x| = \frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{2} \leq \frac{e^B + e^{-B}}{2} \leq \frac{e^B}{2} + \frac{e^B}{2} = e^B = e^{B^2/B} = e^{B^2} e^{-B}$$

By similar reasoning, with  $x = e^x$ . Since  $e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{e^{n+1}}{(n+1)!}$  for each  $x$  or each  $e$ , we conclude that

$$R_{n+1}(x) = \left| \frac{f^{(n+1)}(c)x^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} \right| \leq \frac{e^{2n}x^{n+1}}{(n+1)!}.$$

The latter expression tends to zero as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , just as in Example 3.

**Method 2.** We use the fact that  $\cosh x = (e^x + e^{-x})/2$  from Example 3 of Section 9.7.

$$\begin{aligned} e^x &= 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} + \cdots \\ e^{-x} &= 1 - x + \frac{x^2}{2!} - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \cdots \end{aligned}$$

The previously obtained result follows by adding these two series and dividing by 2. ■

**EXAMPLE 4** Use the Maclaurin series for  $\sinh x$  and show that  $\sinh x$  is periodic with period  $2\pi i$ .

**SOLUTION** We do both jobs at once when we differentiate the series for  $\sinh x$  (Example 3) term by term and use Theorem 9.7A.

$$\sinh x = x + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} + \cdots$$

**SOLUTION** We use all terms  $x^k$  with the Binomial Theorem for a positive integer  $p$ :

$$(1+x)^p = 1 + \frac{p}{1}x + \frac{p}{2}x^2 + \cdots + \frac{p}{p}x^p,$$

where

$$\binom{p}{k} = \frac{p!}{k!(p-k)!} = \frac{p \cdot (p-1) \cdots (p-k+1)}{k!}.$$

Note that if we redefine  $\binom{p}{k}$  to be

$$\binom{p}{k} = \frac{p \cdot (p-1) \cdots (p-k+1)}{k!}$$

then  $\binom{p}{k}$  makes sense for any real number  $p$  provided that  $k$  is a positive integer. Of course, if  $p$  is a positive integer, then our new definition reduces to  $p!/(k!(p-k)!)$ .

### Theorem D Binomial Series

For any real number  $p$  and for  $|x| < 1$ ,

$$(1+x)^p = 1 + \binom{p}{1}x + \binom{p}{2}x^2 + \binom{p}{3}x^3 + \cdots$$



**Partial Proof** Let  $f(x) = (1+x)^p$ . Then

$$f'(x) = p(1+x)^{p-1}$$

$$f''(x) = p(p-1)(1+x)^{p-2}$$

$$f'''(x) = p(p-1)(p-2)(1+x)^{p-3}$$

$$f^{(4)}(x) = p(p-1)(p-2)(p-3)(1+x)^{p-4}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$f^{(p)}(x) = p!$$

$$f^{(p+1)}(x) = 0$$

$$f^{(p)}(0) = p!(p-1)!(p-2)!$$

Thus the Maclaurin series for  $(1+x)^p$  was indicated in the theorem. To show that it represents  $(1+x)^p$  we need to show that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n = 0$ . This argument is difficult and we leave it for more advanced calculus. See Problem 38 for a completely different way to prove Theorem 2.  $\blacksquare$

If  $p$  is a positive int, get  $(1+x)^p = 1 + \frac{p}{1}x + \frac{p(p-1)}{2!}x^2 + \frac{p(p-1)(p-2)}{3!}x^3 + \cdots$  and so the Binomial Series collapses to a series with finitely many terms, the usual binomial formula.

**EXAMPLE 3** Represent  $(1-x)^{-3}$  in a Maclaurin series for  $-1 < x < 1$ .

**SOLUTION** By Theorem 2,

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= (1-x)^{-3} = 1 + \frac{(-3)(-3-1)}{2}x^2 + \frac{(-3)(-3-1)(-3-2)}{3!}x^3 + \cdots \\ &= 1 + 3x + 6x^2 + 10x^3 + \cdots \end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$(1-x)^{-3} = 1 + 3x + 6x^2 + 10x^3 + \cdots$$

Naturally, this agrees with the result we obtained by a different method in Example 2, Section 7.  $\blacksquare$

**EXAMPLE 4** Represent  $\sqrt{1-x}$  in a Maclaurin series and use it to approximate  $\sqrt{1}$  to five decimal places.

**SOLUTION** For  $|x| < 1$  we have from Theorem 2

$$\begin{aligned} \sqrt{1-x} &= (1-x)^{1/2} = 1 + \frac{(1/2)(1/2-1)}{2}x^2 + \frac{(1/2)(1/2-1)(1/2-2)}{3!}x^3 + \cdots \\ &= 1 - \frac{1}{8}x^2 + \frac{1}{16}x^3 - \frac{5}{128}x^4 + \cdots \end{aligned}$$

Since  $\sqrt{1} = 1$ , we conclude that

$$\begin{aligned} \sqrt{1} &= 1 + 0.1 - \frac{0.1}{2} + \frac{0.01}{8} - \frac{0.001}{16} + \frac{5(0.0001)}{128} + \cdots \\ &= 1.04591 \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 5** Compute  $\int_0^1 \sqrt{1-x^4} dx$  to five decimal places.

**SOLUTION** From Example 6,

$$\sqrt{1-x^2} = 1 - \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{8}x^4 - \frac{1}{16}x^6 + \frac{5}{128}x^8 - \cdots$$

Thus,

$$\int_0^1 \sqrt{1-x^2} dx = \int_0^1 \left( 1 - \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{8}x^4 - \frac{1}{16}x^6 + \frac{5}{128}x^8 - \cdots \right) dx = 4\pi/17 \quad \blacksquare$$

**5.3 > 4.93** We conclude our discussion of series with a list of the important Maclaurin series we have found. These series will be useful in doing the problem set, but what is more significant is that find application in advanced mathematics and science.

### Important Maclaurin Series

|   |  |                    |
|---|--|--------------------|
| 1 | $\frac{1}{1-x} = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \cdots$   | $ x  < 1$          |
| 2 | $\ln(1+x) = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \frac{x^5}{5} - \cdots$                    | $-1 < x \leq 1$    |
| 3 | $\ln(1-x) = -x - \frac{x^2}{2} - \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} - \frac{x^5}{5} - \cdots$                   | $-1 \leq x < 1$    |
| 4 | $e^x = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} + \cdots$                 | $x \in \mathbb{R}$ |
| 5 | $\sin x = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \frac{x^7}{7!} + \frac{x^9}{9!} - \cdots$                  | $x \in \mathbb{R}$ |
| 6 | $\cos x = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{x^6}{6!} + \frac{x^8}{8!} - \cdots$                  | $x \in \mathbb{R}$ |
| 7 | $\sinh x = x + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} + \frac{x^7}{7!} + \frac{x^9}{9!} + \cdots$                 | $x \in \mathbb{R}$ |
| 8 | $\cosh x = 1 + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} + \frac{x^6}{6!} + \frac{x^8}{8!} + \cdots$                 | $x \in \mathbb{R}$ |
| 9 | $e^{ax} = 1 + ax + \frac{a^2x^2}{2!} + \frac{a^3x^3}{3!} + \frac{a^4x^4}{4!} + \frac{a^5x^5}{5!} + \cdots$ | $x \in \mathbb{R}$ |

## Concepts Review

1. If a function  $f(x)$  is represented by the power series  $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_k x^k$  then  $c_k =$  \_\_\_\_\_.
2. The Taylor series for a function will represent the function for those  $x$  for which the remainder  $R_n(x)$  in Taylor's Formula satisfies \_\_\_\_\_.
3. The Maclaurin series for  $\sin x$  represents  $\sin x$  for \_\_\_\_\_.
4. The first four terms in the Maclaurin series for  $(1+x)^{-1/2}$  are \_\_\_\_\_.

## Problem Set 9.8

In Problems 1–18, find the terms through  $x^5$  in the Maclaurin series for  $f(x)$ . Hint: It may be easier to use known Maclaurin series and then perform multiplications, additions, and so on. For example,  $\sin x = \sin(x/2 + x/2)$ .

1.  $f(x) = \ln(x)$
2.  $f(x) = \ln(x+1)$
3.  $f(x) = x^3 \sin x$
4.  $f(x) = \cos x$
5.  $f(x) = (\cos x) \ln(2+x)$
6.  $f(x) = (\sin x) \sqrt{1-x}$

7.  $f(x) = x \sin x$
8.  $f(x) = (e^{2x} - 1) \cos x$
9.  $f(x) = \frac{1}{1+x} \ln \left( \frac{1-x}{1+x} \right)$
10.  $f(x) = \frac{1}{1+x} \ln \left( \frac{1-x}{1+x} \right)$
11.  $f(x) = \frac{1}{1+x} \ln \left( \frac{1-x}{1+x} \right)$
12.  $f(x) = \frac{1}{1+x} \ln \left( \frac{1-x}{1+x} \right)$

13.  $f(x) = \sin^{-1} x$

14.  $f(x) = x \sin^2 x + \sin^3 x$

15.  $f(x) = x \sec(x) + \sin x$  16.  $f(x) = \frac{\cos x}{\sqrt{1+x}}$

17.  $f(x) = (1+x)^{1/2}$  18.  $f(x) = (1-x^2)^{1/3}$

In Problems 19–24, find the Taylor series in  $x = a$  through the series  $x = a^+$ .

19.  $e^x, a = 1$

20.  $\sin x, a = \frac{\pi}{6}$

21.  $\cos x, a = \pi$

22.  $\tan x, a = \frac{\pi}{4}$

23.  $e^x + x, a = 0$

24.  $x + 3x - x, a = 1$

25. Let  $f(x) = \sum a_n x^n$  be an even function ( $f(-x) = f(x)$ ), for  $x$  in  $[-R, R]$ . Prove that  $a_n = 0$  if  $n$  is odd. First Use the Uniqueness Theorem.

26. State and prove a theorem analogous to that in Problem 25 for odd functions.

27. Recall that

$$\sin^{-1} x = \int_0^x \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-t^2}} dt$$

Find the first four nonzero terms in the Maclaurin series for  $\sin^{-1} x$ .

28. Given that

$$\sinh^{-1} x = \int_0^x \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+t^2}} dt$$

find the first four nonzero terms in the Maclaurin series for  $\sinh^{-1} x$ .

[C] 29. Calculate, accurate to four decimal places,

$$\int_0^1 \cos(x^2) dx$$

[C] 30. Calculate, accurate to five decimal places,

$$\int_0^1 \sin \sqrt{x} dx$$

31. By writing  $\frac{1}{1-x} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (1-x)^n$  and using the known expansion of  $1/(1-x)$ , find the Taylor series for  $\frac{1}{1-x}$  in powers of  $x$ .

32. Let  $f(x) = (1+x)^{1/2} + (1-x)^{1/2}$ . Find the Maclaurin series for  $f$  and use it to find  $f^{(4)}(0)$  and  $f^{(5)}(0)$ .

33. In each case, find the Maclaurin series for  $f(x)$  by use of known series and then use it to calculate  $f^{(4)}(0)$ .

a)  $f(x) = e^{x+1}$

b)  $f(x) = e^{ax}$

c)  $f(x) = \int_0^x \frac{1}{t^2} dt$

d)  $f(x) = e^{ax} = e^a e^{ax}$

e)  $f(x) = \ln(\cos^2 x)$

34. One can sometimes find a Maclaurin series by the method of equating coefficients. For example, let

$$\tan x = \frac{\sin x}{\cos x} = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + \dots$$

Then multiply by  $\cos x$  and replace  $\sin x$  and  $\cos x$  by their series to obtain

$$x = \frac{x}{1} + \dots = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + \dots \left( \frac{x}{2} + \dots \right) = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + \dots \left( \frac{a_1}{2} x + \dots \right)$$

Thus,

$$a_0 = 0, \quad a_1 = \dots, \quad \frac{a_1}{2} = 0, \quad a_2 = \frac{a_1}{2} = 0$$

so

$$a_0 = 0, \quad a_1 = \dots, \quad a_2 = 0, \quad a_3 = \dots$$

and therefore

$$\tan x = 0 + x + 0 + \frac{1}{3}x^3 + \dots$$

which agrees with Problem 1. Use this method to find the terms through  $x^6$  in the series for  $\sec x$ .

35. Use the method of Problem 34 to find the terms through  $x^3$  in the Maclaurin series for  $\sinh x$ .

36. Use the method of Problem 34 to find the terms through  $x^4$  in the series for  $\cosh x$ .

37. Prove Theorem B for

a) the special case of  $n = 3$ , and

b) an arbitrary  $n$ .

38. Prove Theorem D as follows. Let

$$f(x) = 1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left( \frac{p}{n} \right) x^n$$

(a) Show that the series converges for  $|x| < 1$ .

(b) Show that  $(1+x)f'(x) = pf(x)$  and  $f(0) = 1$ .

(c) Solve this differential equation to get  $f(x) = (1+x)^p$ .

39. Let

$$f(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } t < 0 \\ t^2 & \text{if } t \geq 0 \end{cases}$$

Explain why  $f(t)$  cannot be represented by a Maclaurin series. Also show that, if  $g(t)$  gives the distance traveled by a car that is stationary for  $t < 0$  and moving ahead for  $t \geq 0$ ,  $g(t)$  cannot be represented by a Maclaurin series.

40. Let

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} e^{-1/x} & \text{if } x \neq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases}$$

a) Show that  $f^{(n)}(0) = 0$  by using the definition of the derivative.

b) Show that  $f^{(n)}(0) = 0$ .

(c) Assuming the known fact that  $f^{(n)}(0) = 0$  for all  $n$ , find the Maclaurin series for  $f(x)$ .

d) Does the Maclaurin series represent  $f(x)$ ?

e) When  $a = 0$ , the formula in Theorem B is called **Maclaurin's Formula**. What is the remainder in Maclaurin's Formula for  $f(x)$ ?

This shows that a Maclaurin series may exist and yet not represent the given function (the remainder does not tend to 0 as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ).

**Now Work** PROBLEM 43 Find the first four nonzero terms in the Maclaurin series for each of the functions in Problems 43–48 and use them to get the same answers using the methods of Section 9.7.

41.  $\sin x$

42.  $\exp x$

43.  $\ln(1 + x^2) = \exp$

44.  $\exp(x^2)$

45.  $\sin(x^2)$

46.  $\exp(\sin x)$

47.  $\tan(x + \exp x)$

48.  $\sin(x + \exp x)$

$$2. \text{ (a) } P_0(x) = 0 \quad 3. \quad x \quad 4. \quad x^2 \quad 5. \quad x^3 \quad 6. \quad x^4$$

## The Taylor Approximation to a Function

The Taylor and Maclaurin series introduced in Section 9.8 may seem to be just another way to approximate a function such as  $\sin x$  or  $\exp x$ . However, creating a Taylor or Maclaurin series is not as cutting of the series at some number  $x$  (which leaves a jagged discontinuity) as we can use an approximation to a function. Such problems are called Taylor or Maclaurin problems.

For example, in Section 9.8 we emphasized how to approximate  $\exp x$  by using the Taylor series for  $\exp x$  at  $a = 0$ . In this section we will approximate  $\exp x$  by using the Taylor series for  $\exp x$  at  $a = 1$  (see Figure 1). We asked which approximation gives the best approximation for  $\exp x$  and we found it to be

$$P_1(x) = f(a) + f'(a)(x - a)$$

After you view the animation in Section 9.8 you should see a graph for  $P_1(x)$  is a straight line tangent to the curve  $y = \exp x$  at  $x = 1$ . Here is the graph of  $y = \exp x$  and  $y = P_1(x)$  for  $x$  between 0 and 2 (see Figure 2). We therefore call  $P_1$  the **Taylor polynomial of order 1 based at  $a = 1$** . Figure 3 suggests we can approximate  $\exp x$  by using the approximation  $P_2$  at  $x = 1$ .

**EXAMPLE 1** Find  $P_1(x)$  based at  $a = 1$  for  $f(x) = \ln x$  and use it to approximate  $\ln 0.9$  and  $\ln 1.5$ .

**SOLUTION** Since  $f(x) = \ln x$ ,  $f'(x) = 1/x$ , thus  $f(1) = 0$  and  $f'(1) = 1$ . Therefore,

$$P_1(x) = 0 + 1(x - 1) = x - 1$$

Consequently (see Figure 2), for  $x$  near 1,

$$\ln x \approx x - 1$$

and

$$\ln 0.9 \approx -0.1$$

$$\ln 1.5 \approx 0.5$$

$$\ln 1.5$$

The correct four-place values of  $\ln 0.9$  and  $\ln 1.5$  are  $-0.1054$  and  $0.4055$ . As you see, the approximation is much better for  $\ln 1.5$  than for  $\ln 0.9$  (since 0.9 is closer to 1 than is 1.5).

**The Taylor Polynomial of Order  $n$**  The linear approximation  $P_1(x)$  works well when  $x$  is near  $a$ , but less so when  $x$  is not close to  $a$ . As you might expect, summing in higher-order terms in the Taylor series will usually give a better approximation. Thus, the quadratic polynomial

$$P_2(x) = f(a) + f'(a)(x - a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2}(x - a)^2$$

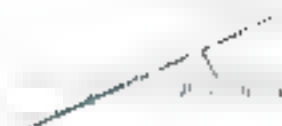


FIGURE 1 The function  $y = \exp x$  and the tangent line  $P_1(x)$  at  $x = 1$ .

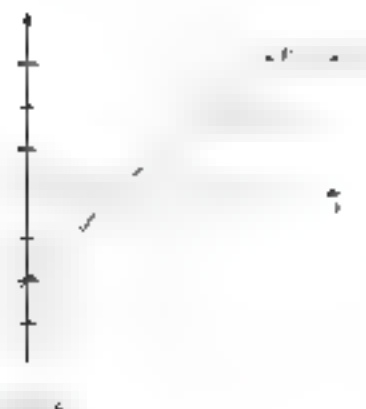


FIGURE 2 The function  $y = \exp x$  and the tangent line  $P_1(x)$  at  $x = 1$ .

FIGURE 3 The function  $y = \exp x$  and the tangent line  $P_2(x)$  at  $x = 1$ .

which is composed of the first three terms of the Taylor series for  $\ln x$ , give a better approximation than  $x - 1$  than the linear approximation  $f'(x)$ . The **Taylor polynomial of order  $n$  based at  $a$**  is

$$P_n(x) = f(a) + f'(a)(x - a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(x - a)^2 + \cdots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(x - a)^n$$

**EXAMPLE 3** Find  $P_3(x)$  based at  $a = 1$  for  $f(x) = \ln x$  and use it to approximate  $\ln 0.9$  and  $\ln 1.5$ .

**SOLUTION** Here  $f(x) = \ln x$ ,  $f'(x) = 1/x$ ,  $f''(x) = -1/x^2$  and so  $f(1) = 0$ ,  $f'(1) = 1$ ,  $f''(1) = -1$ . Therefore

$$P_3(x) = 0 + 1(x - 1) - \frac{1}{2}(x - 1)^2$$

Consequently, for  $x$  near 1

$$\ln x \approx x - 1 - \frac{1}{2}(x - 1)^2$$

and

$$\ln 0.9 \approx (0.9 - 1) - \frac{1}{2}(0.9 - 1)^2 \approx -0.045$$

$$\ln 1.5 \approx (1.5 - 1) - \frac{1}{2}(1.5 - 1)^2 \approx 0.225.$$

As expected, these are better approximations than we get using the linear approximation  $P_1(x) = x - 1$ . Example 3 is graphed in Figure 9.5 shows the graph of  $\ln x$  and the approximation  $P_3(x)$ .

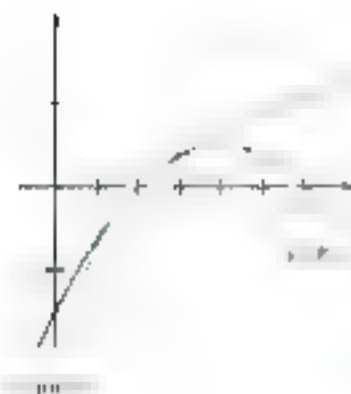
**MACLAURIN POLYNOMIALS** When  $a = 0$ , the Taylor polynomial of order  $n$  applies to the **Maclaurin polynomial of order  $n$** , which gives a third-order (or better) approximation near  $x = 0$ :

$$f(x) \approx P_n(x) = f(0) + f'(0)x + \frac{f''(0)}{2}x^2 + \cdots + \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!}x^n$$

**EXAMPLE 4** Find the Maclaurin polynomials of order  $n$  for  $e^x$  and  $\cos x$ . Then approximate  $e^{0.2}$  and  $\cos(0.2)$  using  $n = 4$ .

**SOLUTION** The calculation of the required derivatives is shown in the table.

| $n$ |              | At $x = 0$ |   | At $x = 0$ |    |
|-----|--------------|------------|---|------------|----|
| 0   | $f(x)$       | $e^x$      | 1 | $\cos x$   | 1  |
| 1   | $f'(x)$      | $e^x$      | 1 | $-\sin x$  | 0  |
| 2   | $f''(x)$     | $e^x$      | 1 | $-\cos x$  | -1 |
| 3   | $f^{(3)}(x)$ | $e^x$      | 1 | $\sin x$   | 0  |
| 4   | $f^{(4)}(x)$ | $e^x$      | 1 | $\cos x$   | 1  |
| 5   | $f^{(5)}(x)$ | $e^x$      | 1 | $-\sin x$  | 0  |



#### Order versus Degree

We have chosen the terminology “Taylor and Maclaurin polynomial of order  $n$ ” because the highest-order derivative involved in its construction is of order  $n$ . Note that this polynomial has a precision that will be  $\frac{1}{(n+1)!}$ . For example, if  $n = 3$ , then the Maclaurin polynomial of order  $n$  for  $\cos x$  will be of degree  $n - 1$ . For example, the Maclaurin polynomial of order 5 for  $\cos x$  is

$$1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!}$$

a polynomial of degree 4.

It follows that

$$e^{ix} = 1 + ix + \frac{(ix)^2}{2!} + \frac{(ix)^3}{3!} + \frac{(ix)^4}{4!} + \frac{(ix)^5}{5!} + \frac{(ix)^6}{6!} + \cdots$$

$$\cos x = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{x^6}{6!} + \frac{x^8}{8!} - \frac{x^{10}}{10!} + \cdots, \quad x \text{ even}$$

Thus, using  $n = 4$  and  $x = 0.2$ , we obtain

$$e^{0.2} \approx 1 + 0.2 + \frac{(0.2)^2}{2} + \frac{(0.2)^3}{6} + \frac{(0.2)^4}{24} = 1.221400$$

$$\cos(0.2) \approx 1 - \frac{(0.2)^2}{2} + \frac{(0.2)^4}{24} = 0.980067$$

Compare these results with the correct seven-place values of 1.2214026 and 0.9800666.

For a visual idea of how the Maclaurin polynomials provide approximations, let us now have sketched the graphs of  $P_4(x) = 1 - x^2/2 + x^4/24$  and  $P_6(x) = 1 - x^2/2 + x^4/24 - x^6/720$  along with the graph of  $\cos x$  in Figure 4.

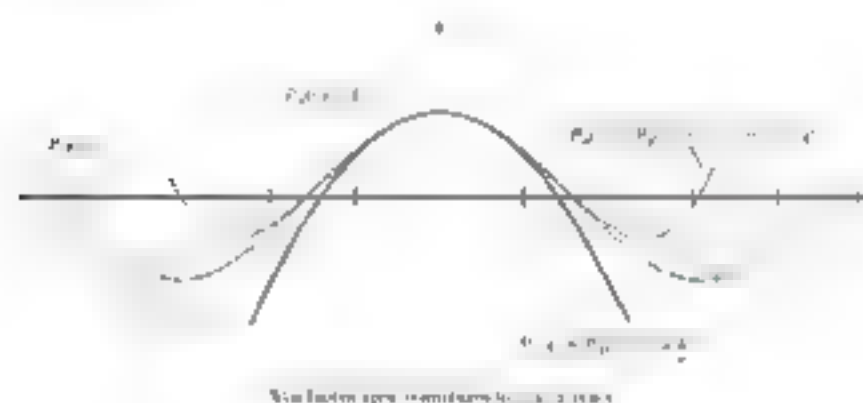


Figure 4

In Example 1 we used the Maclaurin polynomial of order 4 to approximate  $\cos(0.2)$  as follows:

$$\cos(0.2) \approx 1 - \frac{1}{2}(0.2)^2 + \frac{1}{24}(0.2)^4 \approx 0.980067$$

This example thus rates the two kinds of errors that occur in approximation processes. First, there is the **error of the method**. In this case we approximate  $\cos$  by a fourth-order polynomial instead of evaluating the exact sum of its series. Second, there is the **error of calculation**. This involves errors in the arithmetic, which we replaced the arithmetic done on a calculator by a hand calculator.

We note a sad fact of the numerical analysis. We can reduce the error of the method by using Maclaurin polynomials of higher order. In turn, polynomials of higher order means more calculations, which potentially increases the error of calculation. To be a good numerical analyst, we must know how to compromise between these two types of error. For more on this, see Section 9.10 and 9.11 of the text. However, we can say something definite about the first type of error, the subject to which we now turn.

is  $f(x) = e^x$ ,  $f^{(n)}(x) = e^x$  for all  $n$ . In Section 9.8 we gave a formula for the error of approximating a function by its Taylor polynomial. For  $f(x) = e^x$  the error  $R_n(x)$  is

$$\begin{aligned} R_n(x) &= \frac{f^{(n+1)}(c)}{(n+1)!} x^{n+1} = \frac{e^c}{(n+1)!} x^{n+1} \\ &= \frac{e^c x^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} = R_{n+1}(x) \\ &= R_n(x) + R_{n+1}(x) \end{aligned}$$

The error, or remainder,  $R_n(x)$  is given by

$$R_n(x) = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(c)}{(n+1)!} x^{n+1} = \frac{e^c x^{n+1}}{(n+1)!}$$

where  $c$  is some real number between  $x$  and  $x$ . This formula for the error is due to the French mathematician and Jesuit Louis Bôlzano. The error  $R_n(x)$  is often called the Lagrange error bound for Taylor polynomials. When  $x = 0$ , Taylor's formula is called **Maclaurin's formula**.

One problem that sometimes arises at this point is that we do not know what  $c$  is. All we know is that  $c$  is some real number between  $x$  and  $x$ . At times, no doubt, we may settle for a bound on the remainder using the known maximum in the next example illustrates this point.

**EXAMPLE 1** Approximate  $e^{0.8}$  with an error of less than 0.001.

**SOLUTION** For  $f(x) = e^x$ , Maclaurin's formula gives the remainder

$$R_n(x) = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(c)}{(n+1)!} x^{n+1} = \frac{e^c x^{n+1}}{(n+1)!}$$

and so

$$R_n(0.8) = \frac{e^c}{(n+1)!} (0.8)^{n+1}$$

where  $c$  is some real number between 0 and 0.8. For our purposes, it is enough to let  $R_n \leq 0.001$ . Note  $e^c < e^{0.8} < 3$  and  $(0.8)^{n+1} < (1)^{n+1}$ , and so

$$|R_n(0.8)| < \frac{3(1)^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} = \frac{3}{(n+1)!}$$

It is easy to check that  $3/(n+1)! < 0.001$  when  $n \geq 6$ , and so we can obtain the desired accuracy by using the Maclaurin polynomial of order 6.

$$e^{0.8} \approx 1 + (0.8) + \frac{(0.8)^2}{2!} + \frac{(0.8)^3}{3!} + \frac{(0.8)^4}{4!} + \frac{(0.8)^5}{5!} + \frac{(0.8)^6}{6!}$$

Our calculator gives 2.22554048 for this sum.

Can we be sure that this value is within 0.001 of the actual value? Let's estimate the error of the method using Theorem 9.10. But could the error of estimation have distorted our answer? Shouldn't we, however, at least check our calculations to see if we feel confident in reporting an answer of 2.2255 accurate within 0.001? ■

**Useful Tools for Bounding  $|R_n|$**  The precise value of  $R_n$  is almost never obtainable, since we do not know exactly what  $c$  is in our error formula. Our task is therefore to find the maximum possible value of  $|R_n|$  for  $x$  in the given interval. To do this exactly is often difficult, so we usually compare ourselves with getting a good upper bound for  $|R_n|$ . The exercises in this section require the chief tools are the triangle inequality  $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$  and the fact that a fraction gets larger when we make its numerator larger or its denominator smaller.

**EXAMPLE 4** If  $\pi$  is known to lie in  $[2, 4]$ , give a good bound for the maximum value of

$$\frac{e^x - \sin x}{x}$$

**SOLUTION**

$$\frac{e^x - \sin x}{x} = \frac{|e^x - \sin x|}{x} \leq \frac{|e^x| + |\sin x|}{x} \leq \frac{4^2 + 1}{2} = 8.5$$

A different and better bound is obtained as follows:

$$\frac{e^x - \sin x}{x} = \frac{e^x}{x} - \frac{\sin x}{x} = \frac{e^x}{x} - \frac{\sin x}{1} \leq 4 - \frac{1}{2} = 3.5$$

**EXAMPLE 5** Use a Taylor polynomial of order 10 approximating  $\cos x$ , and then give a bound for the error of the approximation.

**SOLUTION** Since  $\cos x$  is even, we choose  $a = 0$  (where  $\cos x$  and  $\sin x$  are known). We use radian measure and the Taylor polynomial based at  $x = \pi/3$ .

$$f(x) = \cos x \qquad f\left(\frac{\pi}{3}\right) = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$f'(x) = -\sin x \qquad f'\left(\frac{\pi}{3}\right) = -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$$

$$f''(x) = \cos x \qquad f''\left(\frac{\pi}{3}\right) = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$f'''(x) = -\sin x \qquad f'''(\pi) = 0$$

Note

$$R_2 = \frac{\pi}{3} + \frac{\pi}{90} \text{ (radians)}$$

Thus,

$$\cos x = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \left(x - \frac{\pi}{3}\right) + \frac{1}{4} \left(x - \frac{\pi}{3}\right)^2 + R_2$$

and

$$\cos\left(\frac{\pi}{3} + \frac{\pi}{90}\right) = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \left(\frac{\pi}{90}\right) + \frac{1}{4} \left(\frac{\pi}{90}\right)^2 + R_2 \approx \frac{\pi}{3} + \frac{\pi}{90}$$

$$(0.4644654) \approx R$$

and

$$R \leq \frac{(0.465)^2}{2} \left(\frac{\pi}{90}\right) \approx \frac{\pi}{10^5} \approx 0.0000314$$

Again, the number of calculations is small, so we feel safe in reporting  $\cos(62^\circ) = 0.4644654$  with an error of less than  $0.0000314$ .

**The Error of Calculation** In all our examples so far we have assumed that the error of calculation is small enough so that it can be ignored. We will ordinarily make that assumption in this book, since our problems will always involve a small number of calculations. We feel its good to be extra careful, however. When computers are used to do thousands or millions of operations, these errors of calculation may well accumulate and distort an answer.



There are two sources of calculation errors that may be significant even in using a calculator. Consider calculating

$$a = b_1 + b_2 + \cdots + b_n$$

where  $a$  is very much larger than any of the  $b$ 's, for example,  $a = (10,000,000)$  and  $b_1 = 0.1, b_2 = 1/2, \dots$ . If we use eight-digit floating-point arithmetic and proceed from left to right, first adding  $b_1$ , then adding  $b_2$ , the result, and so on, we would simply get  $a$  rounded at each stage. For a sum of just 75 terms,  $a$  might be affected the seventh digit of the overall sum. The moral of the matter is that, in adding a large number of small terms, one or more larger ones is always added for  $a$  and the small terms first. Whenever possible, add the numbers from smallest to largest.

A more likely source of calculation error is due to the loss of significant digits in a subtraction of nearly equal numbers. For example, let  $\sin x = 5.47 \times 10^{-3}$  and  $\cos x = 0.83$  and we find significant digits results of  $\tan x = 0.00659$  which has only two significant digits. That this can cause trouble is easily illustrated by calculating a numerical approximation to a derivative.

Consider calculating  $f'(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h}$  by using the difference quotient

$$\frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h} = \frac{f(x) + hf'(x) + \frac{h^2}{2}f''(x) + \cdots - f(x)}{h} = f'(x) + \frac{h}{2}f''(x) + \cdots$$

For the sake of simplicity, let  $f(x) = 4x^3$  and suppose  $h = 10^{-3}$ . The result should be close and close to the exact value,  $12x^2$ . But, in a computer using the eight-digit calculation which we saw large. Problems like this arise even if we use 16-digit or 32-digit floating-point arithmetic. Regardless of the number of significant digits used in the calculations, the difference quotient will converge to  $f'(x)$  will be 0 for sufficiently large  $n$ .

| $n$ | $(2 \cdot 10^{-n})^3$ | $2^3$ | $(2 \cdot 10^{-n})^3 \cdot 2^3$ and $n$ |
|-----|-----------------------|-------|---|
| 3   | 0.0000008             | 8     | 0.0000064                               |
| 4   | 0.0000016             | 8     | 0.0000128                               |
| 5   | 0.0000032             | 8     | 0.0000256                               |
| 6   | 0.0000064             | 8     | 0.0000512                               |
| 7   | 0.0000128             | 8     | 0.0001024                               |
| 8   | 0.0000256             | 8     | 0.0002048                               |
| 9   | 0.0000512             | 8     | 0.0004096                               |
| 10  | 0.0001024             | 8     | 0.0008192                               |

## Concepts Review

1. If  $P_n(x)$  is the Taylor polynomial of order  $n$  based at  $a$  for  $f(x)$ , then  $P_0(x) = \underline{\hspace{1cm}}$ ,  $P_1(x) = \underline{\hspace{1cm}}$ , and  $P_2(x) = \underline{\hspace{1cm}}$ .

2. The coefficient of  $x^n$  in the Maclaurin polynomial of order  $n$  for  $f(x)$  is

3. If we approximate errors that arise in approximation theory are called **truncation** and **rounding**.

4. Calculus errors in using Taylor's Formula are **truncation** errors whereas errors of the method are **rounding** errors.

## Problem Set 9.9

In Problems 1–8, find the Maclaurin polynomial of order 4 for  $f(x)$  and use it to approximate  $f(0.2)$ .

1.  $f(x) = e^x$

2.  $f(x) = \ln x$

3.  $f(x) = \sin^{-1} x$

4.  $f(x) = \tan^{-1} x$

5.  $f(x) = \ln |x|$

6.  $f(x) = \ln |x + 1|$

7.  $f(x) = \tan x$

8.  $f(x) = \tan^{-1} x$

In Problems 9–16, find the Taylor polynomial of order 3 based at  $a$  for the given function.

9.  $f(x) = x^2$

10.  $f(x) = \ln x$

11.  $\tan x; a = \frac{\pi}{6}$

12.  $\sec x; a = \frac{\pi}{4}$

13.  $\cos^{-1} x$

14.  $\ln(x + 1)$

15. Find the Taylor polynomial of order 3 based at 1 for  $f(x) = x^3 - 2x^2 + 3x + 5$  and show that it is an exact representation of  $f(x)$ .

16. Find the Taylor polynomial of order 4 based at 2 for  $f(x) = x^5$  and show that it represents  $f(x)$  exactly.

17. Find the Maclaurin polynomial of order  $n$  for  $f(x) = (x + 1)^{-1}$ . Then use it with  $n = 4$  to approximate each of the following.

(a)  $f(1.1)$       (b)  $f(0.5)$       (c)  $f(0.9)$       (d)  $f(1.5)$

18. Find the Maclaurin polynomial of order  $n$  (in table) for  $\sin x$ . Then use it with  $n = 5$  to approximate each of the following. (This example should convince you that the Maclaurin approximation can be exceedingly poor if  $x$  is far from zero.) Compare your answers with those given by your calculator. What conclusion can you draw?

(a)  $\sin(0.1)$       (b)  $\sin(0.5)$       (c)  $\sin(1)$       (d)  $\sin(10)$

19. In Problems 19–23, plot on the same axes the given function along with the Maclaurin polynomials of orders 1, 2, 3, and 4.

19.  $\sin x$

20.  $\cos x$

21.  $\sin x$

22.  $\cos(x + \pi/2)$

23.  $\ln x$

24.  $\ln(x + 1)$

25.  $\sin x$

26.  $\sin(x + 1) + x + 1$

27.  $\sin x$

28.  $e^x$

In Problems 29–46, find a good bound for the maximum value of the given expression, given that  $x$  is in the stated interval. Answers may vary slightly in the solutions given by different users.

29.  $|x^5 + e^{-x}|$

30.  $|\tan x + \sec x|; \left[0, \frac{\pi}{4}\right]$

31.  $\left| \frac{e^x - x^2}{x!} \right|$

32.  $\left| \frac{e^x - 1}{x} \right|; [1, 2]$

33.  $\left| \frac{e^x}{x} \right|; [1, 2]$

34.  $\left| \frac{\cos x}{x} \right|; [1, 2]$

35.  $\left| \frac{\sin x}{x} \right|; [1, 2]$

36.  $\left| \frac{e^x}{x} \right|; [1, 2]$

In Problems 37–42, find a formula for  $R_n(x)$ , the remainder for the Taylor polynomial of order  $n$  based at  $a$ . Then obtain a good bound for  $|R_n(x)|$ . See Examples 4 and 6.

37.  $\ln(2 + x)$ ,  $a = 0$

38.  $e^{-x}$ ,  $a = 0$

39.  $\sin x$ ,  $a = \pi/6$

40.  $\frac{1}{x}$ ,  $a = 1$

41.  $\frac{1}{x}$ ,  $a = 1$

42.  $\frac{1}{x}$ ,  $a = 1$

43. Determine the order  $n$  of the Maclaurin polynomial for  $e$  that is required to approximate  $e$  to five decimal places; that is, so that  $|R_n(1)| \leq 0.00005$  (see Example 4).

44. Determine the order  $n$  of the Maclaurin polynomial for  $\ln(x + 1)$  that is required to approximate  $\pi = 4 \ln 2$  to five decimal places; that is, so that  $|R_n(1)| \leq 0.00005$ .

45. Find the third-order Maclaurin polynomial for  $f(x) = x^4$  and bound the error  $|R_3(x)|$  for  $-0.5 \leq x \leq 0.5$ .

46. Find the third-order Maclaurin polynomial for  $(1 + x)^{-1}$  and bound the error  $|R_3(x)|$  for  $-0.5 \leq x \leq 0.5$ .

47. Find the third-order Maclaurin polynomial for  $(1 + x)^{-1/2}$  and bound the error  $|R_3(x)|$  for  $-0.5 \leq x \leq 0.5$ .

48. Find the fourth-order Maclaurin polynomial for  $\sin x$  and bound the error  $|R_4(x)|$  for  $-0.5 \leq x \leq 0.5$ .

49. Note that the fourth-order Maclaurin polynomial for  $\sin x$  is really of third degree since the coefficient of  $x^4$  is 0. Thus,

$$\sin x = \frac{x^3}{6} + R_4(x)$$

Show that if  $0 \leq x \leq 0.5$ ,  $|R_4(x)| \leq 0.0012619$ . Use this result to approximate  $\int_0^{0.5} \sin x \, dx$  and give a bound for the error.

50. In analogy with Problem 49

$$\cos x = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^4}{24} + R_5(x)$$

if  $0 \leq x \leq 1$ , give a good bound for  $|R_5(x)|$ . Then use your result to approximate  $\int_0^1 \cos x \, dx$  and give a bound for the error.

51. Problem 49 suggests that if  $n$  is odd, then the  $n$ th order Maclaurin polynomial for  $\sin x$  is also the  $(n + 1)$ st order polynomial, so the error can be calculated using  $R_{n+1}$ . Use this result to find how large  $n$  must be so that  $|R_{n+1}(x)|$  is less than 0.0005 for all  $x$  in the interval  $0 \leq x \leq \pi/2$ . Note,  $n$  must be odd.

52. Problem 50 suggests that if  $n$  is even, then the  $n$ th order Maclaurin polynomial for  $\cos x$  is also the  $(n + 1)$ st order polynomial, so the error can be calculated using  $R_{n+1}$ . Use this result to find how large  $n$  must be so that  $|R_{n+1}(x)|$  is less than 0.0005 for all  $x$  in the interval  $0 \leq x \leq \pi/2$ . Note,  $n$  must be even.



Figure 5

53. Use a Maclaurin polynomial to obtain the approximation  $A \approx \pi^2/12$  for the area of the shaded region in Figure 5. For express  $A$  exactly then approximate.

54. If an object of rest mass  $m_0$  has velocity  $v$ , then (according to the theory of relativity) its mass  $m$  is given by  $m = m_0 \sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}$  where  $c$  is the velocity of light. Explain how physicists use the approximation

$$m \approx m_0 + \frac{m_0}{2} \left( \frac{v^2}{c^2} \right)$$

55. If money is invested at an interest rate of  $r$  compounded  $n$  times a year, it will double in  $n$  years, where  $n$  satisfies

$$1 + \frac{r}{n} = 2^{1/n}$$

a. Show that

$$n \approx \ln 2 \left( \ln \left( 1 + \frac{r}{n} \right) + r \right)$$

b. Use the Maclaurin polynomial of order 3 for  $\ln(1 + x)$  and a partial fraction decomposition to obtain the  $n$  approximation

$$n \approx \frac{59}{r} + \frac{1}{r^2}$$

56. a. Some people use the Rule of 72 ( $n \approx 72/|r|$ ) to approximate  $n$ . Fill in the table to compare the values obtained from these formulas.

| $r$  | $n$ | Approximation | % error |
|------|-----|---------------|---------|
| 0.05 |     |               |         |
| 0    |     |               |         |
| 0.1  |     |               |         |
| 0.2  |     |               |         |

56. The author of a biology text claimed that the smallest positive  $n$  such that  $1 + \frac{r}{n} = 2^{1/n}$  is  $n = 100$  for  $r = 1$ .

provided  $k$  is very small. Show how she reached this conclusion and check it for  $k = 0.01$ .

57. Expand  $e^x = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{6} + \frac{x^4}{24} + \dots$  as a Taylor polynomial of order 4 based at 1 and show that  $R_4(x) = 0$  for all  $x$ .

58. Let  $f$  be a function that possesses at least  $n$  derivatives at  $a = 0$  and let  $P_n(x)$  be the Taylor polynomial of order  $n$  based at  $a$ . Show that

$$P_n(x) = \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} x^n + \frac{f^{(n+1)}(a)}{(n+1)!} x^{n+1} + \dots + \frac{f^{(2n)}(a)}{(2n)!} x^{2n} + \dots$$

59. Calculate  $\sin 43^\circ = \sin(43\pi/180)$  by using the Taylor polynomial of order 3 based at  $\pi/4$  for  $\sin$ . Then obtain a good bound for the error made. See Example 6.

60. Calculate  $\cos 65^\circ$  by the method illustrated in Example 6. Choose  $n$  large enough so that  $|R_n| \leq 0.0015$ .

61. Show that if  $x$  is in  $(0, 2]$  the error in using

$$\ln x \approx \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{x-1}{x+1} \right) = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{x}{x+1} - \frac{1}{x+1} \right)$$

is less than  $5 \times 10^{-4}$  and therefore, that this formula is good enough to build a four-place sine table.

62. Use Maclaurin's Formula rather than Taylor's Rule to find

(a)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^x - 1 - x - x^2/2}{x^3}$

(b)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos x - 1 + x^2/2 - x^4/24}{x^5}$

63. Let  $g(x) = p(x) - x^n f(x)$ , where  $p(x)$  is a polynomial of degree at most  $n$  and  $f$  has derivatives through order  $n$ . Show that  $p(x)$  is the Maclaurin polynomial of order  $n$  for  $f$ .

64. Recall that the Second-Derivative Test for Local Extrema (Section 3.3) does not apply when  $f''(c) = 0$ . Prove the following generalization, which may help determine a maximum or a minimum when  $f''(c) = 0$ . Suppose that

$$f'(c) = f''(c) = \dots = f^{(n-1)}(c) = 0$$

where  $n$  is odd and  $f^{(n)}(c)$  is continuous near  $c$ .

1. If  $f^{(n)}(c) < 0$ , then  $f(c)$  is a local maximum value.

2. If  $f^{(n)}(c) > 0$ , then  $f(c)$  is a local minimum value.

Test this result on  $f(x) = x^4$ .

2.  $f^{(n)}(c) \neq 0$  3. error of the method error of calculation

4.  $n = 2, 3, 4, \dots$

## 9.10 Chapter Review

### Concepts Test

Respond with true or false to each of the following assertions. Be prepared to justify your answer.

1. If  $0 \leq a_n \leq b_n$  for all natural numbers  $n$  and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n$  exists, then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$  exists.

2. For every positive integer  $n$ ,  $n! \leq n^n \leq (2n)^{n-1}$ .

3. If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$  then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_{2n} = L$ .

4. If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$  and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = L$ , then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n b_n = L$ .

5. If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_{2n} = L$  for every positive integer  $n \geq 2$ , then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$ .

6. If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$  and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = M$ , then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n b_n = LM$ .

7. If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n - a_{n-1}) = 0$ , then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$  exists and is finite.
8. If  $\{a_n\}$  and  $\{b_n\}$  both diverge, then  $\{a_n + b_n\}$  diverges.
9. If  $\{a_n\}$  converges, then  $\{a_{2n}\}$  converges to it.
10. If  $\sum a_n$  converges, then  $\sum a_{2n}$  converges.
11. If  $0 < a_{n+1} < a_n$  for all natural numbers  $n$ , and if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$ , then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges and has sum  $s$  satisfying  $0 \leq s \leq a_1$ .
12.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$  converges and has sum  $s$  satisfying  $s < 1$ .
13. If a series  $\sum a_n$  diverges, then its sequence of partial sums  $\{s_n\}$  is unbounded.
14. If  $0 \leq a_n \leq b_n$  for all natural numbers  $n$ , and if  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$  converges, then  $\sum a_n$  converges.
15. The Ratio Test will not help in determining the convergence of the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2n+1}{n^2}$ .
16. If  $a_n \neq 0$  for all natural numbers  $n$  and  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges, then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_{n+1}/a_n) \leq 1$ .
17.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$  converges.
18.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2n+1}$  converges.
19.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{n+1}$  converges.
20.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2n}{n^2}$  converges.
21. If  $0 \leq a_n \leq b_n$  for all natural numbers  $n$  and if  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$  converges, then  $\sum a_n$  converges.
22. If, for some  $r > 1$ ,  $a_n \leq 1/n^r$  for all natural numbers  $n$ , then  $\sum a_n$  converges.
23.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$  converges.
24.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges, then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{2n}$  converges.
25. If  $0 \leq a_n \leq b_n$  for all natural numbers  $n$ , and if  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$  converges, then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges.
26. If  $0 \leq a_n$  for all natural numbers  $n$ , and if  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges, then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (1/n^2) a_n$  converges.
27.  $\left| \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n \left( \frac{1}{n} - \sum_{k=1}^n (-1)^{k+1} \frac{1}{k} \right) \right| < 0.01$
28. If  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  diverges, then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |a_n|$  diverges.
29. If the power series  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$  converges at  $x = 1$ , then it also converges at  $x = -1$ .
30. If  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$  converges at  $x = 2$ , then it also converges at  $x = 1$ .
31. If  $f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$  and if the series converges at  $x = 1.5$ , then  $\int_0^1 f(x) dx = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{a_n}{n+1}$ .
32. Every power series converges for at least two values of the variable.
33. If  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$  converges at  $x = 1$ , then the Maclaurin series  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!} x^n$  converges in a neighborhood of  $x = 1$ .
34. The function  $y = \frac{1}{1-x}$  satisfies the differential equation  $y' = y$  on the interval  $(-1, 1)$ .
35. The function  $y = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}$  satisfies  $y' = y$  on all of  $\mathbb{R}$ .
36. If  $P(x)$  is the Maclaurin polynomial of order 2 for  $f(x)$ , then  $P(0) = f(0)$ ,  $P'(0) = f'(0)$ , and  $P''(0) = f''(0)$ .
37. The Taylor polynomial of order  $n$  based at  $a$  for  $f(x)$  is unique (that is,  $f(x)$  has only one such polynomial).
38.  $f(x) = e^{x^2}$  has a second-order Maclaurin polynomial.
39. The Maclaurin polynomial of order 3 for  $f(x) = 2x^3 + x^2 + 7x - 1$  is an exact representation of  $f(x)$ .
40. The Maclaurin polynomial of order 10 for  $\cos x$  involves only even powers of  $x$ .
41. If  $f'(0)$  exists for an even function, then  $f'(0) = 0$ .
42. Taylor's Formula with Remainder contains the Mean Value Theorem for Derivatives as a special case.

### Sample Test Problems

In Problems 1–8, determine whether the given series converges or diverges and, if it converges, find its sum.

1.  $a_n = \frac{n^n}{n^n}$

2.  $a_n = \frac{n^n}{n^n}$

3.  $a_n = \frac{4}{n+1}$

4.  $a_n = \frac{1}{n^n}$

5.  $a_n = \frac{1}{n}$

6.  $a_n = \frac{1}{n^n}$

7.  $a_n = \frac{1}{n^n}$

8.  $a_n = \cos \frac{n\pi}{2}$

In Problems 9–18, determine whether the given series converges or diverges and, if it converges, find its sum.

9.  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left( \sqrt{k} - \sqrt{k+1} \right)$
10.  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left( \frac{1}{k} - \frac{1}{k+2} \right)$
11.  $\ln 2 + \ln 3 + \ln \frac{3}{4} + \dots$
12.  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \cos k\pi$
13.  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} e^{-2k}$
14.  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left( \frac{3}{2^k} + \frac{4}{3^k} \right)$
15.  $0.9 + 9 + 9191 = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} 9^k \left( \frac{1}{100} \right)^k$
16.  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left( \frac{1}{\ln 2} \right)^k$
17.  $1 + \frac{2^2}{2!} + \frac{2^4}{4!} + \frac{2^6}{6!} + \dots$
18.  $1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3!} + \frac{1}{4!} + \dots$

In Problems 19–32, indicate whether the given series converges or diverges and give a reason for your conclusion.

19.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{1+n^2}$
20.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n+1}{n^2}$
21.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{n}}$
22.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{n}}$
23.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2^n + 3^n}{4^n}$
24.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{e^n}$
25.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n+1}{n^2+2}$
26.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sqrt{n}}{n^2+1}$
27.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^n}{n!}$
28.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^4 7^n}{n+1^n}$
29.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2^n n!}{n+2}$
30.  $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \left( \frac{n}{\pi} \right)^n$
31.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n^4 \left( \frac{1}{e} \right)^n$
32.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n + \ln n}$

In Problems 33–36, state whether the given series is absolutely convergent, conditionally convergent, or divergent.

33.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{3n}$
34.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n}$
35.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{3^n}{n^{2n}}$
36.  $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\ln n}$

In Problems 37–42, find the convergence set for the power series.

37.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n^2 + 1}$
38.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2 \cdot 4^n \cdot x^n}{2n + 3}$
39.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1 + (-1)^n x + 4^n x^n}{n + 1}$
40.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{3^n x^{2n}}{(3n)!}$
41.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x + 3^n}{2^n + 1}$
42.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^4 (x + 1)^n}{7^n}$

43. By differentiating the geometric series

$$1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \dots = \frac{1}{1-x} \quad x < 1,$$

find a power series that represents  $(1+x)^2$ . What is its interval of convergence?

44. Find a power series that represents  $\ln(1+x)^3$  on the interval  $(-1, 1)$ .

45. Find the Maclaurin series for  $\sin^2 x$ . For what values of  $x$  does the series represent the function?

46. Find the first five terms of the Taylor series for  $e^x$  based at the point  $a = 2$ .

47. Write the Maclaurin series for  $f(x) = \sin x + \cos x$ . For what values of  $x$  does it represent  $f$ ?

48. Determine how large  $n$  must be so that using the  $n$ th partial sum to approximate the series  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{9 + k^2}$  gives an error of no more than 0.00005.

49. Determine how large  $n$  must be so that using the  $n$ th partial sum to approximate the series  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{k}{e^{k^2}}$  gives an error of no more than 0.00005.

50. How many terms do we have to take in the convergent series

$$1 + \sqrt{2} + \sqrt{3} + \sqrt{4} + \sqrt{5} + \sqrt{6} + \dots$$

to be sure that we have approximated its sum to within 0.001?

51. Use the simplest method you can think of to find the first three nonzero terms of the Maclaurin series for each of the following.

- a)  $x^3$
- b)  $\sqrt{1+x^2}$
- c)  $e^{-x} + x$
- d)  $x \sec x$
- e)  $e^{-x} \sin x$
- f)  $\frac{1}{x} + \sin x$

52. Find the Maclaurin polynomial of order 3 for  $f(x) = \cos x$  and use it to approximate  $\cos 0$ .

53. Find the Maclaurin polynomial of order 1 for  $f(x) = x \cos x^2$  and use it to approximate  $f(0.2)$ .

54. Find the Maclaurin polynomial of order 4 for  $f(x)$ , and use it to approximate  $f(0)$ .

- a)  $f(x) = xe$
- b)  $f(x) = \cosh x$

55. Find the Taylor polynomial of order 3 based at 2 for  $g(x) = x^3 - 2x^2 + 5x - 7$  and show that it is an exact representation of  $g(x)$ .

56. Use the result of Problem 55 to calculate  $g(2.1)$ .

57. Find the Taylor polynomial of order 4 based at  $a = 1$  for  $f(x) = 1 - x + 1$ .

58. Obtain an expression for the error term  $R_4(x)$  in Problem 57 and find a bound for it if  $x = 1.2$ .

59. Find the Maclaurin polynomial of order 4 for  $f(x) = \sin^2 x = \frac{1}{2}(1 - \cos 2x)$ , and find a bound for the error  $R_4(x)$  if  $|x| \leq 0.2$ . *Note:* A better bound is obtained if you observe that  $R_4(x) = R_2(x)$  and then bound  $R_2(x)$ .

60. If  $f(x) = \ln x$ , then  $f^{(n)}(x) = (-1)^{n-1} (n-1)! x^{-n}$ . Thus, the Taylor polynomial of order  $n$  based at 1 for  $\ln x$  is

$$\ln x = x - 1 - \frac{1}{2}(x-1)^2 + \frac{1}{3}(x-1)^3 + \cdots + (-1)^{n-1} \frac{1}{n}(x-1)^n + R_n(x)$$

How large would  $n$  have to be for us to know that  $|R_n(x)| \leq 0.00005$  if  $0.8 \leq x \leq 1.2$ ?

61. Refer to Problem 60. Use the Taylor polynomial of order 5 based at 1 to approximate

$$\int_{0.8}^{1.2} \ln x \, dx$$

and give a good bound for the error that is made.

# REVIEW PREVIEW PROBLEMS

1. For the graph of  $r = r - 4$ , find the equation of the tangent line and the normal line (i.e., the line perpendicular to the tangent line) that pass through the point  $(2, 1)$ .

2. Find all points on the parabola  $r = r - 4$  at which the tangent line is parallel to the line  $r = r + 1$  and also where the normal line is parallel to the line

3. Find all points of intersection of  $\frac{r}{16} = \frac{r}{4}$  and  $\frac{r}{16} = \frac{r}{4}$

4. Find all points of intersection of  $\frac{r}{16} = \frac{r}{4}$  and  $\frac{r}{16} = \frac{r}{4}$

5. Use implicit differentiation to find the equation of the tangent line to the curve  $x^2 + y^2(4 + 1)$  at the point  $\left(\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}, 1\right)$

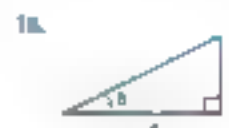
6. Use implicit differentiation to find an equation of the tangent line to the curve  $\frac{r}{4} = \frac{r}{4}$  at the point  $(1, 1)$

7. Find all points of intersection of  $\frac{r}{16} = \frac{r}{4}$  and  $\frac{r}{16} = \frac{r}{4}$  or the respective intersection that is in the first quadrant, use implicit differentiation to find the equations of the tangent lines to both curves. Find all angles between these two tangent lines.

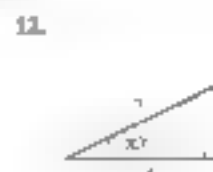
8. Suppose that  $x = 3 \cos t$  and  $y = 3 \sin t$ . Fill in the table below and plot the ordered pair  $(x, y)$ .

|                      | $x = 3 \cos t$ | $y = 3 \sin t$ |
|----------------------|----------------|----------------|
| $t = 0$              |                |                |
| $t = \frac{\pi}{6}$  |                |                |
| $t = \frac{\pi}{4}$  |                |                |
| $t = \frac{\pi}{3}$  |                |                |
| $t = \frac{\pi}{2}$  |                |                |
| $t = \frac{2\pi}{3}$ |                |                |
| $t = \frac{3\pi}{4}$ |                |                |

In Problems 9–10, determine the values of  $t$  and  $\theta$ .



In Problems 11–12, determine the values of  $t$  and  $\theta$ .



- 10.1 The Parabola
- 10.2 Ellipses and Hyperbolas
- 10.3 Translation and Rotation of Axes
- 10.4 Parametric Representation of Curves in the Plane
- 10.5 The Polar Coordinate System
- 10.6 Graphs of Polar Equations
- 10.7 Calculus in Polar Coordinates

## 10.1

## The Parabola

Take a right circular cone with two nappes and slice it with a plane at various angles as shown in Figure 1. As you slice, you will obtain curves that are respectively an ellipse, a parabola, and a hyperbola. (You may also obtain various intersecting lines, a line, a point, a pair of intersecting lines, and more.) These curves are called *conic sections*, or simply *conics*. This section, in which we use the word *conics*, is comprehensive and we shall immediately adopt a different one. We shall show that the two notions are equivalent.

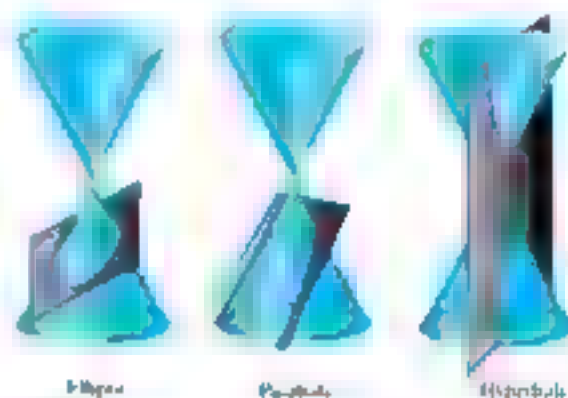


Figure 1

In the plane, let  $l$  be a fixed line (the *directrix*) and  $F$  be a fixed point (the *focus*) not on the line, as in Figure 2. The set of points  $P$  for which the ratio of the distances  $|PF|$  from the focus to the distance  $|PP_1|$  from the line is a positive constant  $e$  (the *eccentricity*), that is, the set of points  $P$  that satisfy

$$PF = e \cdot PP_1$$

is called a *conic*. If  $0 < e < 1$ , the curve is an *ellipse*; if  $e = 1$ , it is a *parabola*; if  $e > 1$ , it is a *hyperbola*.

When we draw the curves corresponding to  $e = \frac{1}{2}$ ,  $e = 1$ , and  $e = 2$ , we get the three curves shown in Figure 3.

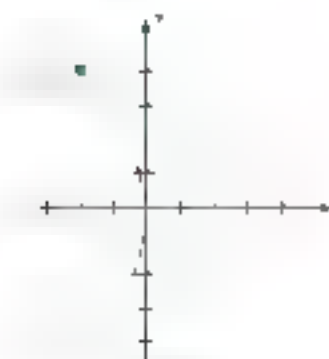
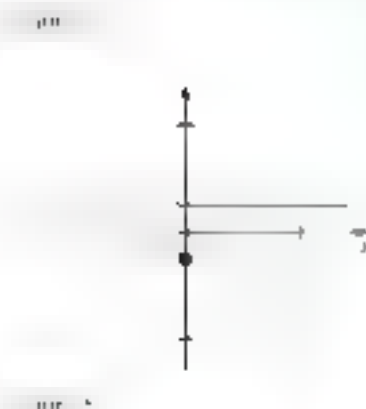
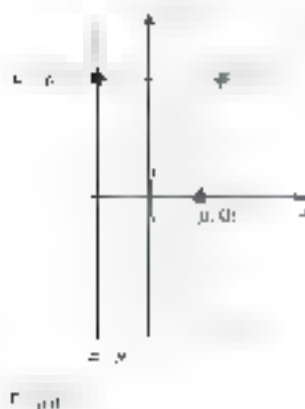
Figure 2



Figure 3

In each case, the curves are symmetric with respect to the line through the focus perpendicular to the directrix. We call this line the *major axis* of a conic. The





Figure

axis of the conic. A point where the conic crosses the axis is called a **vertex**. The parabola has one vertex, while the ellipse and hyperbola have two vertices.

**DEFINITION** A **parabola** is the set of points  $P$  that are equidistant from the directrix  $\ell$  and the focus  $F$ ; that is, points that satisfy

$$PF = |P\ell|$$

Figure 3 illustrates how we wish to derive the Cartesian equation and we want to be as simple as possible. The position of the coordinate axes has no effect on the curve but it does affect the simplicity of the curve's equation. Since a parabola is symmetric with respect to its axis of symmetry, place one of the coordinate axes, for instance the  $x$ -axis, along the axis. Let the focus  $F$  lie on the positive  $x$ -axis at  $(p, 0)$  and the directrix  $\ell$  to the left with equation  $x = -p$ . Then the vertex is at the origin. As this is shown in Figure 4.

From the condition  $PF = |P\ell|$  and the distance formula we get

$$\sqrt{(x-p)^2 + y^2} = |x + p| \quad \sqrt{(x-p)^2 + y^2} = x + p$$

After squaring both sides and simplifying, we obtain

$$y^2 = 4px$$

This is all of the **standard equation** of a horizontal parabola in standard form, ready to be right. Note that  $p > 0$  and that  $p < 0$  the distance  $p$  to the right of the vertex.

**EXAMPLE 1** Find the focus and directrix of the parabola with equation  $y^2 = 12x$ .

**SOLUTION** Since  $y^2 = 4px$  we see that  $p = 3$ . The focus is at  $(3, 0)$  on the  $x$ -axis,  $\ell$  the line  $x = -3$ .

There are three variants of the standard equation if we interchange the roles of  $x$  and  $y$  we obtain the equation  $x^2 = 4py$ . It is the equation of a vertical parabola with focus at  $(0, p)$  and directrix  $y = -p$ . Finally introducing a minus sign in front of the equation tells us the parabola opens to the left or right. A total of four cases are shown in Figure 5.

**EXAMPLE 2** Determine the focus and directrix of the parabola  $x^2 = 4y$  and sketch the graph.

**SOLUTION** We write  $x^2 = 4y$  from which we conclude the  $p = 1$ . The form of the equation tells us that the parabola is vertical and opens upward. The focus is at  $(0, 1)$ , the directrix is the line  $y = -1$ . The graph is shown in Figure 6.

**EXAMPLE 3** Find the equation of the parabola  $p$  with focus at  $(0, 5)$  and directrix at  $(0, 4)$ .

**SOLUTION** The parabola opens up and  $p = 5$ . The equation is  $y^2 = 4(5)x$  that is  $y^2 = 20x$ .

**EXAMPLE 4** Find the equation of the parabola with vertex at the origin that goes through  $(-2, 4)$  and opens left. Sketch the graph.

**SOLUTION** The equation has the form  $x^2 = 4py$ . Because  $(-2, 4)$  is on the graph  $4 = 4p(-2)$  from which  $p = -\frac{1}{2}$ . The desired equation is  $x^2 = -2y$  and its graph is sketched in Figure 7.

**FIGURE 10.1.1** A simple geometric property of a parabola is the basis of many important applications. If  $F$  is the focus and  $P$  is any point on the parabola, the angle of incidence at  $P$  makes equal angles with  $FP$  and the line  $GP$  which is parallel to the axis of the parabola (see Figure 10.1.1). A principle in optics says that when a light ray strikes a reflecting surface the angle of incidence is equal to the angle of reflection. It follows that if a parabola is revolved about its axis to form a bowl reflecting shell, all light rays from the focus after hitting the shell are reflected outward parallel to the axis. This property of the parabola is used in making searchlights with the light source placed at the focus. Conversely, it is used in certain telescopes and satellite dishes in which incoming parallel rays from a distant star or satellite are focused at a single point.

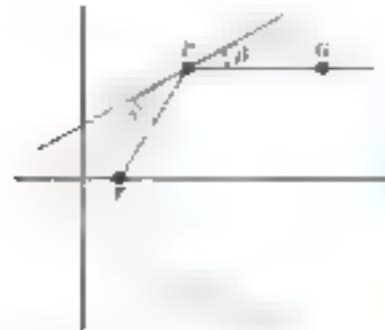
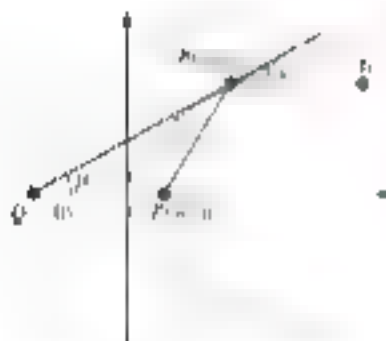


Figure 10.1.1



### EXAMPLE 5 Prove the optical property of the parabola.

**SOLUTION** In Figure 10.1.3 let  $Q$  be the intersection of the normal line to the parabola at  $P$  with the  $x$ -axis. We show that  $FP = FQ$ . At  $P(x_0, y_0)$  on  $y^2 = 4px$ ,  $\beta$  we reduce the problem to showing that the triangle  $FQP$  is isosceles.

First we derive the equation of the normal line at  $P(x_0, y_0)$ . Differentiating  $y^2 = 4px$  gives  $2y y' = 4p$ , from which we conclude that the slope of the tangent line at  $P(x_0, y_0)$  is  $2p/y_0$ . The equation of this line is

$$y - y_0 = \frac{2p}{y_0}(x - x_0).$$

Setting  $y = 0$  and solving for  $x$  gives  $-y_0 = (2p/y_0)(x - x_0)$ , or  $x - x_0 = -y_0^2/2p$ . Now  $y_0^2 = 4px_0$ , which gives  $x - x_0 = -2x_0$ , that is,  $x = -x_0$ .  $Q$  has coordinates  $(-x_0, 0)$ .

To show that the segments  $FP$  and  $FQ$  have equal length we use the distance formula:

$$\begin{aligned} |FP| &= \sqrt{(x_0 - p)^2 + y_0^2} = \sqrt{x_0^2 - 2x_0p + p^2 + 4px_0} \\ &= \sqrt{x_0^2 + 2x_0p + p^2} = x_0 + p = |FQ|. \end{aligned}$$

So, and others, the same laws of reflection apply to parabolas. Searchlights are used to pick up and concentrate sound from, for example, a distant part of a football stadium. Radar and radio telescopes are also based on the same principle.

There are many other applications of parabolas. For example, the path of a projectile is a parabola if air resistance and other minor forces are neglected. The cable of an evenly loaded suspension bridge takes the form of a parabola. Arches are often parabolic. The paths of some comets are parabolic.

## Concepts Review

- The set of points  $P$  satisfying  $|PF| = e|PL|$  (i.e., distance to the focus equals  $e$  times distance to the directrix) is an ellipse if  $e < 1$ , a parabola if  $e = 1$ , and a hyperbola if  $e > 1$ .
- The standard equation of a parabola, vertex at the origin and opening right, is  $y^2 = 4px$ .

## Problem Set 10.1

In Problems 1–8, find the coordinates of the focus and the equation of the directrix for each parabola. Make a sketch showing the parabola, its focus, and its directrix.

- $y^2 = 4x$
- $x^2 = -4y$
- $x^2 = -2y$
- $x^2 = 8y$
- $y^2 = 12x$
- $y^2 = -16x$
- $x^2 = 6y$
- $x^2 = -10y$

In Problems 9–14, find the standard equation of each parabola from the given information. Assume that the vertex is at the origin.

- Focus is at  $(2, 0)$
- Directrix is  $x = -2$
- Focus is at  $(-3, 0)$
- Focus is at  $(0, 3)$
- Focus is at  $(-4, 0)$
- Directrix is  $y = \frac{1}{2}$

15. Find the equation of the parabola with vertex at the origin and axis along the  $x$ -axis if the parabola passes through the point  $(-3, -3)$ . Make a sketch.

16. Find the equation of the parabola through the point  $(-2, 4)$  if its vertex is at the origin and its axis is along the  $x$ -axis. Make a sketch.

17. Find the equation of the parabola through the point  $(6, -5)$  if its vertex is at the origin and its axis is along the  $x$ -axis. Make a sketch.

18. Find the equation of the parabola whose vertex is the origin and whose axis is the  $y$ -axis if the parabola passes through the point  $(-3, 5)$ . Make a sketch.

In Problems 19–26, find the equations of the tangent and the normal lines to the given parabola at the given point. Sketch the parabola, the tangent line, and the normal line.

- $x^2 = 4y$ ,  $(1, 1)$
- $x^2 = 4y$ ,  $(-1, 1)$
- $x^2 = 2y$ ,  $(-1, 1)$
- $x^2 = 2y$ ,  $(1, 1)$
- $x^2 = 4y$ ,  $(-2, 1)$
- $x^2 = 4y$ ,  $(2, 1)$
- $x^2 = 4y$ ,  $(-1, 1)$
- $x^2 = 4y$ ,  $(1, 1)$

27. The slope of the tangent line to the parabola  $y^2 = 4x$  at a certain point on the parabola is  $\sqrt{3} - 1$ . Find the coordinates of that point. Make a sketch.

28. The slope of the tangent line to the parabola  $x^2 = -4y$  at a certain point on the parabola is  $-2\sqrt{2}/7$ . Find the coordinates of that point.

29. Find the equation of the tangent line to the parabola  $x^2 = 4y$  that is parallel to the line  $3x - 2y + 4 = 0$ .

30. Any line segment through the focus of a parabola with end points on the parabola is a **focal chord**. Prove that the tangent lines to a parabola at the end points of any focal chord intersect on the directrix.

31. The tangent line to  $x^2 = 4y$  has focus  $(-1, 1)$  and directrix  $y = 3$ . Find the equation of the tangent line.

32. The rays from a light source at the focus of a parabolic reflector are reflected in parallel beams. Prove that the focus is the point on the parabola closest to the directrix.

33. Prove that the tangents to a parabola at the end points of any focal chord are perpendicular to each other (see Problems 30).

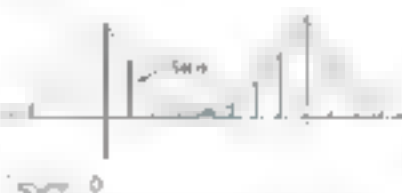
34. A chord of a parabola that is perpendicular to the axis and is not the vertex has length 4 units. How far from the vertex is the chord?

35. Prove that the vertex is the point on a parabola closest to the focus.

36. An asteroid from deep space is captured from the earth moving on a parabolic path with the earth as the focus. When the line from the earth to the asteroid first makes an angle of  $30^\circ$  with the axis of the parabola, the asteroid is 100 million miles away. How close will the asteroid come to the earth? (see Problem 33). Treat the earth as a point.

37. Work Problem 36, assuming that the angle is  $75^\circ$  rather than  $30^\circ$ .

38. The cables for the central span of a suspension bridge take the shape of a parabola (see Problem 41). If the towers are 200 meters apart and the cables are anchored to them at points 40 meters above the level of the bridge, how long must the vertical steel rods that are 100 meters from the tower? Assume that the cable touches the bridge deck at the midpoint of the bridge (Figure 10).



39. The focal chord that is perpendicular to the axis of a parabola is called the **latus rectum**. For the parabola  $y^2 = 4px$  in Figure 1, let  $F$  be the focus,  $R$  be any point on the parabola on the latus rectum, and  $L$  be the left vertex of the latus rectum with the line through  $R$  parallel to the axis. Find  $FR + RL$  and note that it is a constant.



Figure 1

Figure 2



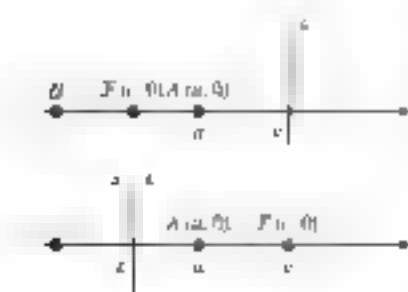


FIGURE 1

clear that  $A$  must lie between  $F$  and the line  $x = k$ . The two possible arrangements are shown in Figure 1. In the first case applying  $|PF| = e|PI|$  to the point  $P = A$  gives

$$(1) \quad a - c = e(k - a) = ek - ea$$

In the second case, applying  $|PF| = e|PI|$  to the point  $P = A$  gives

$$c - a = e(a - k) = ea - ek$$

which, when both sides are multiplied by  $-1$ , is seen to be equivalent to (1). Next, apply the relationship  $|PF| = e|PI|$  to the points  $A = (-a, 0)$  and  $B = (a, 0)$  on the line  $x = -k$ . This leads to

$$(2) \quad a + c = e(a + k) = ea + ek$$

When equations (1) and (2) are solved for  $e$  and  $k$  we get

$$ea \text{ and } k = \frac{a}{e}.$$

If  $0 < e < 1$ , then  $e = ea < a$  and  $k = a/e > a$ . Thus for the case of an ellipse, the focus  $F$  is to the left of the  $y$ -axis,  $x = 0$ , and the directrix  $x = k$  lies to the right of  $A$ . On the other hand, if  $e > 1$ , then  $e = ea > a$  and  $k = a/e < a$ . For the case of a hyperbola, the directrix  $x = k$  lies to the left of  $A$  and the focus  $F$  lies to the right of  $A$ . The two situations are shown in Figures 2 and 3.

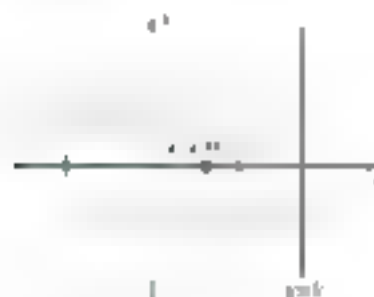


Figure 2

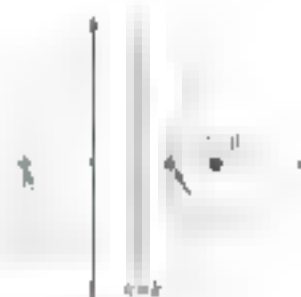


Figure 3

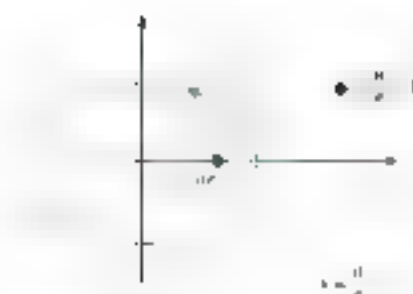


FIGURE 4

As in Figure 4, let  $P(x, y)$  be any point on the ellipse (or hyperbola). Then  $P(x, y)$ 's projection on the directrix (see Figure 4 for the case of the ellipse) is the point  $(a/e, y)$ . The condition  $|PF| = e|PI|$  becomes

$$\sqrt{(x - c)^2 + y^2} = e \sqrt{\left(x - \frac{a}{e}\right)^2 + y^2}.$$

Squaring both members and collecting terms we obtain the equivalent equation

$$x^2 - 2cex + a^2 = e^2 \left( x^2 - \frac{2ax}{e} + \frac{a^2}{e^2} + y^2 \right).$$

or

$$1 - e^2 = \frac{2c - 2ae}{e} = \frac{2(a - c)}{e}.$$

or

$$\frac{a - c}{a} = \frac{1 - e^2}{e}.$$

Because this last equation contains  $x$  and  $y$  only to even powers, it corresponds to a curve that is symmetric with respect to both the  $x$ - and  $y$ -axis and the origin.

Also, because of this symmetry, there must be a second focus at  $(-c, 0)$  and a second directrix at  $x = -a/e$ . The axis containing the two foci and the two directrices is the **major axis**, and the axis perpendicular to it and through the center is the **minor axis**.

Since  $a$ ,  $b$ ,  $c$ ,  $p$ ,  $a/e$ ,  $-c$ ,  $-a/e$  are all positive, for the ellipse,  $c = \sqrt{a^2 - b^2}$  and  $p = a^2/c$  are also positive. To simplify notation, let  $b = a\sqrt{1 - e^2}$ . Then the equation derived above takes the form

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$$

which is called the **standard equation of an ellipse**. Since  $0 < e < 1$ , the numbers  $a$ ,  $b$ , and  $c$  satisfy the Pythagorean relationship  $a^2 = b^2 + c^2$ . In Figure 5, the shaded rectangle captures the relationship  $a = b + c$ . Thus the number  $2a$  is the **major diameter**, whereas  $2b$  is the **minor diameter**.



Consider now the effect of changing the value of  $e$ . If  $e$  is near zero ( $0 < e \ll 1$ ),  $c$  is small relative to  $a$ ; the ellipse is thin and very **eccentric**. On the other hand, for a great ellipse,  $c$  is close to  $a$ , so  $e$  is close to 1. In the extreme case,  $e = 1$  and we are dealing (Figure 6) with the parabola, where  $b = 0$ ; the equation takes the form

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{0} = 1$$

which is equivalent to  $x^2 + y^2 = a^2$ . This is the equation of a circle, if not as we centered at the origin.

### EXAMPLE 1 Sketch the graph of

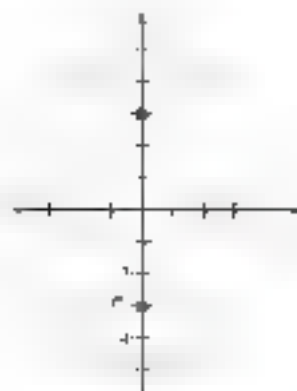
$$\frac{x^2}{36} + \frac{y^2}{4} = 1$$

and determine its foci and eccentricity.

**SOLUTION** Since  $a = 6$  and  $b = 2$ , we calculate

$$c = \sqrt{a^2 - b^2} = \sqrt{36 - 4} = \sqrt{32} = 4\sqrt{2} \approx 5.66$$

The foci are at  $(\pm c, 0) = (\pm 4\sqrt{2}, 0)$  and  $e = c/a = 2\sqrt{2}/3$ . The graph is sketched in Figure 7. ■



We call the ellipses sketched so far *horizontal ellipses* because the major axis is horizontal. If we interchange the roles of  $x$  and  $y$ , we have the equation of a vertical ellipse:

$$\frac{y^2}{a^2} + \frac{x^2}{b^2} = 1 \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{x^2}{b^2} + \frac{y^2}{a^2} = 1$$

### EXAMPLE 2 Sketch the graph of

$$\frac{x^2}{16} - \frac{y^2}{25} = 1$$

and determine its foci and eccentricity.

**SOLUTION** The larger square is now under  $x^2$ , which tells us that the major axis is vertical. Noting that  $a^2 = 25$  and  $b^2 = 16$ , we conclude that  $c^2 = \sqrt{25^2 - 16^2} = 9$ . Thus, the foci are  $(0, \pm 3)$ , and  $e = c/a = 3/5 = 0.6$  (Figure 10.34). ■

For the hyperbola  $\frac{x^2}{a^2} - \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$ , we have  $c^2 = a^2 + b^2$ . For the hyperbola  $\frac{y^2}{a^2} - \frac{x^2}{b^2} = 1$ ,  $c^2 = a^2 + b^2$  is positive. If we let  $b = a\sqrt{e^2 - 1}$ , then the equation  $r^2/a^2 + y^2/(1 - e^2)a^2 = 1$ , which was derived earlier, takes the form

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} - \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$$

This is called the **standard equation of a hyperbola**. Since  $c > a$ , we know that  $e > 1$ . Note how this differs from the case expressing the ellipse in polar coordinates.

To interpret  $b$ , observe that if we solve for  $y$  in terms of  $x$ , we get

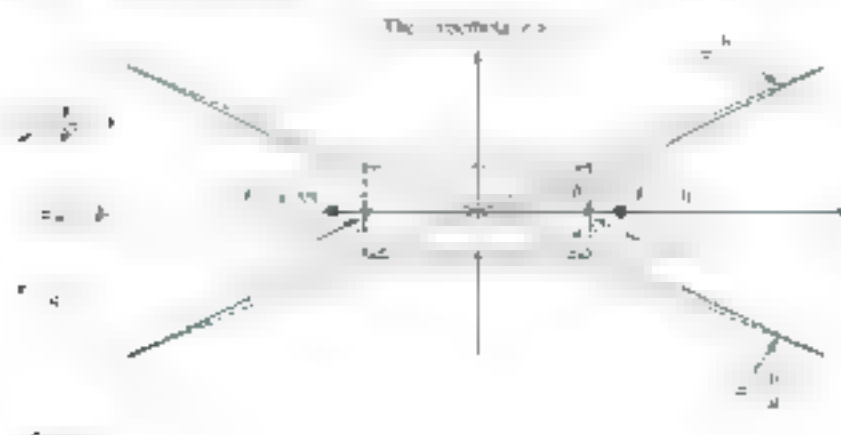
$$y = \pm \frac{b}{a} \sqrt{x^2 - a^2}$$

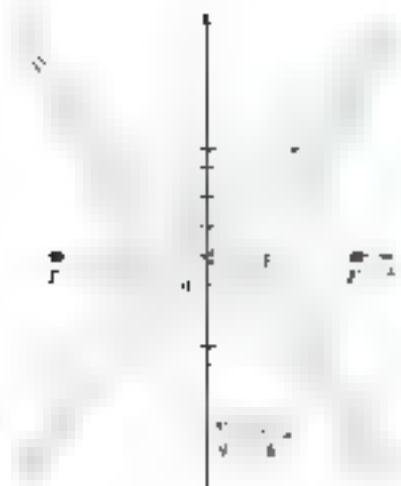
For large  $x$ ,  $\sqrt{x^2 - a^2}$  behaves like  $x$  (i.e.,  $(\sqrt{x^2 - a^2} - x) \rightarrow 0$  as  $x \rightarrow \infty$ , see Problem 70) and hence  $y$  behaves like

$$y = \pm \frac{b}{a}x \quad \text{or} \quad y = \pm \frac{b}{a}x$$

More precisely, the graph of the given hyperbola has these two lines as asymptotes.

The important facts for the hyperbola are summarized in Figure 10.35. As with the ellipse, here a right triangle is used to shade in the normal. This triangle has legs  $a$  and  $b$ . This **fundamental triangle** determines the angle  $\alpha$  measured from the  $x$ -axis to the side of length  $2a$  in Figure 10.35. The extended diagonals of this rectangle are the asymptotes mentioned above.





**EXAMPLE 3** Sketch the graph of

$$\frac{x^2}{9} - \frac{y^2}{16} = 1$$

showing the asymptotes. What are the equations of the asymptotes? What are the foci?

**SOLUTION** We begin by determining the fundamental triangle it has. Horizontal leg 3 and vertical leg 4. After drawing it, we can indicate the asymptotes and sketch the graph (Figure 10). The asymptotes are  $y = \frac{4}{3}x$  and  $y = -\frac{4}{3}x$ . Since  $c = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2} = \sqrt{9 + 16} = 5$ , the foci are at  $(\pm 5, 0)$ . ■

Again, we should consider the effect of interchanging the roles of  $x$  and  $y$ . The equation takes the form

$$\frac{y^2}{a^2} - \frac{x^2}{b^2} = 1$$

It is the equation of a vertical hyperbola with center at the origin. For example, if  $a = 10$  and  $b = 5$ , its foci are at  $(0, \pm 11)$ .

For both the ellipse and the hyperbola,  $a$  is always the distance from the center to a vertex. For the ellipse,  $a > b$ ; for the hyperbola, there is no such requirement.

**EXAMPLE 4** Determine the foci of

$$-\frac{x^2}{4} - \frac{y^2}{9} = 1$$

and sketch its graph.

**SOLUTION** We note immediately that this is a vertical hyperbola, which is determined by the fact that the minus sign is associated with the  $y$  term. Thus  $a = 3$  and  $b = 2$ , with  $c = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2} = 4 = \sqrt{3^2 + 2^2}$ . The foci are at  $(0, \pm 4)$  (Figure 11). ■

**EXAMPLE 5** According to Johannes Kepler (1571–1630), the planets revolve around the sun in elliptical orbits with the sun at one focus. The earth's maximum distance from the sun is 94.56 million miles, and its minimum distance is 91.45 million miles. What is the eccentricity of its orbit, and what are its major and minor diameters?

**SOLUTION** Using the notation in Figure 12, we see that

$$a + c = 94.56 \quad a - c = 91.45$$

When we solve these equations for  $a$  and  $c$ , we obtain  $a \approx 93$  and  $c \approx 56$ . Thus

$$e = \frac{c}{a} = \frac{56}{93} \approx 0.602$$

and the major diameter and minor diameter (in millions of miles) are, respectively,

$$2a \approx 186.02 \quad 2b = 2\sqrt{a^2 - c^2} \approx 185.99$$

So, to the precision of the data, the orbit of Earth is a circle. We have chosen to define conic sections in terms of the condition  $|PF_1 - PF_2| = 2a$ , where  $a$  is positive for an ellipse ( $0 < e < 1$ ) and a hyperbola ( $e > 1$ ). This approach allows us to treat all conics in a unified way. Many authors prefer to define the ellipse and hyperbola via the following definitions.

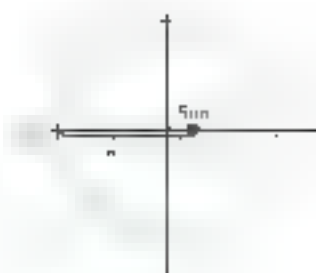
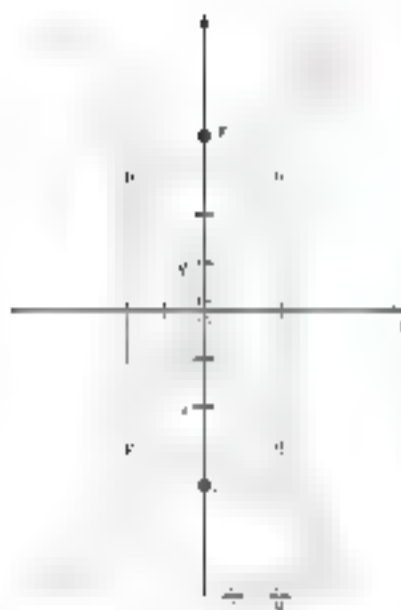


Figure 12



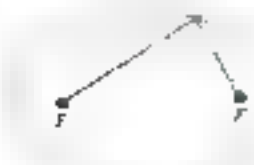
Figure 3 Ellipse  $|PF| + |PF'| = 2a$ 

Figure 3

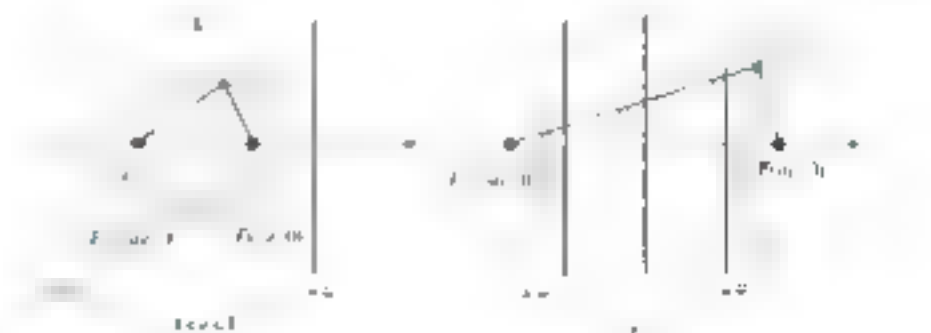
Figure 4 Hyperbola  $||PF| - |PF'|| = 2a$ 

Figure 4

An ellipse is the set of points in the plane, the sum of whose distances from two fixed points (the foci) is a given constant  $2a$ . A hyperbola is the set of points in the plane, the difference of whose distances from two fixed points is a given positive constant  $2a$ . Here *difference* is taken to mean the larger minus the smaller distance.

These definitions are illustrated in Figure 3 and 4. For the ellipse imagine a string of length  $2a$  tacked down at its two endpoints. If a pencil is used to stretch the string at point  $P$ , then the ellipse can be traced by moving the pencil around. These properties, called the *string-and-nails* and *ice-cream-cone* definitions, are also called *eccentricity* definitions. We derive them now.

Suppose  $a$  and  $c$  are given. We know that the foci are due to  $c$  and the directrices are due to  $a$ . The equations for an ellipse and hyperbola are illustrated in Figure 15.



If we take an arbitrary point  $P(x, y)$  on the ellipse then, from the definition  $|PF| + |PF'| = 2a$ , applying first to the left focus and then to the right focus, we get

$$|PF| = \sqrt{c^2 + y^2} = \frac{c}{a} \left( a + \frac{a^2 - c^2}{c} \right) \quad |PF'| = \sqrt{c^2 + y^2} = \frac{c}{a} \left( a - \frac{a^2 - c^2}{c} \right)$$

and so

$$|PF'| + |PF| = 2a$$

Now consider the hyperbola with  $P(x, y)$  on the right branch as shown in the right part of Figure 15. Then

$$|PF| = \sqrt{c^2 + y^2} = \frac{c}{a} \left( x + \frac{a^2 - c^2}{c} \right) \quad |PF'| = \sqrt{c^2 + y^2} = \frac{c}{a} \left( x - \frac{a^2 - c^2}{c} \right)$$

and so  $|PF| - |PF'| = 2a$ . If  $P(x, y)$  had been on the left branch we would have gotten  $-2a$  in place of  $2a$ . In either case,

$$||PF'| - |PF|| = 2a$$

**EXAMPLE 1** Find the equation of the set of points the sum of whose distances from  $(\pm 3, 0)$  is equal to 10.

**SOLUTION** This is a horizontal ellipse with  $a = 5$  and  $c = 3$ . Thus  $b = \sqrt{a^2 - c^2} = 4$ , and the equation is

$$\frac{x^2}{25} + \frac{y^2}{16} = 1$$

**EXAMPLE 7** Find the equation of the set of points the difference of whose distances from  $(0, \pm 6)$  is equal to 4.

**SOLUTION** This is a vertical hyperbola with  $a = 2$  and  $c = 6$ . Thus,  $b = \sqrt{c^2 - a^2} = \sqrt{36 - 4} = \sqrt{32} = 4\sqrt{2}$  and the equation is

$$\frac{y^2}{4} - \frac{x^2}{32} = 1.$$

### Lenses

The optical properties of the convex hyperbolae discussed in the preceding section are of great importance in the construction of variable lenses to replace bifocal lenses in eyeglasses. Starting from the top, here follows an explanation of the second property stated in the preceding section.

When producing horizontal cross sections from ellipses or parabolas to be used in lenses, it is not always possible to produce a hyperbola, even if cut off on an appropriate side of the hyperbola.

Consider two mirrors, one with the shape of an ellipse and the other with the shape of a hyperbola. A light ray emanating from one focus strikes the mirror; it will be reflected back to the other focus in the case of the ellipse and away from the other focus in the case of the hyperbola. These facts are shown in Figure 16.

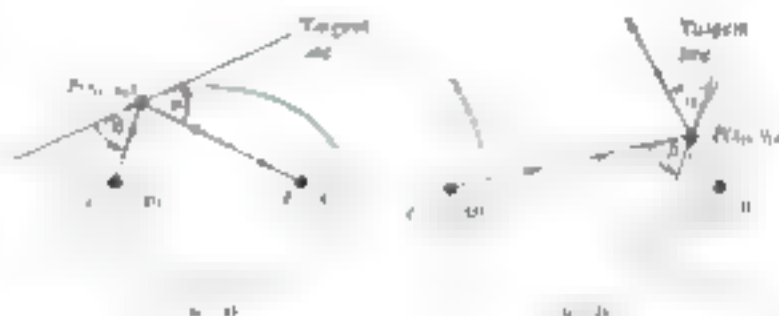


Figure 16

To determine that these optical properties hold, let us show that in both parts of Figure 16, we suppose the curves to be oriented such that their focal equations are  $x^2/a^2 + y^2/b^2 = 1$  and  $x^2/a^2 - y^2/b^2 = 1$ , respectively. For the ellipse, we differentiate implicitly to find the slope of the tangent line:

$$\frac{2x}{a^2} + \frac{2y}{b^2} \frac{dy}{dx} = 0$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{b^2}{a^2} \frac{x}{y}$$

The slope of the tangent line at  $(x_0, y_0)$  is  $m = -b^2/a^2 (x_0/y_0)$ . Thus, the equation of the tangent line may be written successively as

$$\begin{aligned} y - y_0 &= m(x - x_0) \\ y - y_0 &= -\frac{b^2}{a^2} \frac{x_0}{y_0} (x - x_0) \\ \frac{y - y_0}{y_0} &= -\frac{b^2}{a^2} \frac{x - x_0}{x_0} \\ \frac{y - y_0}{y_0} &= -\frac{b^2}{a^2} \frac{x}{x_0} + \frac{b^2}{a^2} \frac{x_0}{x_0} \\ \frac{y - y_0}{y_0} &= -\frac{b^2}{a^2} \frac{x}{x_0} + 1 \end{aligned}$$

To calculate  $\tan \phi$  for the ellipse, we recall (Problem 40 of Section 0.2) a formula for the tangent of the angle between two lines in terms of their respective slopes  $m_1$  and  $m_2$ :

$$\tan \phi = \left| \frac{m_1 - m_2}{1 + m_1 m_2} \right|$$

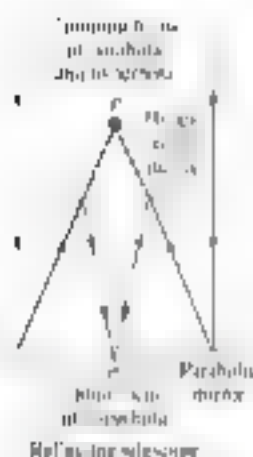
Now refer to Figure 16 and let  $r$  be the line  $FP$  and  $\alpha$  be the angle  $\angle OPF$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned}\tan \alpha &= \frac{h - y_0}{x_0} = \frac{0}{x_0} = 0 & \text{if } x_0 = 0 & \text{and } y_0 = 0 \\ &= \frac{h - y_0}{x_0} = \frac{h - y_0}{x_0} = \frac{h - y_0}{x_0} & \text{if } x_0 \neq 0 & \text{and } y_0 = 0 \\ &= \frac{h - y_0}{x_0} = \frac{h - y_0}{x_0} = \frac{h - y_0}{x_0} & \text{if } x_0 \neq 0 & \text{and } y_0 \neq 0 \\ &= \frac{h - y_0}{x_0} = \frac{h - y_0}{x_0} = \frac{h - y_0}{x_0} & \text{if } x_0 \neq 0 & \text{and } y_0 \neq 0\end{aligned}$$

The same calculation with  $r$  replaced by  $-r$  gives

$$\tan \alpha = \frac{h}{y_0}$$

and so  $\alpha = \arctan \frac{h}{y_0}$ . We conclude that  $\alpha = \arctan \frac{h}{y_0}$  if  $y_0 \neq 0$  and  $\alpha = 0$  if  $y_0 = 0$ . A similar derivation establishes the corresponding result for the left branch.



**Example 1** The reflecting property of the ellipse is the result of the same *one-to-one* effect that can be observed for example in the focusing of the Moon on the Earth and many science-fiction stories. A speaker standing at one focus of the ellipse whispers to a friend at the other focus and the listener hears the voice as if it were in other parts of the room.

The optical properties of the parabola and ellipse are combined in one design for a reflecting telescope, see Figure 17. The primary mirror is a parabola focused at the eyepiece at  $F'$ .

The strong property of the hyperbola is used in navigation. A ship at sea can determine the difference between distances from two fixed stations by measuring the difference in reception times of synchronized radio signals. This puts the ship on a hyperbola with the two stations as foci. Figure 18 shows a pair of intersecting pairs of hyperbolas and a curve representing the intersection of the two corresponding hyperbolas. The RAN (radio navigation) long-range navigation, is based on this principle.



Figure 16

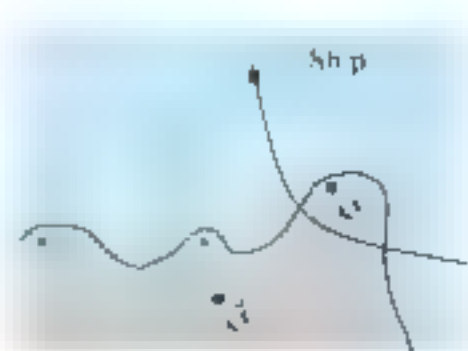


Figure 17

## Concepts Review

1. The standard equation of the horizontal ellipse centered at  $(h, k)$  is \_\_\_\_\_.
2. The standard equation of the vertical ellipse centered at  $(h, k)$  that has major diameter  $2a$  and minor diameter  $2b$  is \_\_\_\_\_.

3. An ellipse is the set of points  $P$  satisfying  $|PF| + |PF'| = 2a$ , where  $F$  and  $F'$  are fixed points called the \_\_\_\_\_.

4. A ray from a light source at one focus of an elliptical mirror will be reflected \_\_\_\_\_, whereas a ray from a light source at one focus of a hyperbolic mirror will be reflected \_\_\_\_\_.

## Problem Set 10.2

In Problems 1–4, name the curve (horizontal ellipse, vertical ellipse, parabola, and so on) corresponding to the given equation.

1.  $\frac{x^2}{9} + \frac{y^2}{4} = 1$
2.  $\frac{x^2}{4} - \frac{y^2}{9} = 1$
3.  $\frac{x^2}{9} + \frac{y^2}{4} = 1$
4.  $\frac{x^2}{4} - \frac{y^2}{9} = 1$
5.  $\frac{x^2}{9} + \frac{y^2}{4} = 1$
6.  $\frac{x^2}{4} - \frac{y^2}{9} = 1$
7.  $\frac{x^2}{9} + \frac{y^2}{4} = 1$
8.  $\frac{x^2}{4} - \frac{y^2}{9} = 1$

In Problems 9–12, sketch the graph of the given equation. Indicate any vertices, foci, and asymptotes if it is a hyperbola.

9.  $\frac{x^2}{9} + \frac{y^2}{4} = 1$
10.  $\frac{x^2}{9} - \frac{y^2}{4} = 1$
11.  $\frac{x^2}{9} + \frac{y^2}{4} = 1$
12.  $\frac{x^2}{9} - \frac{y^2}{4} = 1$
13.  $\frac{x^2}{9} + \frac{y^2}{4} = 1$
14.  $\frac{x^2}{9} - \frac{y^2}{4} = 1$
15.  $\frac{x^2}{9} + \frac{y^2}{4} = 1$
16.  $\frac{x^2}{9} - \frac{y^2}{4} = 1$

In Problems 17–41, find the equation of the given central conic.

17. Ellipse with a focus at  $(-3, 0)$  and a vertex at  $(4, 0)$
18. Ellipse with a focus at  $(5, 0)$  and eccentricity  $\frac{1}{2}$
19. Ellipse with a focus at  $(0, -5)$  and eccentricity  $\frac{1}{2}$
20. Ellipse with a focus at  $(0, 3)$  and minor diameter  $8$
21. Ellipse with a vertex at  $(3, 0)$  and passing through  $(2, 3)$
22. Hyperbola with a focus at  $(4, 0)$  and a vertex at  $(3, 0)$
23. Hyperbola with a vertex at  $(3, -1)$  and a focus at  $(4, -3)$
24. Hyperbola with a vertex at  $(0, -3)$  and eccentricity  $\frac{1}{2}$
25. Hyperbola with asymptotes  $2x \pm 3y = 0$  and a vertex at  $(8, 0)$
26. Vertical hyperbola with eccentricity  $\sqrt{6}$  that passes through  $(2, 4)$
27. Ellipse with foci  $(\pm 2, 0)$  and directrices  $x = \pm 8$
28. Hyperbola with foci  $(\pm 4, 0)$  and directrices  $x = \pm 1$
29. Hyperbola whose asymptotes are  $x \pm 2y = 0$  and that passes through the point  $(4, 3)$
30. Horizontal ellipse that passes through  $(-5, 3)$  and  $(-4, 2)$

In Problems 31–34, find the equation of the set of points  $P$  satisfying the given condition.

31. The sum of the distances of  $P$  from  $(0, -3)$  is  $2a$ .

32. The sum of the distances of  $P$  from  $(-4, 0)$  is  $4$ .

33. The difference of the distances of  $P$  from  $(\pm 7, 0)$  is  $\pm 2$ .

34. The difference of the distances of  $P$  from  $(0, \pm 6)$  is  $0$ .

In Problems 35–42, find the equation of the tangent line to the given curve at the given point.

35.  $\frac{x^2}{9} + \frac{y^2}{4} = 1$  at  $(3, 1)$

36.  $\frac{x^2}{9} + \frac{y^2}{4} = 1$  at  $(-3, 1)$

37.  $\frac{x^2}{9} + \frac{y^2}{4} = 1$  at  $(3, -1)$

38.  $\frac{x^2}{9} - \frac{y^2}{4} = 1$  at  $(3, 1)$

39.  $\frac{x^2}{9} - \frac{y^2}{4} = 1$  at  $(-3, 1)$

40.  $\frac{x^2}{9} - \frac{y^2}{4} = 1$  at  $(3, -1)$

41. The curve of Problem 37 at  $(3, 1)$

42. The curve of Problem 38 at  $(-3, 1)$

43. A doorway in the shape of an elliptical arch (a half ellipse) is 10 feet wide and 4 feet high at the center. A box 3 feet high is to be pushed through the doorway. How wide can the box be?

44. How high is the arch of Problem 43 at a distance 3 feet to the right of the center?

45. A box 3 feet high is to be pushed through a doorway in the shape of a half ellipse. How wide can the box be if the doorway is 10 feet high at the center?

46. Determine the length of the latus rectum (see Problem 25) of the hyperbola  $x^2 - y^2 = 1$ .

47. Halley's comet has an elliptical orbit with major and minor diameters of 46.1 AU and 9.12 AU, respectively (1 AU is 1.496  $\times 10^8$  km). How close does the comet come to the sun? What is its minimum distance to the sun, assuming the sun is at a focus?

48. The orbit of the comet Encke is an ellipse with eccentricity  $e = 0.049373$  with the sun at a focus. If its minimum distance to the sun is 0.913 AU, what is its maximum distance to the sun? (See Problem 47.)

49. In 1957 Russia launched Sputnik 1. Its elliptical orbit around the earth reached maximum and minimum distances from the earth of 583 miles and 312 miles, respectively. Assuming that the center of the earth is one focus and that the earth is a sphere of radius 4000 miles, find the eccentricity of the orbit.

50. The orbit of the planet Pluto has an eccentricity 0.349. The closest that Pluto comes to the sun is 39.65 AU, and the farthest is 44.4 AU. Find the major and minor diameters.

51. If two tangent lines to the ellipse  $9x^2 + 4y^2 = 36$  meet at the point  $(4, 6)$ , find the points of tangency.

52. If the tangent lines to the hyperbola  $9x^2 - y^2 = 36$  intersect the  $y$ -axis at  $(0, 6)$ , find the points of tangency.

53. The slope of the tangent line to the hyperbola

$$\frac{x^2}{16} - \frac{y^2}{9} = 1$$

at two points on the hyperbola is  $\frac{1}{2}$ . What are the coordinates of the points of tangency?

54. Find the equations of the tangent lines to the ellipse  $x^2 + 3y^2 - 2 = 0$  that are parallel to the line

$$3x - 3\sqrt{2}y - 7 = 0$$

55. Find the area of the ellipse  $b^2x^2 + a^2y^2 = a^2b^2$ .

56. Find the volume of the solid obtained by revolving the ellipse  $a^2x^2 + a'^2y^2 = a^2b^2$  about the  $x$ -axis.

57. The region bounded by the hyperbola

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} - \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$$

and a vertical line through a focus is revolved about the  $x$ -axis. Find the volume of the resulting solid.

58. If the ellipse of Problem 56 is revolved about the  $y$ -axis, find the volume of the resulting solid.

59. Find the dimensions of the rectangle having the greatest possible area that can be inscribed in the ellipse  $bx^2 + ay^2 = a^2b^2$ . Assume that the sides of the rectangle are parallel to the axes of the ellipse.

60. Show that the point of contact of any tangent line to a hyperbola is midway between the points at which the tangent intersects the asymptotes.

61. Find the point in the first quadrant where the two hyperbolas  $25x^2 - 9y^2 = 225$  and  $-25x^2 + 18y^2 = 450$  intersect.

62. Find the points of intersection of  $x^2 + 4y^2 = 20$  and  $x^2 - 4y^2 = 16$ .

63. Sketch a design for a reflecting telescope that uses a parabola and an ellipse rather than a parabola and a hyperbola as described in the example shown in Figure 17.

64. A ball placed at a focus of an elliptical billiard table is shot with tremendous force so that it can bounce off the cushions indefinitely. Describe its ultimate path? *Hint:* Draw a picture.

65. If the orbit of Problem 64 is initially on the minor axis between a focus and the neighboring vertex, what can you say about its path?

66. Show that an ellipse and a hyperbola with the same two foci intersect at right angles. *Hint:* Draw a picture and use the optical properties.

67. Describe a string apparatus for constructing a hyperbola. (There are several possibilities.)

68. Struts travel at 4 feet per second and a rifle bullet at 400 feet per second. The sound of the firing of a rifle and the

impact of the bullet hitting the target were heard simultaneously. If the rifle was at  $A(-1, 0)$ , the target was at  $B(4, 0)$ , and the observer was at  $P(x, y)$ , find the equation of the curve on which  $P$  lies. (Is it true or false?)

69. Locusts  $A(-2, 0)$ ,  $B(2, 0)$ , and  $C(8, 10)$  recorded the exact time at which the leaves of a tree were hit.  $B$  and  $C$  heard the echoes of the same time and 4 hours<sup>2</sup> seconds later, where  $t$  is the exact time. Assume that distances are in kilometers. What is the value of  $t$  in hours?

70. Show that  $\frac{1}{a} + \frac{1}{b} = \frac{1}{c}$  for  $a, b, c$  in an Arithmetic mean, the same as

71. For an ellipse let  $p$  and  $q$  be the distances from a focus to the two vertices. Show that  $b = \sqrt{pq}$ , with  $2b$  being the minor diameter.

72. The wheel in Figure 30 is rotating at 1 radian per second so that  $Q$  has coordinates  $(a \cos t, a \sin t)$ . Find the coordinates  $(x, y)$  of  $R$  at time  $t$  and show that it is traveling in an elliptical path. Show  $\angle PQR$  is a right triangle when  $P \neq R$  and  $R \neq Q$ .



73. Let  $P$  be a point on a ladder of length  $a + b$ ,  $P$  being  $a$  units from the top end. As the ladder slides with its top end on the  $y$ -axis and its bottom end on the  $x$ -axis,  $P$  traces out a curve. Find the equation of the curve.

74. Show that a line through a focus of a hyperbola and perpendicular to an asymptote intersects that asymptote on the directrix nearest the focus.

75. If a horizontal hyperbola and a vertical hyperbola have the same asymptotes, show that their semi-axes  $a$  and  $b$  satisfy  $a^2 - b^2 = 1$ .

76. Let  $C$  be the curve of intersection of a right circular cylinder and a plane making an angle  $\phi$ ,  $0 < \phi < \pi/2$ , with the axis of the cylinder. Show that  $C$  is an ellipse.

77. Using the same axes, draw the conics  $y = \frac{1}{x}$  for  $-2 \leq x \leq 2$  and  $-2 \leq y \leq 2$  using  $x = \frac{1}{t}$ ,  $y = \frac{1}{t}$ . Make a conjecture about how the shape of the figure depends on  $a$ .

78. Let  $x^2 + y^2 + x^2 + y^2 = 1$ . Is the point  $(1, 0)$  in the ellipse directly away from the other focus?

## 10.3 Translation and Rotation of Axes

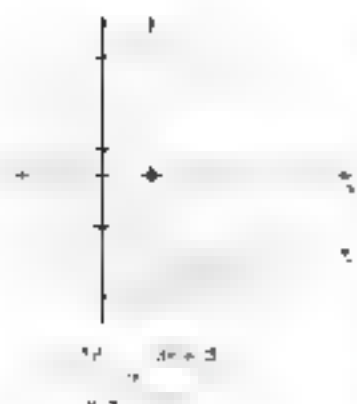


Figure 1



Figure 2

So far we have placed the conics in the coordinate system in very special ways: always with the major axis along one of the coordinate axes and either the vertex (in the case of a parabola) or the center (in the case of an ellipse or hyperbola) at the origin. Now we place our conics in a more general manner, though we still require that the major axis be parallel to one of the coordinate axes. Even this restriction will be removed later in this section.

The case of a circle is instructive. For a circle of radius 5 centered at  $(2, 3)$  has equation

$$(x - 2)^2 + (y - 3)^2 = 25$$

or in equivalent expanded form

$$x^2 + y^2 - 4x - 6y = 12$$

The same circle with its center at the origin of the  $xy$ -coordinate system (Figure 1) has the simple equation

$$u^2 + v^2 = 25$$

The introduction of new axes does not change the shape or size of a curve, but merely shifts its location. In equations (1) and (2), we have performed a **translation** (changing change of variables) in an equation that we wish to investigate.

**DEFINITION** If new axes are chosen in the plane, each point will have two sets of coordinates: the old ones  $(x, y)$ , relative to the old axes, and the new ones  $(u, v)$ , relative to the new axes. The original coordinates  $(x, y)$  undergo a **transformation**. If the new axes are parallel to the  $x$ - and  $y$ -axes and both axes have the same directions and scales, then the transformation is called a **translation of axes**.

From Figure 2 it is easy to see how the new coordinates  $(u, v)$  relate to the old ones  $(x, y)$ . Let  $(h, k)$  be the old coordinates of the new origin. Then

$$u = x - h \quad v = y - k$$

or equivalently

$$x = u + h \quad y = v + k$$

**EXAMPLE 1** Find the new coordinates of  $P(-6, 5)$  after a translation of axes to a new origin at  $(2, -4)$ .

**SOLUTION** Since  $h = 2$  and  $k = -4$ , it follows that

$$u = x - h = -6 - 2 = -8 \quad v = y - k = 5 - (-4) = 9$$

The new coordinates are  $(-8, 9)$ . ■

**EXAMPLE 2** Given the equation  $4x^2 + y^2 + 40x - 2y + 97 = 0$ , find the equation of its graph after a translation with new origin  $(-5, 1)$ .

**SOLUTION** In the equation, we replace  $x$  by  $u + h = u - 5$  and  $y$  by  $v + k = v + 1$ . We obtain

$$4(u - 5)^2 + (v + 1)^2 + 40(u - 5) - 2(v + 1) + 97 = 0$$

or

$$4u^2 - 40u + 100 + v^2 + 2v + 1 + 40u - 200 - 2v - 2 + 97 = 0$$

This simplifies to

$$4u^2 + v^2 = 4$$

or

$$x^2 + y^2 = 1$$

which we recognize as the equation of an ellipse. ■

**EXAMPLE 3** Given a complicated second-degree equation, how do we know what translation will simplify the equation into the form (1)? We can complete the square to eliminate the first-degree terms in any expression of the form

$$Ax + Cy^2 + Dx + Ey + F = 0, \quad A \neq 0, \quad C \neq 0$$

**EXAMPLE 4** Make a translation that will eliminate the first-degree terms of

$$4x^2 + 9y^2 + 2x - 10y + 193 = 0$$

and use this information to sketch the graph of the given equation.

**SOLUTION** Recall that to complete the square  $4x^2 + 2x$ , we must add  $\frac{1}{4}$  (the square of half the coefficient of  $x$ ). Similarly, we rewrite the given equation by adding the same numbers to both sides.

$$\begin{aligned} 4x^2 + 2x + 1 + 9y^2 - 10y + 25 &= -193 + 1 + 225 \\ 4(x + \frac{1}{4})^2 + 9(y - \frac{5}{3})^2 &= 30 \\ \frac{(x + \frac{1}{4})^2}{\frac{30}{4}} + \frac{(y - \frac{5}{3})^2}{\frac{30}{9}} &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

The translation  $u = x + \frac{1}{4}$  and  $v = y - \frac{5}{3}$  transforms this to

$$\frac{u^2}{\frac{15}{2}} + \frac{v^2}{\frac{10}{3}} = 1$$

which is the standard form of a horizontal ellipse. The graph is shown in Figure 4. ■

**EXAMPLE 4** Use a translation to simplify

$$x^2 - 12y + 30 = 4x - 28 + 36$$

Then determine which conic it represents, and the important characteristics of this conic, and sketch its graph.

**SOLUTION** We complete the square

$$\begin{aligned} x^2 - 4x + 4 + 36 - 12y &= 36 - 28 + 36 \\ x^2 - 12y + 30 &= 4x - 28 + 36 \\ (x - 2)^2 &= 4(y + 2) \end{aligned}$$

The translation  $u = x - 2$  and  $v = y + 2$  transforms this to  $u^2 = 4v$ , which we recognize as a horizontal parabola opening right with  $p = 1$  (Figure 4). ■

**FIGURE 4** Now we ask an important question: Is the graph of an equation of the form

$$Ax^2 + Cy^2 + Dx + Ey + F = 0$$

always a conic? The answer is no; not always. Let's see what is missing for us. The following table indicates the possibilities with a sample equation for each.

Thus the graphs of the general quadratic equation above fall into three general categories, but yield nine different possibilities, including limiting forms.

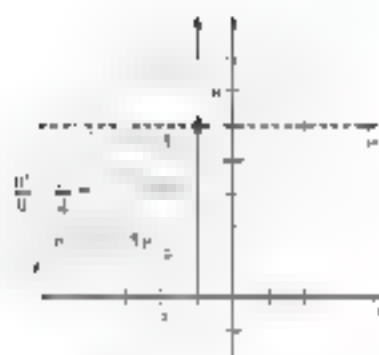


FIGURE 3

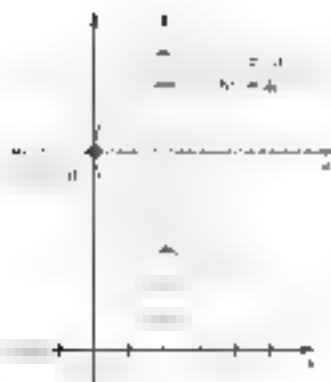


FIGURE 4

## Conics

 $AC = 0$  Parabola:  $y^2 = 4x$ 

 $AC > 0$  Ellipse:  $\frac{x^2}{16} + \frac{y^2}{9} = 1$ 

 $AC < 0$  Hyperbola:  $\frac{x^2}{9} - \frac{y^2}{4} = 1$ 

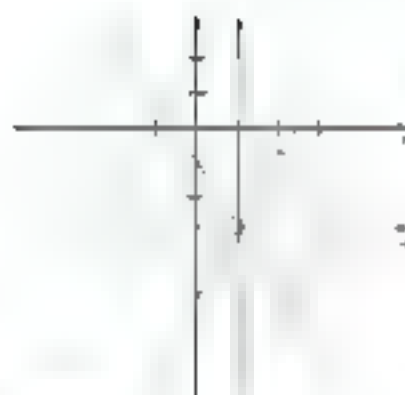
## Limiting Forms

Parabola:  $y^2 = 4x$ 

Simple case

Ellipse:  $\frac{x^2}{16} + \frac{y^2}{9} = 1$ Circle:  $x^2 + y^2 = 5$ Point:  $x = 1, y = 0$ Empty set:  $x = 1, y = 1$ 

Two intersecting lines

**EXAMPLE 5** Use a translation to simplify

$$4x^2 - y^2 - 4x + 6y - 5 = 0$$

and sketch its graph.

**SOLUTION** We rewrite the equation as follows:

$$4(x^2 - 2x) - (y^2 - 6y) = 5$$

$$4(x - 1)^2 - 4 - (y - 3)^2 + 9 = 5$$

$$4(x - 1)^2 - (y - 3)^2 = 0$$

Let  $u = x - 1$  and  $v = y - 3$ , which results in

$$4u^2 - v^2 = 0$$

or

$$(2u - v)(2u + v) = 0$$

This is the equation of two intersecting lines (Figure 5).

**EXAMPLE 6** Write the equation of a hyperbola with foci at  $(-1, 0)$  and  $(1, 1)$  and vertices at  $(1, -3)$  and  $(1, 9)$ .**SOLUTION** The center is  $(1, 6)$ , midway between the vertices (or a vertical major axis). Thus,  $a = 3$  and  $c = 5$ , and so  $b = \sqrt{c^2 - a^2} = 4$ . The equation is

$$\frac{(y - 6)^2}{9} - \frac{(x - 1)^2}{16} = 1$$

**FIGURE 5** The graph of  $4x^2 - y^2 - 4x + 6y - 5 = 0$ . Consider the equation

$$Ax^2 + Cy^2 + Dx + Ey + F = 0$$

If both  $A$  and  $C$  are zero, we have the equation of a line (provided  $D$  and  $E$  are not both zero). If at least one of  $A$  and  $C$  is different from zero, we may apply the process of completing the square. We obtain one of several forms, the most typical being

$$(1) \quad (y - k)^2 = \pm 4p(x - h)$$

2

$$\frac{(x - h)^2}{a^2} - \frac{(y - k)^2}{b^2} = 1$$

3

$$\frac{(x - h)^2}{a^2} + \frac{(y - k)^2}{b^2} = 1$$

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$$



These can be recognized even in this form as the equations of a horizontal parabola with vertex at  $(h, k)$ , a horizontal ellipse or  $x^2 = 4a^2$  with center at  $(h, k)$ , and a horizontal hyperbola with center at  $(h, k)$ .

In all of these cases we get a figure whose major and minor axes are parallel to the  $x$ - and  $y$ -axes if we include the cross-product term  $B = 0$  in  $r$ .

$$4r = Bx^2 + C_1x + D_1 + F = F \quad (1)$$

we still get a conic section (or a limiting form of one), but one where the major and minor axes are parallel to a **rotation** of the  $x$ - and  $y$ -axes.

**DEFINITION** Introduce a new pair of coordinate axes, the  $x'$ - and  $y'$ -axes, with the same origin as the  $x$ - and  $y$ -axes, but rotate the  $x'$ -axis an angle  $\theta$  as shown in Figure 10.3. A point  $P$  then has two sets of coordinates:  $(x, y)$  and  $(x', y')$ . How are they related?

Let  $r$  denote the length of  $OP$  and let  $\phi$  denote the angle from the positive  $x$ -axis to  $OP$ . Then  $x$ ,  $y$ ,  $x'$ , and  $y'$  have the geometric meanings as shown in the diagram.

Looking at the right triangle  $OPM$ , we see that

$$\cos(\phi - \theta) = \frac{x}{r}$$

so

$$\begin{aligned} x &= r \cos(\phi - \theta) = r(\cos \phi \cos \theta + \sin \phi \sin \theta) \\ &= (r \cos \phi) \cos \theta + (r \sin \phi) \sin \theta \end{aligned}$$

Consideration of triangle  $OPN$  shows that  $y = r \cos \phi$  and  $y' = r \sin \phi$ . Thus

$$x = y' \cos \theta + y \sin \theta$$

Similar reasoning leads to

$$y = x' \sin \theta + y' \cos \theta$$

These formulas determine a transformation called a **rotation of axes**.

**EXAMPLE 2** Find the new equation that results from  $xy = 1$  after a rotation of axes through  $\theta = \pi/4$ . Sketch the graph.

**SOLUTION** The required substitutions are

$$x = y' \cos \frac{\pi}{4} + y' \sin \frac{\pi}{4} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}(y' + x')$$

$$y = x' \sin \frac{\pi}{4} + y' \cos \frac{\pi}{4} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}(x' + y')$$

The equation  $xy = 1$  takes the form

$$\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}(y' + x') \cdot \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}(x' + y') = 1$$

which simplifies to

$$x'y' = -\frac{1}{2}$$

For we recognize as the equation of a hyperbola with  $a = b = \sqrt{1/2}$ . Notice that the cross-product term has disappeared as a result of the rotation. The choice of the angle  $\theta = \pi/4$  was just right to make this happen. The graph is shown in Figure 7. ■

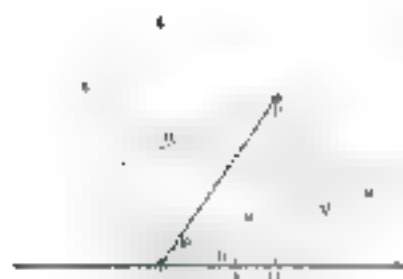


Figure 10.3



Figure 10.7





and, after simplifying to

$$2(x^2 + 4x + 4) + y^2 = 5 + 20$$

To put this equation in recognizable form, we complete the square

$$\begin{aligned} 2(x^2 + 4x + 4) + y^2 &= 5 + 20 \\ 2(x+2)^2 + y^2 &= 25 \end{aligned}$$

We identify the last equation as that of a vertical ellipse with center at  $(-2, 0)$  and  $b = 5$  and with  $a = 5$  and  $b = \sqrt{5}$ . This allows us to draw the graph shown in Figure 8.1. We wanted to carry the standard form process further; we would make the translation  $x = u - 2$ ,  $y = v$ , which results in the standard equation  $\frac{u^2}{5} + \frac{v^2}{25} = 1$ . ■

## Concepts Review

1. The quadratic form  $ax^2 + by^2$  is made a square by adding \_\_\_\_\_.
2.  $x^2 + 6x + 2(y^2 - 2y) = 3$  is (after completing the square) equivalent to  $(x + 3)^2 + 2(y - 1)^2 = 7$ , which is the equation of an \_\_\_\_\_.
3. The cross-product term (the  $xy$ -term) can be eliminated by a rotation of axes through an angle  $\theta$  satisfying  $\cot 2\theta =$  \_\_\_\_\_.
4. To put a general second-degree equation in standard form, we first make  $x$  \_\_\_\_\_, then  $y$  \_\_\_\_\_.

## Problem Set 10.3

In Problems 1–14, write the conic in standard form represented by the given equation. Identify your result and let us see the process of completing the square (see Examples 3–5).

1.  $x^2 + y^2 - 6x - 2y - 5 = 0$
2.  $9x^2 + 4y^2 - 72x - 16y + 24 = 0$
3.  $4x^2 - 9y^2 + 92x + 90y - 495 = 0$
4.  $9x^2 + 4y^2 - 72x - 16y - 60 = 0$
5.  $4x^2 - 9y^2 + 92x + 90y - 1020 = 0$
6.  $4x^2 - 9y^2 + 92x + 90y - 1020 = 0$
7. \_\_\_\_\_
8.  $4x^2 - 9y^2 + 92x + 90y - 1020 = 0$
9. \_\_\_\_\_
10.  $4x^2 - 9y^2 + 92x + 90y - 1020 = 0$
11.  $6x^2 - 4y^2 + 8x + 12y - 5 = 0$
12.  $4x^2 - 4y^2 + 8x + 12y - 5 = 0$
13.  $4x^2 - 24x + 35 = 0$
14.  $4x^2 - 24x + 35 = 0$

In Problems 15–30, sketch the graph of the given equation.

15.  $\frac{x^2}{4} + \frac{y^2}{16} = 1$
16.  $(x + 3)^2 + (y - 4)^2 = 25$

17.  $\frac{(x + 3)^2}{4} - \frac{(y + 2)^2}{16} = 1$
18.  $4x^2 - 9y^2 + 92x + 90y - 1020 = 0$
19.  $4x^2 - 9y^2 + 92x + 90y - 1020 = 0$
20. \_\_\_\_\_
21. \_\_\_\_\_
22. \_\_\_\_\_
23.  $4x^2 - 9y^2 + 92x + 90y - 1020 = 0$
24.  $25x^2 + 9y^2 - 140x - 18y + 4 = 0$
25.  $7x^2 - 16y^2 - 34x + 64y - 125 = 0$
26.  $4x^2 - 9y^2 + 92x + 90y - 1020 = 0$
27.  $4x^2 - 9y^2 + 92x + 90y - 1020 = 0$
28.  $4x^2 - 9y^2 + 92x + 90y - 1020 = 0$

29. Find the focus and directrix of the parabola

$$x = y^2$$

30. Determine the distance between the vertices of

$$\frac{x^2}{4} - \frac{y^2}{4} = 1$$

31. Find the foci of the ellipse

$$16(x - 1)^2 - 75(y + 2)^2 = 40$$

32. Find the focus and directrix of the parabola

$$x^2 - 6x + 4y + 3 = 0$$

In Problems 33–42, find the equation of the given conic.

33. Horizontal ellipse with center
- $(3, -1)$
- , major diameter 10, minor diameter 8

34. Hyperbola with center
- $(2, -1)$
- , vertex at
- $(4, -1)$
- , and focus at 5

35. Parabola with vertex
- $(2, 3)$
- and focus
- $(2, 5)$

36. Ellipse with center
- $(2, 3)$
- passing through
- $(6, 3)$
- and
- $(2, 5)$

37. Hyperbola with vertices at
- $(0, 0)$
- and
- $(0, 6)$
- and a focus at
- $(0, 8)$

38. Ellipse with foci at
- $(2, 0)$
- and
- $(2, 2)$
- and a vertex at
- $(3, 1)$

39. Parabola with focus
- $(2, 5)$
- and directrix
- $x = 10$

40. Parabola with focus
- $(2, 5)$
- and vertex
- $(2, 6)$

41. Ellipse with foci
- $(\pm 2, 2)$
- that passes through the origin

42. Hyperbola with foci
- $(0, 0)$
- and
- $(0, 4)$
- that passes through
- $(2, 9)$

In Problems 43–48, eliminate the cross-product term by a suitable rotation of axes and then, if necessary, translate axes (complete the squares) to put the equation in standard form. Finally, graph the equation showing the rotated axes.

43.  $x^2 + xy + y^2 = 6$

44.  $3x^2 + 10xy + 7y^2 + 10 = 0$

45.  $4x^2 + xy + 4y^2 = 56$

46.  $4xy - y^2 = 64$

47.  $x^2 + 7xy + 5y^2 - 6\sqrt{2}x - 6\sqrt{2}y = 0$

48.  $\frac{3}{2}x^2 + x^2 + y^2 + \sqrt{2}x + \sqrt{2}y = .3$

In Problems 49–52, continue the directions for Problems 43–48. After finding  $\cos 2\theta$ , you will need to use one of the identities  $\sin \theta = \pm \sqrt{(1 - \cos 2\theta)/2}$  or  $\cos \theta = \pm \sqrt{(1 + \cos 2\theta)/2}$  in order to determine  $\theta$ .

49.  $4x^2 - 3xy = .8$

50.  $x^2 + 96xy + 39y^2 + 240x + 570y + 875 = 0$

51.  $34x^2 + 24xy + 41y^2 + 250y = -325$

52.  $16x^2 + 24xy + 4y^2 - 20x - 15y - 50 = 0$

53. A curve
- $C$
- goes through the three points
- $(-2, 2)$
- ,
- $(0, 0)$
- and
- $(3, 6)$
- . Find an equation for
- $C$
- if
- $C$
- is

- (a) a vertical parabola,  
 (b) a horizontal parabola,  
 (c) a circle.

54. The ends of an elastic string with a knot at  $K(x, y)$  are attached to a fixed point  $A(a, b)$  and a point  $P$  on the rim of a wheel of radius  $r$  centered at  $(0, 0)$ . As the wheel turns,  $K$  traces a curve  $C$ . Find the equation for  $C$ . Assume that the string stays taut and stretches uniformly (i.e.,  $\alpha = KP/AP$  is constant).

55. Name the conic  $y^2 = Lx + Kx^2$  according to the value of  $K$  and then show that in every case,  $L_1$  is the length of the latus rectum of the conic. Assume that  $L \neq 0$ .

56. Show that the equations of the parabola and hyperbola with vertex  $(x, 0)$  and focus  $(c, 0)$ ,  $c > a > 0$ , can be written as  $y^2 = 4(c - a)(x - a)$  and  $y^2 = (b^2/a^2)(x^2 - a^2)$ , respectively. Then use these expressions for  $y^2$  to show that the parabola is always "inside" the right branch of the hyperbola.

57. The graph of  $x \cos \alpha + y \sin \alpha = d$  is a line. Show that the perpendicular distance from the origin to this line is  $|d|$  by making a rotation of axes through the angle  $\alpha$ .

58. Transform the equation  $x^{1/2} + y^{1/2} = a^{1/2}$  by a rotation of axes through  $45^\circ$  and then square twice to eliminate radicals on variables. Identify the corresponding curve.

59. Solve the rotation formulas for  $u$  and  $v$  in terms of  $x$  and  $y$ .

60. Use the results of Problem 59 to find the  $uv$ -coordinates corresponding to  $(x, y) = (5, 3)$  after a rotation of axes through  $60^\circ$ .

61. Find the points of  $x^4 + 14xy + 49y^2 = 0$  that are closest to the origin.

62. Recall that  $Ax^2 + Bxy + Cy^2 + Dx + Ey + F = 0$  transforms to  $au^2 + buv + cv^2 + du + ev + f = 0$  under a rotation of axes. Find formulas for  $u$  and  $c$  and show that  $u + c = A + C$ .

63. Show that  $b^2 - 4ac = B^2 - 4AC$  (see Problem 62).

64. Use the result of Problem 63 to convince yourself that the graph of the general second-degree equation will be

(a) a parabola if  $B^2 - 4AC = 0$ ,

(b) an ellipse if  $B^2 - 4AC < 0$ ,

(c) a hyperbola if  $B^2 - 4AC > 0$ ,

or limiting forms of the above conics.

65. Let  $Ax^2 + Bxy + Cy^2 = 1$  be transformed into  $au^2 + cv^2 = 1$  by a rotation of axes, and suppose that  $\Delta = 4AC - B^2 \neq 0$ . Use Problems 62 and 63 to show that

(a)  $1/ac = 4/\Delta$

(b)  $u + v = 4(A + C)/\Delta$

(c)  $1/a$  and  $1/c$  are the two values of

$$2/\Delta(A + C \pm \sqrt{(A - C)^2 + B^2})$$

66. Show that if  $A + C$  and  $\Delta = 4AC - B^2$  are both positive, then the graph of  $Ax^2 + Bxy + Cy^2 = 1$  is an ellipse or circle with area  $2\pi/\sqrt{\Delta}$ . (Recall from Problem 55 of Section 10.2 that the area of the ellipse  $x^2/a^2 + y^2/b^2 = 1$  is  $\pi ab$ .)

67. For what values of  $B$  is the graph of  $x^2 + Bxy + y^2 = 1$

- (a) an ellipse  
 (b) a circle  
 (c) a hyperbola  
 (d) two parallel lines

68. Use the results of Problems 65 and 66 to find the distance between the foci and the area of the ellipse

$$25x^2 + 8xy + y^2 = 1$$

69. Refer to Figure 6 and show that  $y = a \sin \theta + b \cos \theta$

Answers to Concepts Review 1. a) 4 2. 4; ellipse

3.  $A = C$ ,  $B = 0$  4. rotation: translation

## 10.4 Parametric Representation of Curves in the Plane

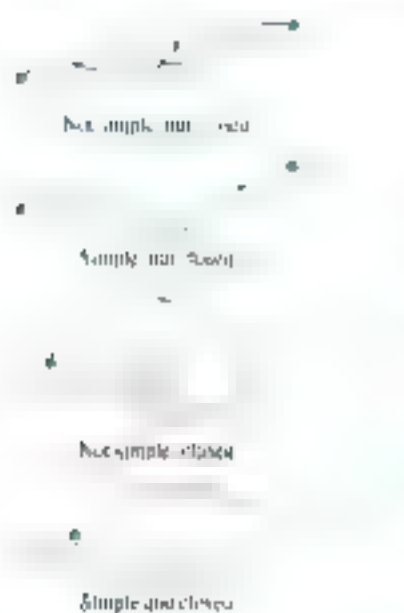


Figure 1



Figure 3

We gave the standard definition of a plane curve at Section 5.4 in connection with our derivation of the arc length formula. A **plane curve** is characterized by a pair of parametric equations

$$x = f(t) \quad y = g(t), \quad a \leq t \leq b$$

with  $f$  and  $g$  continuous on the interval  $I = [a, b]$  (where  $I$  is closed interval  $[a, b]$ ). Think of  $t$  as the **parameter**, as measuring time. As  $t$  advances from  $a$  to  $b$ , the point  $(f(t), g(t))$  traces out the curve in the  $xy$ -plane. When  $a \neq b$ , the endpoints of the curve are points  $P = (f(a), g(a))$  and  $Q = (f(b), g(b))$  are called the **initial** and **final end points**. If the curve has end points that coincide, then we say that the curve is **closed**. If  $a$  and  $b$  are the same, then the curve is a **simple curve** (Figure 1). The pair of relationships  $x = f(t)$ ,  $y = g(t)$ , together with the interval  $I$  is called the **parametrization** of a curve.

For a given curve, there may be many different parametrizations. For example, a circle given by parametric equations may be described by introducing the parameter  $\theta$ . Sometimes this can be accomplished by solving one equation for  $x$  and substituting in the other (the “ $x$ - $y$ ” sample). Often we can make use of some identity as in “ $x$ - $y$ ” sample 2.

### EXAMPLE 1 Eliminate the parameter in

$$x = t^2 + 2t, \quad y = t - 1, \quad -3 \leq t \leq 1$$

Then identify the corresponding curve and sketch its graph.

**SOLUTION** From the second equation  $t = y + 1$ . Substituting this expression for  $t$  in the first equation gives

$$x = (y + 1)^2 + 2(y + 1) = y^2 + 4y + 3, \quad -2 \leq y \leq 2$$

or

$$(y + 2)^2 = x - 1, \quad -2 \leq y \leq 2$$

This we recognize as a parabola with vertex at  $(1, -2)$  and opening to the right.

In graphing the given equation, we restrict the parabola to display only the part of the parabola corresponding to  $-2 \leq y \leq 2$ . A graph of this curve can be graphed as shown in Figure 2. The orientation of the curve is indicated by the direction of increasing  $t$ .

### EXAMPLE 2 Show that

$$x = 3 \cos t, \quad y = 2 \sin t, \quad 0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$$

represents the ellipse shown in Figure 3.

**SOLUTION** We solve the equations for  $\cos t$  and  $\sin t$ , then square, and add:

$$\begin{aligned} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} x \\ 3 \end{array} \right\} &= \left\{ \begin{array}{l} 3 \cos t \\ 3 \end{array} \right\} = \cos t \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} y \\ 2 \end{array} \right\} = \sin t \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} 2 \\ 2 \end{array} \right\} = 1 \\ \frac{x^2}{9} + \frac{y^2}{4} &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

A quick check of a few values for  $t$  confirms us that we do get the complete ellipse. In particular,  $t = 0$  and  $t = 2\pi$  give the same point, namely,  $(3, 0)$ .

If  $x = 0$ , we get the circle  $y^2 = 4$ .

Different pairs of parametric equations may have the same graph. In other words, a given curve can have more than one parametrization.

47

48

49

50

Sketch (b)

51

Hyperbola  
opening  
along x-axis

**EXAMPLE 3** Show that each of the following pairs of parametric equations has the same graph, namely, the semicircle shown in Figure 4.

(a)  $x = 1 - t^2$ ,  $y = t$ ,  $-1 \leq t \leq 1$

(b)  $x = \cos t$ ,  $y = \sin t$ ,  $-\frac{\pi}{2} \leq t \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$

(c)  $x = \frac{1-t^2}{1+t^2}$ ,  $y = \frac{2t}{1+t^2}$ ,  $-\infty < t < \infty$

**SOLUTION** In each case, we discover the

$$x^2 + y^2 = 1$$

It is then just a matter of checking a few values of  $t$  to make sure that the given intervals for  $t$  yield the same section of the circle. ■

**EXAMPLE 4** Show that each of the following pairs of parametric equations yields one branch of a hyperbola. Assume it holds case (b) if  $a < 0$  and  $b > 0$ .

(a)  $x = 1 + a \sec t$ ,  $y = b \tan t$ ,  $-\frac{\pi}{2} < t < \frac{\pi}{2}$

(b)  $x = a \cosh t$ ,  $y = b \sinh t$ ,  $-\infty < t < \infty$

**SOLUTION**

(a) In the first case,

$$\left(\frac{x-1}{a}\right)^2 = \left(\frac{y}{b}\right)^2 \quad \text{since } t = \sec^{-1} \frac{x-1}{a} = \tanh^{-1} \frac{y}{b}.$$

(b) In the second case,

$$\left(\frac{x}{a}\right)^2 = \left(\frac{y}{b}\right)^2 + \cosh^2 t - \sinh^2 t$$

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} - \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$$

Checking a few  $t$ -values shows that (a) is both cases of the right branch of the hyperbola  $x^2/a^2 - y^2/b^2 = 1$  shown in Figure 5. ■

Notice that in Example 4 we have in part (a) a parametric curve defined on the open interval  $(-\pi/2, \pi/2)$ , and in part (b) we have a curve defined on the infinite interval  $(-\infty, \infty)$ . Hence the curve does not contain end points at all in this class.

**DEFINITION** A cycloid is the curve traced by a point  $P$  on the rim of a wheel as the wheel rolls along a straight line without slipping (Figure 6). The parametric equations of a cycloid are quite complicated, but they are fairly nice equations and readily found as shown in the next example.

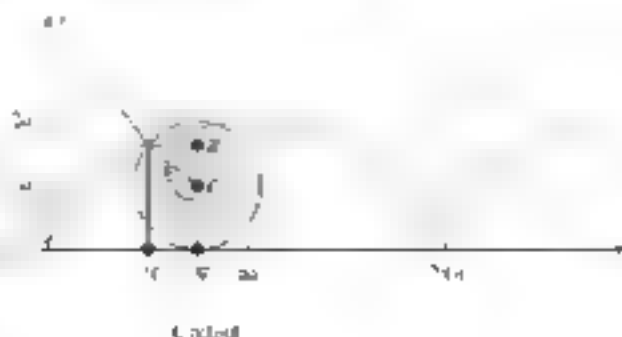


Figure 6

**EXAMPLE 5** Find parametric equations for the cycloid.

**SOLUTION** Let the wheel roll along the  $x$ -axis with  $t = 0$  at the origin. Denote the center of the wheel by  $C$  and let  $a$  be its radius. Choose for a parameter the radian measure of the clockwise angle through which the line segment  $CP$  has turned from its vertical position when  $P$  was at the origin. All of this is shown in Figure 4.

Since  $|OQ| = a$ ,  $PQ = a\theta$

$$x = |OM| = |OQ| + |MQ| = a + a \sin t = a(1 + \sin t)$$

and

$$y = |MP| = |MQ| = |NQ| + |QP| = a - a \cos t = a(1 - \cos t)$$

Thus, the parametric equations for the cycloid are

$$x = a(1 + \sin t), \quad y = a(1 - \cos t), \quad t \in \mathbb{R}.$$

The cycloid has a number of interesting applications, especially in mechanics. It is the curve of fastest descent. That is, if a particle in a vacuum is allowed to slide down some curve from a point  $A$  to a lower point  $B$  not on the same vertical line, the complete time taken for the slide is the same when the curve is an arc of a cycloid (Figure 5). Of course, the horizontal distance is longer the steeper the curve (Figure 4b), but the time taken is the same when the particle is sliding down it. This is because the acceleration when it is released depends on the steepness of the curve. The path of a cycloid of a ball kept sliding up and down a track is a cycloid (Figure 6).

Another interesting property is that if  $t$  is the angle from a point  $A$  to a point  $P$  on an inverted cycloid, then the arc length  $s$  of  $AP$  is twice the vertical distance  $y$  from  $P$  to the horizontal line where  $P$  is. For example, in the previous example, if we take  $P = P_1$  and  $P_2$  in different positions on the cycloid (Figure 4), we can slide at the same instant; all will reach the low point  $A$  at the same time.

In 1673, Christiaan Huygens, the great Dutch astronomer, published a description of an ideal pendulum clock. It was a clock whose suspension was an inverted cycloid. The path of the bob was a cycloid, a figure that the period of oscillation of the clock was independent of the amplitude and the points along it, so that as the clock's spring unwinds,

the period of oscillation is constant. A wheel rolling on a straight line is a simple example of the tangent line to a curve, and we can ask whether this is the only curve for which this is true. The answer is yes, according to the following theorem:

**Theorem 8**

Let  $f$  and  $g$  be continuous differentiable with  $f'(x) > 0$  on  $a \leq x \leq b$ . Then the parametric equations

$$x = f(t), \quad y = g(t)$$

define  $y$  as a differentiable function of  $x$  and

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy/dt}{dx/dt}$$

**Proof** Since  $f'(x) > 0$ ,  $f$  has an inverse function  $f^{-1}$  and so has a differentiable inverse  $t = f^{-1}(x)$  (see the Inverse Function Theorem, Theorem 6.2B). Define  $t$  by  $F = g \circ f^{-1}$  so that

$$y = g(t) = g(f^{-1}(x)) = F(x) = F(f^{-1}(t))$$

Then, by the Chain Rule,

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{dt} \cdot \frac{dt}{dx} = \frac{dy}{dt} \cdot \frac{1}{dx/dt} = \frac{dy/dt}{dx/dt}$$



Figure 4: A diagram illustrating the derivation of parametric equations for a cycloid. A wheel of radius 'a' rolls along the x-axis. At t=0, the point P is at the origin (0,0). As the wheel rolls to the right, the center C moves to (a, a). The point P moves along the circumference. The angle t is measured clockwise from the vertical line segment CP. The horizontal distance from the origin to the point P is x, and the vertical distance is y. The diagram shows the wheel at a general position, with the point P at (x, y).

Since  $dx/dt \neq 0$ , we have

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy/dt}{dx/dt}$$

**EXAMPLE 6** Find the first two derivatives  $dy/dx$  and  $d^2y/dx^2$  for the function determined by

$$x = 5 \cos t, \quad y = 4 \sin t, \quad 0 \leq t \leq \pi$$

and evaluate them at  $t = \pi/6$  (see Example 2).

**SOLUTION** Let  $t$  denote  $\frac{dy}{dx}$ . Then

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy/dt}{dx/dt} = \frac{4 \cos t}{-5 \sin t} = -\frac{4}{5} \cot t$$

$$\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \frac{d^2y/dt^2}{dx/dt} = \frac{dy/dt}{dx/dt} = \frac{\frac{4}{5} \csc^2 t}{-5 \sin t} = -\frac{4}{25} \csc^3 t$$

At  $t = \pi/6$ ,

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{4}{5} \cot \frac{\pi}{6} = -\frac{4}{5} \left( \frac{\sqrt{3}}{3} \right) = -\frac{4\sqrt{3}}{15}$$

The first value is the slope of the tangent line to the ellipse at the point  $(5 \cos \pi/6, 4 \sin \pi/6) = (5\sqrt{3}/2, 2)$ . You can check against this by graphing the ellipse.

Sometimes a definite integral involves two variables, such as a unit square, a triangle, and others, and may be defined as a region in the  $xy$ -plane by equations that give  $x$  and  $y$  in terms of a parameter  $t$  and  $u$ . In such cases it is often convenient to express the definite integral as an iterated integral, one in  $t$  and one in  $u$ . Then, if  $x$  and  $y$  are functions of  $t$  and  $u$ , we can adjust the order of integration by changing with  $u$  first, then  $t$ .

**EXAMPLE 7** Evaluate  $\int_0^1 \int_0^{2t} x \, dx \, dt$  and  $\int_0^1 \int_0^{2t} y \, dy \, dx$  where  $x = 2t - u$  and  $y = u$ .

**SOLUTION** From  $x = 2t - u$ , we have  $dx = -du$ . When  $x = 1$ ,  $t = u/2$  and when  $x = 3$ ,  $t = 2$ .

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^{2t} x \, dx \, dt = \int_0^1 \int_{2t}^0 x \, (-du) = \int_0^1 \int_0^{2t} x \, du \, dt = \int_0^1 \left[ \frac{x^2}{2} \right]_0^{2t} dt = \frac{2t^3}{3} \Big|_0^1 = \frac{2}{3}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^1 \int_0^{2t} y \, dy \, dx &= \int_0^1 \int_0^{2t} u \, (-du) = -\int_0^1 \left[ \frac{u^2}{2} \right]_0^{2t} dt = -\frac{2t^3}{3} \Big|_0^1 = -\frac{2}{3} \\ &= 2 \int_0^1 (2t^2 - t^3 - 2t^2 + 4t^3 + 2t - 4t^3) dt = \frac{16}{15} \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 8** Find the area  $A$  under one arch of a cycloid (Figure 10) and the length  $L$  of this arch.

**SOLUTION** From Example 5 we know that we may represent one arch of the cycloid by

$$x = a(t - \sin t), \quad y = a(1 - \cos t), \quad 0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$$



Thus,  $dx = a(1 - \cos t) dt$ . The area  $A$  is therefore

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \int_0^{2\pi} y \, dx \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi} r^2 (1 - \cos t) (1 - \cos t) \, dt \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi} r^2 (1 - 2\cos t + \cos^2 t) \, dt \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi} r^2 \left( 1 - 2\cos t + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \cos 2t \right) dt \\ &= \frac{3}{2} r^2 \left( t - 2 \sin t + \frac{1}{2} \sin 2t \right) \Big|_0^{2\pi} = 3\pi a^2 \end{aligned}$$

To compute  $L$ , we recall the arc-length formula from Section

$$L = \int_a^b \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{dt}\right)^2} \, dt$$

In our case, this reduces to

$$\begin{aligned} L &= \int_0^{2\pi} \sqrt{a^2(1 - \cos t)^2 + a^2 \sin^2 t} \, dt \\ &= a \int_0^{2\pi} \sqrt{2(1 - \cos t)} \, dt \\ &= a \int_0^{2\pi} \sqrt{4 \sin^2 \frac{t}{2}} \, dt \\ &= 2a \int_0^{2\pi} \left| \sin \frac{t}{2} \right| \, dt \\ &= 4a \int_0^{\pi} \sin \frac{t}{2} \, dt = 8a \end{aligned}$$

Now we are arguing about who will get the longest ride when Josey pedals her bicycle home from the park. If Josey will ride the wheel the length of the coast line, Josey will ride, however the coast line is the same. So Josey's intuition is showing that both paths will have equal lengths. Perhaps it should help.



## Concepts Review

A closed curve is an example of a curve that is such that any figure-eight is an example of a closed curve that is not closed.

We call two equations  $x = f(t)$  and  $y = g(t)$  a parametric representation of a curve when  $x$  and  $y$  are called a

1. The point on the bottom rotating wheel is called

4. The formula for  $dy/dx$  given the representation  $x = f(t)$  and  $y = g(t)$  is  $dy/dx =$

## Problem Set 10.4

For each problem, find a parametric representation of a curve given

a. equation curve

b. Is the curve closed? Is it simple?

c. Obtain the Cartesian equation of the curve by eliminating the parameter (see Example 1.4).

1.  $x = 16$ ,  $y = 25$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$

2.  $x = 2$ ,  $y = 2$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$

3.  $x = 7t$ ,  $y = 2t$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq 4$

4.  $x = 4t$ ,  $y = 2t$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq 2$

5.  $x = 2$ ,  $y = 2$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$

6.  $x = 2$ ,  $y = 2$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$

7.  $x = 1$ ,  $y = 2$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$

8.  $x = 2t$ ,  $y = 2t$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$

9.  $x = 2t$ ,  $y = 2t$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$

10.  $x = 2$ ,  $y = 2$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$

11.  $x = 2t$ ,  $y = 2t$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$

12.  $x = 3\sqrt{4-t}, y = \sqrt{4-t}, 3 \leq t \leq 4$

13.  $x = 3 \sinh t, y = 3 \cosh t, 0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$

14.  $x = 3 \sin t, y = 2 \cos t, 0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$

15.  $x = 2 \sin t, y = 3 \cos t, 0 \leq t \leq 4\pi$

16.  $x = 2 \cos^2 t, y = 3 \sin^2 t, 0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$

17.  $x = 9 \sin^2 \theta, y = 9 \cos^2 \theta, 0 \leq \theta \leq \pi$

18.  $x = 9 \cos \theta, y = 9 \sin^2 \theta, 0 \leq \theta \leq \pi$

19.  $x = \cos \theta, y = 7 \sin^2 2\theta, 0 < \theta < \pi$

20.  $x = \sin \theta, y = 2 \cos^2 \theta, -\infty < \theta < \infty$

In Problems 21–30, find  $dy/dx$  and  $d^2y/dx^2$  without eliminating the parameter.

21.  $x = 3t^2, y = 4t^3, t \neq 0$

22.  $x = 6t, y = 2t^2, t \neq 0$

23.  $x = 2\theta^2, y = \sqrt{3}\theta^3, \theta \neq 0$

24.  $x = \sqrt{3}\theta^2, y = \sqrt{3}\theta^3, \theta \neq 0$

25.  $x = \cos t, y = t + \sin t, -\pi < t < \pi$

26.  $x = 3 - 2 \cos t, y = t + 5 \sin t, t \neq n\pi$

27.  $x = 3 \tan t, y = 5 \sec t + 2, \frac{(2n+1)\pi}{2} < t < \frac{(2n+3)\pi}{2}$

28.  $x = \cos t, y = 2 \csc t + 5, 0 < t < \pi$

29.  $x = \frac{1}{1+t^2}, y = \frac{t}{1+t^2}, 0 < t < \pi$

30.  $x = \frac{2}{1+t^2}, y = \frac{2t}{1+t^2}, t \neq 0$

In Problems 31–34, find the equation of the tangent line to the given curve at the given value of  $t$  without eliminating the parameter. Make a sketch.

31.  $x = t^2, y = t^3, t = 2$

32.  $x = 3t, y = 9t, t = 1$

33.  $x = 2 \sec t, y = 2 \tan t, t = \frac{\pi}{6}$

34.  $x = 2t^2, y = t^3, t = 0$

In Problems 35–46, find the length of the parametric curve defined over the given interval.

35.  $x = 2t, y = 3t, 4 \leq t \leq 3$

36.  $x = 2, y = 3t, 3 \leq t \leq 3$

37.  $x = t, y = \sqrt{t}, 0 \leq t \leq 3$

38.  $x = 2 \sin t, y = 2 \cos t, 0 \leq t \leq \pi$

39.  $x = 3t^2, y = t, 0 \leq t \leq 2$

40.  $x = t, y = \pi t, 0 \leq t \leq \pi$

41.  $x = 2e^t, y = 3e^{t/2}, \ln 1 \leq t \leq 2 \ln 3$

42.  $x = \sqrt{1-t^2}, y = t, 0 \leq t \leq 1$

43.  $x = 4\sqrt{t}, y = t + \frac{1}{2t}, \frac{1}{4} \leq t \leq 1$

44.  $x = \sinh t, y = \ln(\cosh^2 t), 3 \leq t \leq 3$

45.  $x = \cos t, y = \ln(\sec t + \tan t), \sin t, 0 \leq t \leq \frac{\pi}{4}$

46.  $x = \sin t, y = \cos t, \frac{\pi}{4} \leq t \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$

47. Find the length of the curve with the given parametric equations.

(a)  $x = \sin \theta, y = \cos \theta, 0 \leq \theta \leq 2\pi$

(b)  $x = \sin 3\theta, y = \cos 3\theta, 0 \leq \theta \leq 2\pi$

(c) Explain why the lengths in parts (a) and (b) are not equal.

You can generate surfaces by revolving smooth curves, given parametrically, about a coordinate axis. As  $t$  increases from  $a$  to  $b$ , a smooth curve  $x = F(t)$  and  $y = G(t)$  is traced out exactly once. Revolving this curve about the  $x$ -axis for  $y \geq 0$  gives the surface of revolution with surface area

$$S = \int_a^b 2\pi y \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{dt}\right)^2} dt$$

See Section 5.4. Problems 48–54 relate to such surfaces.

48. Derive a formula for the surface area generated by the rotation of the curve  $x = F(t)$ ,  $y = G(t)$  for  $a \leq t \leq b$  about the  $y$ -axis for  $x \geq 0$ , and show that the result is given by

$$S = \int_a^b 2\pi x \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{dt}\right)^2} dt$$

49. A parametrization of a circle of radius 1 centered at  $(1, 0)$  in the  $xy$ -plane is given by  $x = 1 + \cos t$ ,  $y = \sin t$ , for  $0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$ . Find the surface area when this curve is revolved about the  $y$ -axis.

50. Find the area of the surface generated by revolving the curve  $x = \cos t$ ,  $y = 3 + \sin t$ , for  $0 \leq t \leq \pi$  about the  $x$ -axis.

51. Find the area of the surface generated by revolving the curve  $x = 2 + \cos t$ ,  $y = t + \sin t$  for  $0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$  about the  $y$ -axis.

52. Find the area of the surface generated by revolving the curve  $x = (2/3)t^{3/2}$ ,  $y = 2\sqrt{t}$ , for  $0 \leq t \leq 2\sqrt{3}$  about the  $y$ -axis.

53. Find the area of the surface generated by revolving the curve  $x = t + \sqrt{t}$ ,  $y = t^2/2 + \sqrt{t}$ , for  $\sqrt{t} \leq t \leq \sqrt{t}$  about the  $y$ -axis.

54. Find the area of the surface generated by revolving the curve  $x = t^2/2 + \alpha t$ ,  $y = t + \alpha$ , for  $\sqrt{\alpha} \leq t \leq \sqrt{\alpha}$  about the  $x$ -axis.

Evaluate the integrals in Problems 55 and 56.

55.  $\int_0^1 (x - 4y) dx$  where  $x = t + 1$ ,  $y = t^2 + 4$

56.  $\int_0^{\sqrt{e}} xy dy$  where  $x = \sec t$ ,  $y = \tan t$

57. Find the area of the region between the curve  $x = e^t$ ,  $y = e^{-t}$  and the  $x$ -axis from  $t = 0$  to  $t = \ln 5$ . Make a sketch.

58. The path of a projectile fired from level ground with a speed of  $v_0$  feet per second at an angle  $\alpha$  with the ground is given by the parametric equations

$$x = v_0 \cos \alpha t, \quad y = -\frac{1}{2}gt^2 + v_0 \sin \alpha t$$

(a) Show that the path is a parabola.

### h Find the time of flight

එළු පිටපත් වූයේ එම තැනැත්තා (විශේෂයෙන්ම එමගින් පැහැදිලි) වේ

u. Für gegeben  $\beta_1$ , welcher value of  $\alpha$  gibt die largest possible  $\gamma$  an?

7). Modify the pet diagram of the cyclot and its accompanying diagram to handle the case where the point  $P$  is  $0 < p$  units from the center of the wheel. Show that the corresponding, noncyclic situations are:

**Table 1**

Sketch the graph of these equations (called a **curtate cycloid** when  $a \neq b$ ) and:

10. Follow the instructions of Problem 9 for the case  $b > a$  and a flinged wheel, as on a train, showing that you get the same parametric equations. Sketch the graph of these equations (called a **prolate cycloid**) when  $a = 1$  and  $b = 2$ .

41. Let a circle of radius  $b$  roll, without slipping, inside a fixed circle of radius  $a$ ,  $a > b$ . A point  $P$  on the rolling circle traces out a curve called a **hypocycloid**. Find parametric equations of the hypocycloid. *Hint:* Place the origin  $O$  of Cartesian coordinates at the center of the fixed larger circle, and let the point  $A$ ,  $O$  be any position of the tracing point  $P$ . Denote by  $\theta$  the moving point of tangency of the two circles, and let  $\phi$  be the radius measured of the circle with the arc parameter curve Figure 111.



Figure 14

42. Show that if  $\beta = n/4$  in Problem 41, the parameter  $\gamma_{1,2}$  takes all the hereditary rays be considered to

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This is called a **hypercylinder of four angles**. Sketch it carefully, and write the **Cartesian equation** of a  $2^{\text{nd}}$  +  $3^{\text{rd}}$  =  $5^{\text{th}}$

63. The curve traced by a point on a circle of radius  $b$  as it rolls without slipping on the circumference of a fixed circle of radius  $a$  is called an **epicycloid**. Show that it has constant curvature.

$$y = a + b \sin \theta \quad b \sin \theta = \frac{b}{h} \sin \theta$$

See also: 1005, 1015, 1025, 1035, 1045, 1055, 1065, 1075, 1085, 1095, 1105, 1115, 1125, 1135, 1145, 1155, 1165, 1175, 1185, 1195, 1205, 1215, 1225, 1235, 1245, 1255, 1265, 1275, 1285, 1295, 1305, 1315, 1325, 1335, 1345, 1355, 1365, 1375, 1385, 1395, 1405, 1415, 1425, 1435, 1445, 1455, 1465, 1475, 1485, 1495, 1505, 1515, 1525, 1535, 1545, 1555, 1565, 1575, 1585, 1595, 1605, 1615, 1625, 1635, 1645, 1655, 1665, 1675, 1685, 1695, 1705, 1715, 1725, 1735, 1745, 1755, 1765, 1775, 1785, 1795, 1805, 1815, 1825, 1835, 1845, 1855, 1865, 1875, 1885, 1895, 1905, 1915, 1925, 1935, 1945, 1955, 1965, 1975, 1985, 1995, 2005, 2015, 2025, 2035, 2045, 2055, 2065, 2075, 2085, 2095, 2105, 2115, 2125, 2135, 2145, 2155, 2165, 2175, 2185, 2195, 2205, 2215, 2225, 2235, 2245, 2255, 2265, 2275, 2285, 2295, 2305, 2315, 2325, 2335, 2345, 2355, 2365, 2375, 2385, 2395, 2405, 2415, 2425, 2435, 2445, 2455, 2465, 2475, 2485, 2495, 2505, 2515, 2525, 2535, 2545, 2555, 2565, 2575, 2585, 2595, 2605, 2615, 2625, 2635, 2645, 2655, 2665, 2675, 2685, 2695, 2705, 2715, 2725, 2735, 2745, 2755, 2765, 2775, 2785, 2795, 2805, 2815, 2825, 2835, 2845, 2855, 2865, 2875, 2885, 2895, 2905, 2915, 2925, 2935, 2945, 2955, 2965, 2975, 2985, 2995, 3005, 3015, 3025, 3035, 3045, 3055, 3065, 3075, 3085, 3095, 3105, 3115, 3125, 3135, 3145, 3155, 3165, 3175, 3185, 3195, 3205, 3215, 3225, 3235, 3245, 3255, 3265, 3275, 3285, 3295, 3305, 3315, 3325, 3335, 3345, 3355, 3365, 3375, 3385, 3395, 3405, 3415, 3425, 3435, 3445, 3455, 3465, 3475, 3485, 3495, 3505, 3515, 3525, 3535, 3545, 3555, 3565, 3575, 3585, 3595, 3605, 3615, 3625, 3635, 3645, 3655, 3665, 3675, 3685, 3695, 3705, 3715, 3725, 3735, 3745, 3755, 3765, 3775, 3785, 3795, 3805, 3815, 3825, 3835, 3845, 3855, 3865, 3875, 3885, 3895, 3905, 3915, 3925, 3935, 3945, 3955, 3965, 3975, 3985, 3995, 4005, 4015, 4025, 4035, 4045, 4055, 4065, 4075, 4085, 4095, 4105, 4115, 4125, 4135, 4145, 4155, 4165, 4175, 4185, 4195, 4205, 4215, 4225, 4235, 4245, 4255, 4265, 4275, 4285, 4295, 4305, 4315, 4325, 4335, 4345, 4355, 4365, 4375, 4385, 4395, 4405, 4415, 4425, 4435, 4445, 4455, 4465, 4475, 4485, 4495, 4505, 4515, 4525, 4535, 4545, 4555, 4565, 4575, 4585, 4595, 4605, 4615, 4625, 4635, 4645, 4655, 4665, 4675, 4685, 4695, 4705, 4715, 4725, 4735, 4745, 4755, 4765, 4775, 4785, 4795, 4805, 4815, 4825, 4835, 4845, 4855, 4865, 4875, 4885, 4895, 4905, 4915, 4925, 4935, 4945, 4955, 4965, 4975, 4985, 4995, 5005, 5015, 5025, 5035, 5045, 5055, 5065, 5075, 5085, 5095, 5105, 5115, 5125, 5135, 5145, 5155, 5165, 5175, 5185, 5195, 5205, 5215, 5225, 5235, 5245, 5255, 5265, 5275, 5285, 5295, 5305, 5315, 5325, 5335, 5345, 5355, 5365, 5375, 5385, 5395, 5405, 5415, 5425, 5435, 5445, 5455, 5465, 5475, 5485, 5495, 5505, 5515, 5525, 5535, 5545, 5555, 5565, 5575, 5585, 5595, 5605, 5615, 5625, 5635, 5645, 5655, 5665, 5675, 5685, 5695, 5705, 5715, 5725, 5735, 5745, 5755, 5765, 5775, 5785, 5795, 5805, 5815, 5825, 5835, 5845, 5855, 5865, 5875, 5885, 5895, 5905, 5915, 5925, 5935, 5945, 5955, 5965, 5975, 5985, 5995, 6005, 6015, 6025, 6035, 6045, 6055, 6065, 6075, 6085, 6095, 6105, 6115, 6125, 6135, 6145, 6155, 6165, 6175, 6185, 6195, 6205, 6215, 6225, 6235, 6245, 6255, 6265, 6275, 6285, 6295, 6305, 6315, 6325, 6335, 6345, 6355, 6365, 6375, 6385, 6395, 6405, 6415, 6425, 6435, 6445, 6455, 6465, 6475, 6485, 6495, 6505, 6515, 6525, 6535, 6545, 6555, 6565, 6575, 6585, 6595, 6605, 6615, 6625, 6635, 6645, 6655, 6665, 6675, 6685, 6695, 6705, 6715, 6725, 6735, 6745, 6755, 6765, 6775, 6785, 6795, 6805, 6815, 6825, 6835, 6845, 6855, 6865, 6875, 6885, 6895, 6905, 6915, 6925, 6935, 6945, 6955, 6965, 6975, 6985, 6995, 7005, 7015, 7025, 7035, 7045, 7055, 7065, 7075, 7085, 7095, 7105, 7115, 7125, 7135, 7145, 7155, 7165, 7175, 7185, 7195, 7205, 7215, 7225, 7235, 7245, 7255, 7265, 7275, 7285, 7295, 7305, 7315, 7325, 7335, 7345, 7355, 7365, 7375, 7385, 7395, 7405, 7415, 7425, 7435, 7445, 7455, 7465, 7475, 7485, 7495, 7505, 7515, 7525, 7535, 7545, 7555, 7565, 7575, 7585, 7595, 7605, 7615, 7625, 7635, 7645, 7655, 7665, 7675, 7685, 7695, 7705, 7715, 7725, 7735, 7745, 7755, 7765, 7775, 7785, 7795, 7805, 7815

64. If  $\beta = \alpha$  the sum in Problem 63 is

[illegible]

Find a value of  $x$  that satisfies the equation by eliminating the parentheses. Simplify the equation by combining like terms.

43. If  $\delta = 0$  in Theorem 4, we obtain a hyperbolic ordinary differential equation, called a **delfoid**, with parametric equations

$$x = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } y = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

Find the length of the deleted

64. Consider the ellipse  $x^2/16 + y^2/9 = 1$ .

(a) Show that its perimeter is

$$f^0 = 4\sigma \int_0^1 \chi \sqrt{\frac{1}{1-u} - 1} \, du$$

where  $r$  is the eccentricity

5. (b) The integral in part (a) is called an *elliptic integral*. It has been studied at great length, and it is known that the integrand does not have an elementary antiderivative. We sometimes turn to approximate methods to evaluate  $I$ . Do you think when  $x = 1$  and  $\phi = \frac{\pi}{4}$  using the Parabolic Rule with  $n = 4$  (Your answer should be near .75. Why?)

$$\xrightarrow{\text{H}_2\text{O}} (\text{C}_2\text{H}_5)_2\text{N}_2\text{O} \text{ and } (\text{C}_2\text{H}_5)_2\text{N}_2\text{O} \text{ and } (\text{C}_2\text{H}_5)_2\text{N}_2\text{O} \text{ and } (\text{C}_2\text{H}_5)_2\text{N}_2\text{O} \text{ and } (\text{C}_2\text{H}_5)_2\text{N}_2\text{O}$$

**27.** The parametric curves given by  $\mathbf{r}(t) = (x(t), y(t))$  will be taken on as  $t$  increases from  $a$  to  $b$ . The parametric curve will be traced in a clockwise or counterclockwise direction with the counterclockwise direction being the positive direction. Plot the curve for  $t$  from  $a$  to  $b$ . The curve should appear in a single piece. Plot the following parametric curves which are in the range of  $t$  that ensures that the resulting figure is a closed curve. In each case count the number of times that the curve touches the horizontal and vertical boundaries of the unit square.

(c)  $x = \cos 3t$ ,  $y = \sin 3t$       (d)  $x = \cos 3t$ ,  $y = \sin 3t$

**25.** Plot the Lissajous figure defined by  $x = \cos 2t$ ,  $y = \sin 7t$  if  $0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$ . Explain why this is a closed curve even though its graph does not look closed.

<sup>22</sup> 40. Plot Loewen's figures for the following combinations of  $a$  and  $b$  in § 4.6.3:
 

|     |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |    |
|-----|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|----|
| $a$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
| $b$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |

(c)  $a = 5, b = 10$       (d)  $a = 2, b = 3$

TABLE 1 are the results from Problems 27-29 (with additional ones if necessary) to explain how the number of times the curve touches the sides or corners of the square for  $0 \leq t < 2\pi$  is related to the value of  $\theta$ . If a curve touches a corner of a square, it counts as one half a contact.

**24.5 71.** Plot the following parametric curves. Describe in words how the point moves around the curve in each case.

(2)  $u = \cos(t^2 + t)$ ,  $v = \sin(t^2 + t)$

[illegible]

(5)  $x = 0.75$  2.14,  $y = 0.75$  2.14.

0.5 5 10 15 20 25 30 35 40 45 50 55 60 65 70 75 80 85 90 95 100

**72.** Using a computer algebra system, plot the following parametric curves for  $0 \leq t \leq 2$ . Describe the shape of the curve in each case and the similarities and differences among all the curves.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(a)} \quad x &= r^2 \cos \theta, \quad y = r^2 \sin \theta & \text{(b)} \quad x &= r^3, \quad y = r^3 \\ \text{(c)} \quad x &= r^2 \cos \theta, \quad y = r^2 \sin \theta & \text{(d)} \quad x &= r^2, \quad y = r^{2\theta} \end{aligned}$$

KEAS [EOP] 73. Plot the graph of the hyperbola (see Problem 63).

$$\begin{aligned} x &= a + b \cos t, \quad y = b \sin t \\ x &= a + b \sin t, \quad y = b \cos t \end{aligned}$$

For appropriate values of  $a$  in each of the following cases:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(a)} \quad a &= 4, b = 1 & \text{(b)} \quad a &= 3, b = 1 \\ \text{(c)} \quad a &= b = 2 & \text{(d)} \quad a &= 7, b = 1 \end{aligned}$$

Experiment with other positive integer values of  $a$  and  $b$  and then make conjectures about the length of the segment of the curve that the curve returns to its starting point (in terms of the number of cusps). What can you say about the area enclosed?

74. Draw the graph of the epicycloid (see Problem 63).

$$\begin{aligned} x &= a + b \cos t, \quad y = b \cos \frac{c}{b}t \\ x &= a + b \sin t, \quad y = b \sin \frac{c}{b}t \end{aligned}$$

for various values of  $a$  and  $b$ . What conjectures can you make about the curve?

75. Draw the Folium of Descartes,  $x^3 + y^3 = 3xy$ ,  $y = 3x^2/(x^2 + 1)$ . Then determine the values of  $x$  for which the graph is in each of the four quadrants.

2. parametric plot master 3. working 4. a.  $a = 0, b = 0$

## The Polar Coordinate System



Two Frenchmen, Pierre de Fermat (1601–1665) and René Descartes (1596–1650) introduced what we now call the Cartesian or rectangular coordinate system. The early way to specify each point  $P$  in the plane was giving its  $x$  and  $y$  coordinates. The first two numbers form a pair of coordinates,  $(x, y)$  (Figure 1). This approach is by now so familiar that we use it almost without thinking. Yet it is the fundamental, as Sir Isaac Newton *præfixit*, and makes possible the *raisonnée* mathematics we have given it so far.

Giving the directed distance from a pair of perpendicular axes is not the only way to specify a point. Another way to describe its location is by giving its *polar coordinates*.

Figure 2 shows how we specify a point  $P$  in the plane the polar way, emphasizing that a ray from  $O$  (the *pole* or *origin*) is needed. If we use the polar axis to change the ray  $OP$  at a constant speed, the point  $P$  may describe a curve in the positive  $x$ -axis in the rectangular coordinate system. Any point  $P$  (other than the pole) is the intersection of a unique circle with center  $O$  and a unique ray emanating from  $O$ . If  $r$  is the radius of the circle and if  $\theta$  is one of the angles that the ray makes with the polar axis, then  $(r, \theta)$  is a pair of polar coordinates for  $P$  (Figure 2). Figure 3 shows several points plotted in a polar grid.

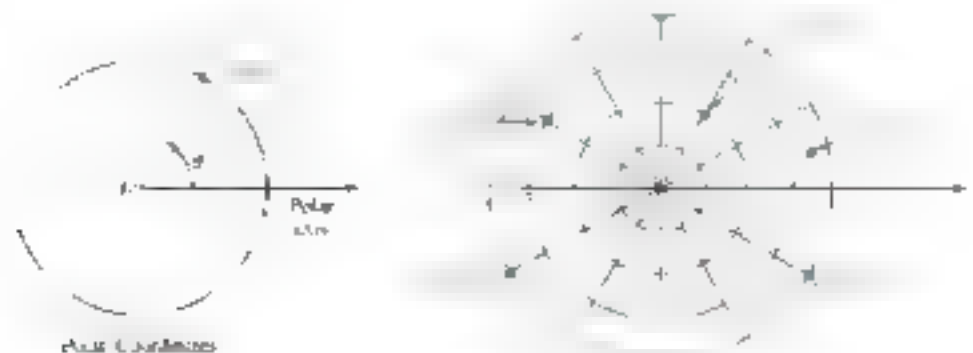


Figure 3

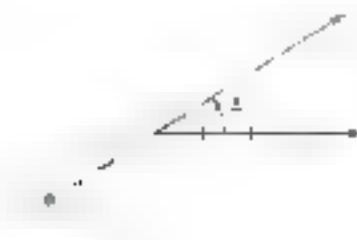


Figure 4

Notice a phenomenon that did not occur with Cartesian coordinates: Each point has infinitely many sets of polar coordinates due to the fact that the angles  $\theta + 2\pi n$ ,  $n = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$ , have the same terminal side. For example, the point with polar coordinates  $(-4, \pi)$  also has coordinates  $(-4\pi^2, -4\pi^2)$ ,  $(-4, -\pi)$ , and so on. A diagram representing one set of coordinates will be negative. In this case,  $r = \theta$  is so the  $r$  is opposite direction from the  $\theta$  in the sense of theta + unit from the origin. Thus, the point with polar coordinates  $(-\pi, \pi)$  is shown in Figure 4 and  $(-4, -\pi^2)$  is another set of coordinates for  $(-4, -\pi)$ . The origin has coordinates  $(0, \theta)$ , where  $\theta$  is any angle.

**Polar Equations** Examples of polar equations are

$$r = 3 \sin \theta \quad \text{and} \quad r = \frac{2}{1 - \cos \theta}$$

Polar equations, like rectangular ones, are best visualized on their graphs. The graph of a polar equation is the set of points  $(r, \theta)$  which have  $(r, \theta)$  as a pair of polar coordinates that satisfy the equation. One method for graphing polar equations is to construct a table of values of  $r$  for the corresponding values of  $\theta$  and then connect these points. This is just what a graphing calculator does. A formula for a polar equation.

**EXAMPLE 1** Graph the polar equation  $r = 3 \sin \theta$ .

**SOLUTION** We substitute multiples of  $\pi/6$  for  $\theta$  and calculate the corresponding  $r$  values. See the table in Figure 5. Note that as  $\theta$  increases from  $0$  to  $\pi$ , the graph in Figure 5 is traced twice. ■

**TABLE 1** Graph of  $r = 3 \sin \theta$

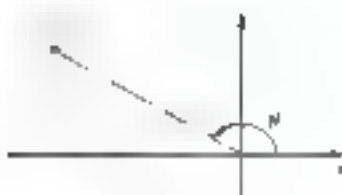
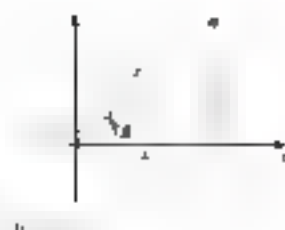
**SOLUTION** See Figure 6. ■

Notice a phenomenon that does not occur with rectangular coordinates. The coordinates  $(-2, 3\pi/2)$  do not satisfy the equation in Example 2. Yet the point  $P(-2, 3\pi/2)$  is on the graph due to the fact that  $-2 = 2 \cos(3\pi/2)$  and does satisfy the equation. We conclude that when graphing polar equations, we must consider the graph of the equation  $r = -a \cos \theta$  as well as the graph of the equation  $r = a \cos \theta$ . This fact causes many problems we must learn to live with.

| $\theta$ | $r$    |
|----------|--------|
| $0$      | $0$    |
| $\pi/6$  | $1.5$  |
| $\pi/3$  | $3$    |
| $2\pi/3$ | $0$    |
| $5\pi/6$ | $-1.5$ |
| $\pi$    | $0$    |
| $7\pi/6$ | $1.5$  |
| $4\pi/3$ | $3$    |
| $3\pi/2$ | $0$    |
| $5\pi/3$ | $-1.5$ |
| $2\pi$   | $0$    |

Figure 5





$(r, \theta)$  or  $(r, \theta + 2\pi)$  or  $(r, \theta + 4\pi)$  or  $(r, \theta + 6\pi)$ . We suppose that the polar axis coincides with the positive  $x$ -axis of the Cartesian system. Then the polar coordinates  $(r, \theta)$  of a point  $P$  and the Cartesian coordinates  $(x, y)$  of the same point are related by the equations

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{Polar to Cartesian:} & x = r \cos \theta \\ \text{Cartesian to Polar:} & r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \\ & \tan \theta = \frac{y}{x} \end{array}$$

That this is true for a point  $P$  in the first quadrant is clear from Figure 7 and is easy to show for points in the other quadrants.

**EXAMPLE 3** Find the Cartesian coordinates corresponding to  $(4, \pi/6)$ , and polar coordinates corresponding to  $(-3, \sqrt{3})$ .

**SOLUTION** If  $(r, \theta) = (4, \pi/6)$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} x &= 4 \cos \frac{\pi}{6} = 4 \left( \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \right) = 2\sqrt{3} \\ y &= 4 \sin \frac{\pi}{6} = 4 \left( \frac{1}{2} \right) = 2 \end{aligned}$$

If  $(x, y) = (-3, \sqrt{3})$ , then (see Figure 8)

$$\begin{aligned} r &= \sqrt{(-3)^2 + (\sqrt{3})^2} = 2\sqrt{3} \\ \tan \theta &= \frac{\sqrt{3}}{-3} \end{aligned}$$

One value of  $(r, \theta)$  is  $(2\sqrt{3}, 5\pi/6)$ . Another is  $(-2\sqrt{3}, -\pi/6)$ . ■

Sometimes we can identify the graph of a polar equation by finding its equivalent Cartesian form. Here is an illustration.

**EXAMPLE 4** Show that the graph of  $r = 8 \sin \theta$  (Example 1) is a circle and that the graph of  $r = 4 \cos \theta$  (Example 2) is a parabola by changing to Cartesian coordinates.

**SOLUTION** If we multiply  $r = 8 \sin \theta$  by  $r$  we get

$$r^2 = 8r \sin \theta$$

which, in Cartesian coordinates, is

$$x^2 + y^2 = 8y$$

and may be written successively as

$$\begin{aligned} x^2 + y^2 - 8y + 16 &= 16 \\ x^2 + (y - 4)^2 &= 16 \end{aligned}$$

The latter is the equation of a circle of radius 4 centered at  $(0, 4)$ .

The second equation is handled by the following steps.

$$\begin{aligned} r &= 4 \cos \theta \\ r &= x \quad \theta = \pi \\ r &= -x \quad \theta = \pi \\ r &= x + 2 \\ r^2 &= (x + 2)^2 \\ x^2 + y^2 &= x^2 + 4x + 4 \\ y^2 &= 4x + 4 \\ y &= 2\sqrt{x + 1} \end{aligned}$$

#### Caution

Since  $r$  can be 0, there is a potential danger in multiplying both sides of a polar equation by  $r$  or in dividing both sides by  $r$ . In the first case, we might lose the pole in the graph or, the second, we might delete the pole from the graph. In Example 4, we multiplied both sides of  $r = 8 \sin \theta$  by  $r$  but in that it was done since the pole was already on the graph as the point with  $\theta$ -coordinate 0.

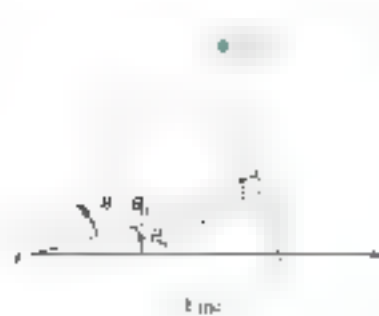


Figure 1

We recognize the last equation as that of a parabola with vertex at  $(0, 0)$  and focus at the origin.

Let us now consider the case in which the conic does not pass through the pole. If we assume the conic does not go through the pole, we assume distance  $d > 0$  from it. Let  $\theta_0$  be the angle from the polar axis to the perpendicular from the pole to the conic (Figure 2). Then  $\angle P_1P_2\theta'$  is any number in the line  $\cos(\theta - \theta_0) = d/r \cdot \cos \theta$ .

$$\text{Line: } r = \frac{d}{\cos(\theta - \theta_0)}$$

If a circle of radius  $a$  is centered at the pole its equation is simply  $r = a$ . If it is centered at  $(r_0, \theta_0)$  its equation is  $r^2 - 2r_0r \cos(\theta - \theta_0) + r_0^2 = a^2$  (see Figure 3). Then by the Law of Cosines,  $a^2 = r^2 + r_0^2 - 2r_0r \cos(\theta - \theta_0)$  which simplifies to

$$\text{Circle: } r = 2a \cos(\theta - \theta_0) + r_0$$

The cases  $\theta_0 = 0$  and  $\theta_0 = \pi$  are particularly nice. The first is given by  $r = 2a \cos \theta$  the second gives  $r = -2a \cos \theta$  or  $r = 2a$  that is,  $r = 2a \cos \theta$  or  $r = 2a$  should be compared with Example 1.

Finally, if a conic (ellipse, parabola, or hyperbola) is placed so that its focus is at the pole and its directrix is a unit circle as in Figure 4, then the standard defining equation  $|PF| = e|PD|$  takes the form

$$r = e|d - r \cos(\theta - \theta_0)|$$

or equivalently

$$\text{Conic: } r = \frac{ed}{1 - e \cos(\theta - \theta_0)}$$

Again, there is special interest in the cases  $\theta_0 = 0$  and  $\theta_0 = \pi/2$ . Note in particular that if  $e = 1$ ,  $d = 1$  and  $\theta_0 = 0$  we have the equation of Example 2.

Our results are summarized in the chart on the following page.

**EXAMPLE 8** Find the equation of the horizontal ellipse with eccentricity  $\frac{1}{2}$  focus at the pole and vertices 10 units to the right of the pole.

**SOLUTION**

$$r = \frac{ed}{1 - e \cos \theta} = \frac{(1/2)d}{1 - (1/2) \cos \theta}$$

**EXAMPLE 9** Identify and sketch the graph of  $r = \frac{7}{4 - 4 \sin \theta}$ .

**SOLUTION** The equation suggests a conic with vertical major axis. Putting it into the form shown in the polar equations chart gives

$$r = \frac{7}{4 - 4 \sin \theta} = \frac{7}{4(1 - \sin \theta)} = \frac{7}{4} \cdot \frac{1}{1 - \sin \theta}$$

which we recognize as the polar equation of a hyperbola with  $e = 2$ , focus at the pole, and asymptotes  $\theta = \pi/6$  and  $5\pi/6$  (see Figure 5).



Figure 2

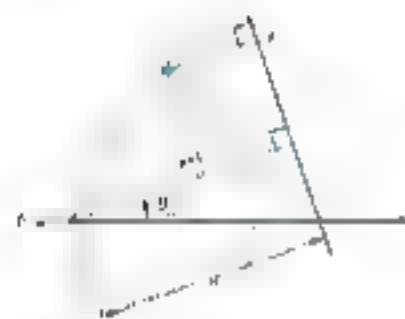


Figure 3

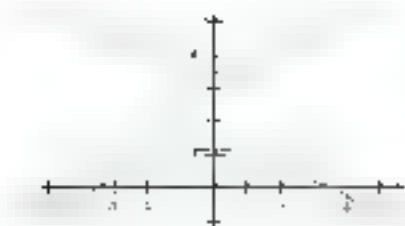
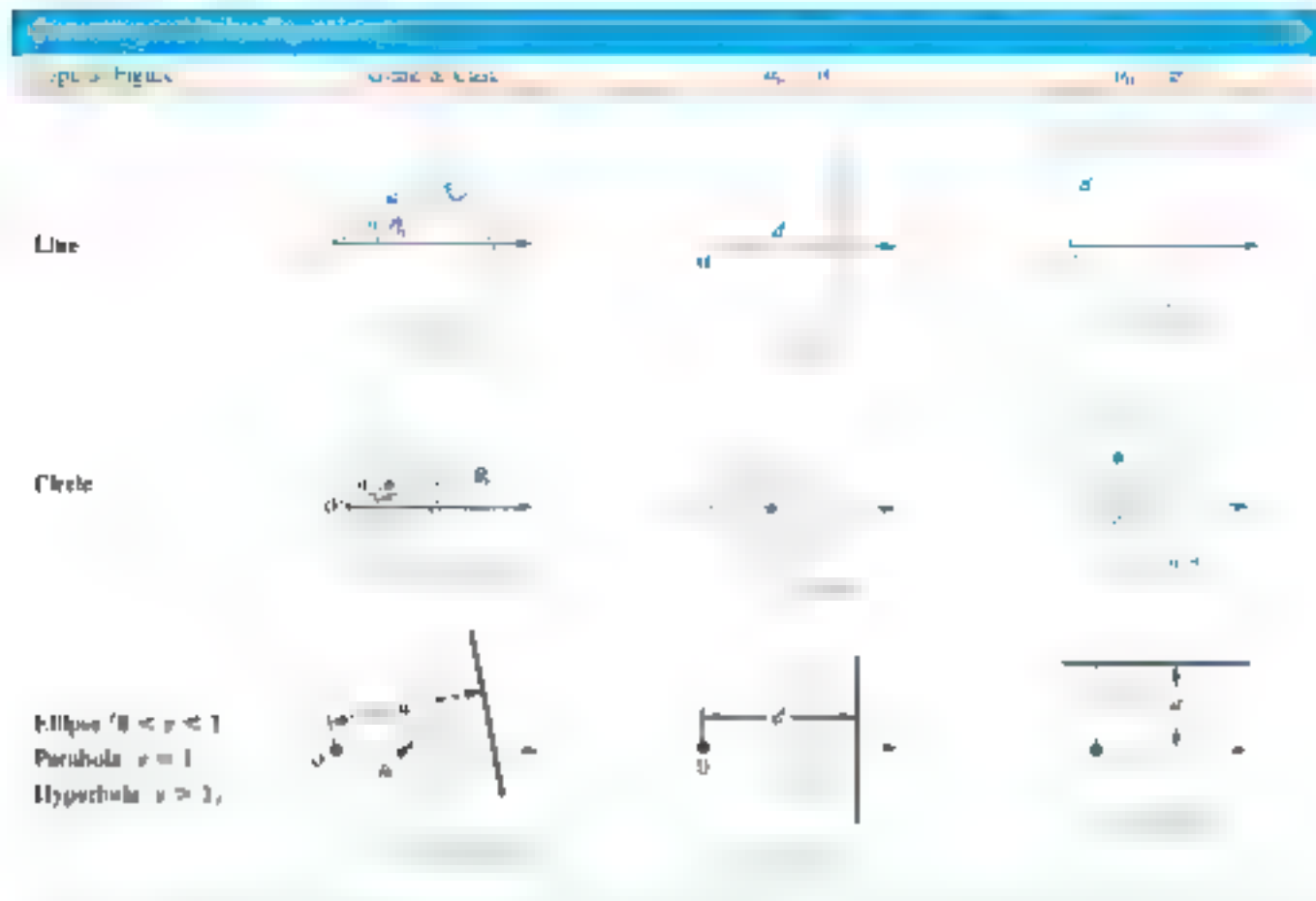


Figure 4



## Concepts Review

1. Every point in the plane has a unique pair  $(r, \theta)$  of Cartesian coordinates, but \_\_\_\_\_ points  $(r, \theta)$  of polar coordinates.

2. The relations  $x = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$  and  $y = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$  connect Cartesian and polar coordinates, where  $r$  is \_\_\_\_\_.

3. The graph of the polar equation  $r = 5$  (in  $\text{cm}$ ) \_\_\_\_\_, the graph of  $\theta = \frac{\pi}{4}$  is \_\_\_\_\_.

4. The graph of the polar equation  $r = \cos(\theta + \pi/4)$  is \_\_\_\_\_.

## Problem Set 10.5

1. Plot the points whose polar coordinates are  $(3, \pi)$ ,  $(-4, \pi/2)$ ,  $(0, \pi)$ ,  $(4, \pi/4)$ ,  $(-2, \pi)$ , and  $(3, 0)$ .

2. Plot the points whose polar coordinates are  $(3, 2\pi)$ ,  $(2, 3\pi)$ ,  $(-4, -\pi/2)$ ,  $(0, 0)$ ,  $(1, 5\pi/4)$ ,  $(2, -\pi/4)$ ,  $(1, \frac{1}{2}\pi)$ , and  $(3, \frac{3}{2}\pi)$ .

3. Plot the points whose polar coordinates are  $(3, 2\pi)$ ,  $(-2, \pi/2)$ ,  $(-2, -\pi/2)$ ,  $(1, 1)$ ,  $(1, -4\pi)$ ,  $(\sqrt{3}, \frac{1}{2}\pi)$ ,  $(-2, \frac{1}{2}\pi)$ , and  $(1, -\pi/2)$ .

4. Plot the points whose polar coordinates are  $(2, \frac{7}{4}\pi)$ ,  $(-2, \frac{1}{4}\pi)$ ,  $(-1, -1)$ ,  $(1, \pi/4)$ ,  $(1, -\pi/4)$ ,  $(1, \pi)$ ,  $(1, 0)$ , and  $(1, \pi/2)$ .

5. Plot the points whose polar coordinates follow. For each point, give four other pairs of polar coordinates, two with positive  $r$  and two with negative  $r$ .

(a)  $(2, \pi/4)$  (b)  $(3, \pi/2)$  (c)  $(-1, \pi/4)$

6. Plot the points whose polar coordinates follow. For each point, give four other pairs of polar coordinates, two with positive  $r$  and two with negative  $r$ .

(a)  $(2\sqrt{2}, \pi)$  (b)  $(-1, \frac{2}{3}\pi)$  (c)  $(2, \pi)$  (d)  $(\sqrt{3}, \pi)$

7. Find the Cartesian coordinates of the points in Problem 5.

8. Find the Cartesian coordinates of the points in Problem 6.



9. Find polar coordinates of the points whose Cartesian coordinates are given.

(a)  $(3\sqrt{3}, 3)$

(c)  $(-\sqrt{2}, -\sqrt{2})$

10. Find polar coordinates of the points whose Cartesian coordinates are given.

(a)  $(3, -3, \sqrt{2})$

(c)  $(0, 2)$

(b)  $(-2, 2)$

(d)  $(2, 0)$

(b)  $(-2, 2, \sqrt{2})$

(d)  $(3, -4)$

In each of Problems 11–16, sketch the graph of the given Cartesian equation, and then find the polar equation for it.

11.  $x^2 - 3y - 3 = 0$

12.  $x^2 = y$

13.  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$

14.  $x^2 + y^2 = 9$

15.  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$

16.  $x^2 + y^2 = 9$

In Problems 17–22, find the Cartesian equations of the graphs of the given polar equations.

17.  $\theta = \pi/4$

18.  $r = 1$

19.  $r \cos \theta - 3 = 0$

20.  $r = 3 \cos \theta = 0$

21.  $\sin \theta = 0$

22.  $r^2 = 16 \sin \theta$

In Problems 23–36, graph the curve with the given polar equation. If it is a conic, give its eccentricity. Sketch the graph.

23.  $r = 4$

24.  $\theta = \frac{2\pi}{3}$

25.  $r = \frac{1}{\sin \theta}$

26.  $r = \frac{1}{\cos \theta}$

27.  $r = 2 \sin \theta$

28.  $r = 2 \cos \theta$

29.  $r = \frac{1}{1 - \cos \theta}$

30.  $r = \frac{1}{1 + \cos \theta}$

31.  $r = \frac{1}{1 - \sin \theta}$

32.  $r = \frac{1}{1 + \sin \theta}$

33.  $r = \frac{1}{1 - \cos \theta}$

34.  $r = \frac{1}{1 + \cos \theta}$

35.  $r = \frac{1}{1 - \sin \theta}$

36.  $r = \frac{1}{1 + \sin \theta}$

37. Show that the polar equation of the circle with center  $(c, \alpha)$  and radius  $a$  is  $r^2 - 2rc \cos(\theta - \alpha) + c^2 = a^2$ .

38. Prove that  $r = a \sin \theta + b \cos \theta$  represents a circle and find its center and radius.

39. Find the length of the latus rectum for the general conic  $r = ed/(1 - e \cos(\theta - \theta_0))$ , in terms of  $e$  and  $d$ .

40. Let  $r_1$  and  $r_2$  be the minimum and maximum distances (perihelion and aphelion, respectively) of the ellipse  $r = ed/(1 - e \cos \theta)$ ,  $\theta_0 = 0$ , from a focus. Show that

(a)  $r_1 = ed/(1 - e)$ ,  $r_2 = ed/(1 + e)$

(b) major diameter =  $2ed/(1 - e^2)$  and minor diameter =  $2ed \sqrt{1 - e^2}$

41. The perihelion and aphelion for the orbit of the asteroid Icarus are 17 and 162 million miles, respectively. What is the eccentricity of its elliptical orbit?

42. Earth's orbit around the sun is an ellipse of eccentricity 0.0167 and major diameter 185.6 million miles. Find its perihelion.

43. The path of a comet comes so close to the sun as the earth that the angle between the axis of the parabola and the axis of the earth's orbit is  $90^\circ$ . The comet is at perihelion in the sun on the correct when the comet is 383 million miles from the sun. How close does the comet get to the sun?

44. The position of a comet with a highly eccentric elliptical orbit (so very near  $\infty$ ) is measured with respect to a fixed polar axis (sun is at a focus) by the polar axis and an axis in the ellipse at two times, giving the two points  $(4, \pi/2)$  and  $(3, \pi/4)$  of the orbit. Here distances are measured in astronomical units ( $1 \text{ AU} \approx 93$  million miles); let the point of the orbit nearest the sun, assuming that  $e = 1$ , to the orbit is given by

$$r = \frac{d}{1 + e \cos \theta - \theta_0}$$

(a) The two points give two equations in  $d$  and  $\theta_0$ ; solve them to show that  $d = 4.24$  and  $\theta_0 = 3.76$  or  $\theta_0 = 3 + \pi$ .

(b) Solve for  $d$  using Newton's method.

(c) How close does the comet get to the sun?

45. In order to graph a polar equation such as  $r = f(\theta)$  using a parametric equation grapher, you must rewrite this equation by  $x = f(\theta) \cos \theta$  and  $y = f(\theta) \sin \theta$ . These equations can be obtained by multiplying  $r = f(\theta)$  by  $\cos \theta$  and  $\sin \theta$ , respectively. Confirm the discussion of conics in the text by graphing  $r = de/(1 - e \cos \theta)$  for  $e = 0.1, 0.5, 0.9, 1, -1$  and  $1.5$  in  $[-\pi, \pi]$ .

Answers to Concepts Review: 1. infinitely many

2.  $\cos \theta = 1/4$  3.  $\theta = \pi/3$  4.  $\sin \theta$

## Graphs of Polar Equations

The polar equations considered in the previous section are graphed mainly lines, circles, and curves. Now we turn our attention to more exotic curves—cardioids, limaçons, lemniscates, roses, and spirals. The polar equations for these curves are rather simple, the corresponding Cartesian equations are quite complicated. Thus we see one of the advantages of having our own polar coordinate system. Some curves have simple equations in one system or other curves have simple equations in the other system. We will explain this later in the book when we introduce the solution of a problem by choosing a convenient coordinate system.

Symmetry can help us to understand a graph. Here are some sufficient tests for symmetry in polar coordinates. The diagrams in the margin will help you understand these tests.



- The graph of a polar equation is symmetric about the  $y$ -axis (the polar axis) if replacing  $(r, \theta)$  by  $(r, \pi - \theta)$  (or by  $(-r, \theta - \pi)$ ) produces an equivalent equation (Figure 1).
- The graph of a polar equation is symmetric about the  $x$ -axis (the line  $\theta = \pi/2$ ) if replacing  $(r, \theta)$  by  $(r, -\theta)$  (or by  $(-r, \pi - \theta)$ ) produces an equivalent equation (Figure 2).

The graph of a polar equation is symmetric about the origin (pole) if replacing  $(r, \theta)$  by  $(-r, \theta)$  (or by  $(r, \pi + \theta)$ ) produces an equivalent equation (Figure 3).

Because of the multiple representation of points in polar coordinates, symmetries may exist that are not identified by these three tests (see Problem 39).

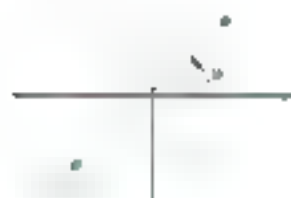
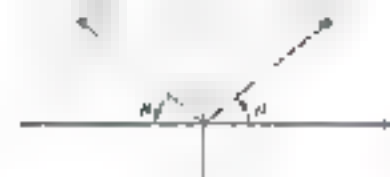
**Cardioids and Limaçons** We consider equations of the form

$$r = a + b \cos \theta \quad \text{or} \quad r = a + b \sin \theta$$

with  $a$  and  $b$  positive. Their graphs are the limaçons, which are a class of which a  $b = 0$  member is a **cardioid**. Typical graphs are shown in Figure 4.

**EXAMPLE 1** Analyze the equation  $r = 1 + 4 \cos \theta$  for symmetry and sketch its graph.

**SOLUTION** Since  $\cos \theta$  is an even function,  $\cos(-\theta) = \cos \theta$ , the graph is symmetric with respect to the  $x$ -axis. The other symmetry tests fail. A table of values and the graph appear in Figure 5. ■



| $\theta$ | $r$ |
|----------|-----|
| 0        | 5   |
| $\pi/3$  | 3   |
| $\pi/2$  | 1   |
| $2\pi/3$ | 1   |
| $\pi$    | 3   |
| $4\pi/3$ | 5   |
| $3\pi/2$ | 1   |
| $5\pi/3$ | 3   |
| $2\pi$   | 5   |



Figure 5

**Limaçons** The graphs of

$$r^2 = a \cos 2\theta \quad \text{or} \quad r^2 = a \sin 2\theta$$

are figure-eight-shaped curves called **lemniscates**.

**EXAMPLE 2** Analyze the equation  $r^2 = 9 \cos 2\theta$  for symmetry and sketch its graph.

**SOLUTION** Since  $\cos(-2\theta) = \cos 2\theta$  and

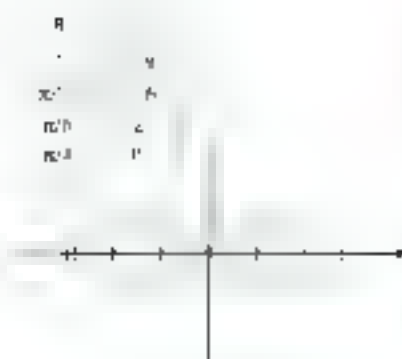
$$\cos^2(-\theta) = \cos^2 \theta \quad [ \cos^2(\pi - 2\theta) = \cos^2(-2\theta) = \cos^2 2\theta ]$$

the graph is symmetric with respect to both axes. Clearly, it is also symmetric with respect to the origin. A table of values and the graph are shown in Figure 6. ■

**Roses** Polar equations of the form

$$r = a \cos n\theta \quad \text{or} \quad r = a \sin n\theta$$

represent flower-shaped curves called **roses**. The rose has  $n$  leaves if  $n$  is odd and  $2n$  leaves if  $n$  is even.



**EXAMPLE** Analyze  $r = 4 \sin 2\theta$  for symmetry and sketch its graph.

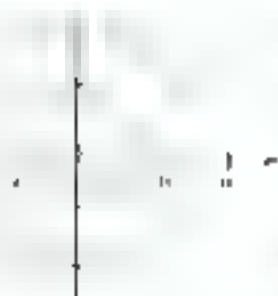
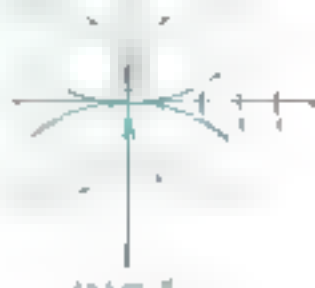
**SOLUTION** You can check that  $r = 4 \sin 2\theta$  satisfies all three symmetry tests. For example, it meets Test 1 since

$$\sin 2(\pi - \theta) = \sin(2\pi - 2\theta) = -\sin 2\theta$$

and by replacing  $(r, \theta)$  by  $(-r, \pi - \theta)$ , produces an equivalent equation.

A rather extensive table of values for  $0 \leq \theta \leq \pi/2$ , a somewhat larger one for  $\pi/2 \leq \theta \leq 2\pi$ , and the corresponding graph are shown in Figure 7. The arrows on the curve indicate the direction in which  $r$  increases as  $\theta$  increases from 0 to  $2\pi$ .

| $\theta$ | $r$         | $x = r \cos \theta$ | $y = r \sin \theta$ |
|----------|-------------|---------------------|---------------------|
| 0        | 0           | 0                   | 0                   |
| $\pi/6$  | 2           | $\sqrt{3}$          | 1                   |
| $\pi/4$  | $\sqrt{2}$  | 1                   | 1                   |
| $\pi/3$  | 4           | 2                   | $2\sqrt{3}$         |
| $\pi/2$  | 0           | 0                   | 0                   |
| $2\pi/3$ | -4          | -2                  | $-2\sqrt{3}$        |
| $3\pi/4$ | $-\sqrt{2}$ | -1                  | -1                  |
| $5\pi/6$ | -2          | $-\sqrt{3}$         | -1                  |
| $\pi$    | 0           | 0                   | 0                   |



**SPIRALS** The graph of  $r = a\theta$  is called a **spiral of Archimedes**; the graph of  $r = a e^{b\theta}$  is called a **logarithmic spiral**.

**EXAMPLE 4** Sketch the graph of  $r = \theta$  for  $\theta \geq 0$ .

**SOLUTION** We omit a table of values but note that the graph passes the polar axis at  $(0, 0)$ ,  $(2\pi, 2\pi)$ ,  $(4\pi, 4\pi)$ , ... and crosses the extension to the left at  $(-\pi, -\pi)$ ,  $(-3\pi, -3\pi)$ ,  $(-5\pi, -5\pi)$ , ... as in Figure 8.

**Intersection of Curves in Polar Coordinates** In Cartesian coordinates, all points of intersection of two curves can be found by solving the equations of the curves simultaneously. In polar coordinates, this is not always the case. This is because a point  $P$  has many names of the form  $(r, \theta)$  and  $(r, \theta + 2\pi)$ . The polar equation of one curve with a different point  $P$  satisfies the polar equation of the other curve for a different  $\theta$ . For example,  $r = 4 \cos \theta$  and  $r = 4 \sin \theta$  intersect at the pole  $(0, \pi)$  in two points, the pole and  $(2, \pi/4)$ , and yet only the latter is a common solution of the two equations. This happens because the common  $x$  and  $y$  coordinates of the two points satisfy the equations of both lines and thus satisfy the equations of the circle as well.

Our conclusion is that, in order to find all intersections of two curves whose polar equations are given, solve the equations simultaneously, then graph the two equations carefully to discover other possible points of intersection.

**EXAMPLE 5** Find the points of intersection of the two cardioids  $r = 1 - \cos \theta$  and  $r = 1 + \cos \theta$ .

**SOLUTION** If we eliminate  $r$  between the two equations, we get  $1 + \cos \theta = 1 - \cos \theta$ , so  $\cos \theta = -\cos \theta$  or  $\tan \theta = 1$ . We conclude that  $\theta = \pi/4$  or  $\theta = 3\pi/4$ , which yields the two intersection points  $(1, \pi/4)$  and  $(1, 3\pi/4)$ . The graphs in Figure 9 show, however, that we have missed a third intersection point, the pole. The reason we missed it is that  $\cos \theta = 1$  when  $\theta = 0$  but  $r = 0$  at  $r = 1 - \cos \theta$  when  $\theta = \pi$ .

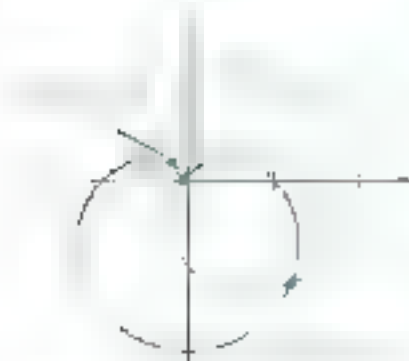
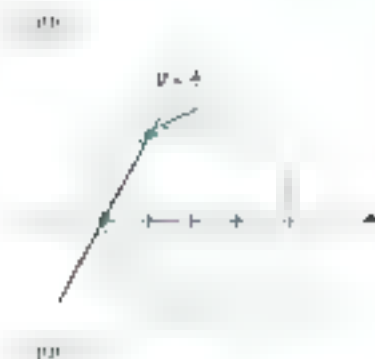


Figure 9



45. Match the polar equations to the graphs labeled I–VIII in Figure 11, giving reasons for your choices.

- |                                       |                               |
|---------------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| a) $r = \cos(\theta - \frac{\pi}{5})$ | (g) $r = 5 \cos(3\theta)$     |
| b) $r = 7 - 3 \sin(5\theta)$          | (h) $r = 1 - 2 \sin(5\theta)$ |
| c) $r = \cos \theta$                  | $r = \frac{1}{2} \sin \theta$ |
| d) $r = \theta$                       | $r = \frac{1}{2} \cos \theta$ |

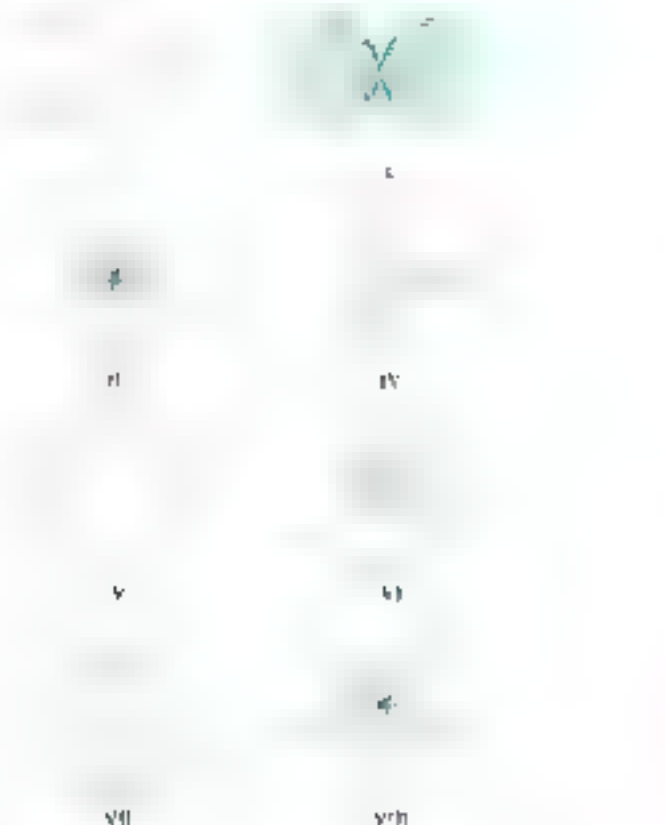


Figure 11

► In Problems 46–49, use a computer or graphing calculator to graph the given equation. Make sure that you choose a sufficiently large interval for the parameter so that the entire curve is shown.

46.  $r = 5 \sin \theta$       47.  $r = \cos \theta$   
 48.  $r = \sin 5\theta$       49.  $r = \cos 5\theta$

► EXPL 50. In many cases, polar graphs are related to each other by rotation. We explore that concept next.

- a) How are the graphs of  $r = 1 + \sin(\theta - \pi/4)$  and  $r = 1 + \sin \theta$  related? the graph of  $r = 1 + \sin \theta$   
 b) How is the graph of  $r = 1 + \sin \theta$  related to the graph of  $r = 1 + \cos \theta$ ?  
 c) How is the graph of  $r = 1 + \sin \theta$  related to the graph of  $r = 1 + \cos \theta$ ?  
 d) How is the graph of  $r = f(\theta)$  related to the graph of  $r = f(\theta - \pi/4)$ ?

► EXPL 51. Investigate the family of curves given by  $r = a \cos n\theta + b$ , where  $a$ ,  $b$ , and  $n$  are real numbers, and

$n$  is a positive integer. As you answer the following questions, be sure that you graph a sufficient number of examples to justify your conclusions.

- (a) How are the graphs for  $b = 0$  related to those for which  $b \neq 0$ ?  
 (b) How does the graph change as  $n$  increases?  
 (c) How do the relative magnitude and sign of  $a$  and  $b$  change the nature of the graph?

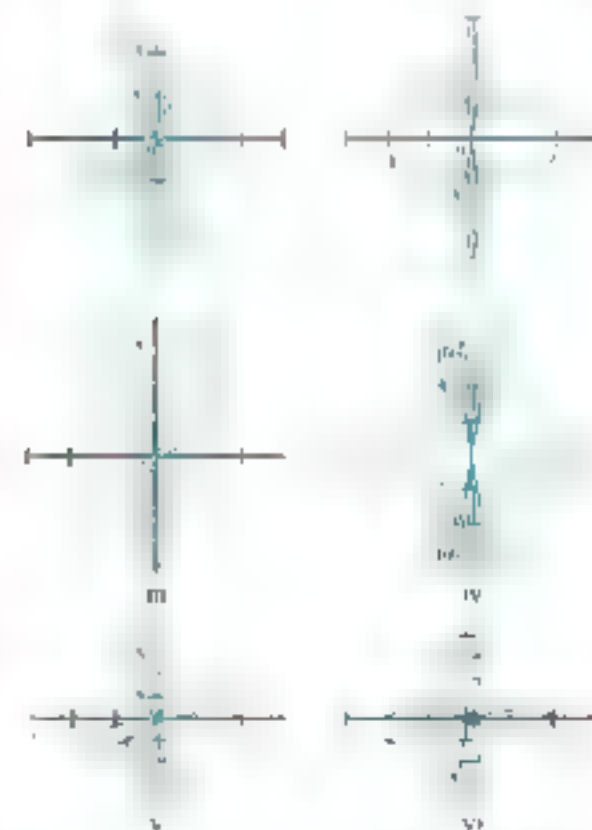
52. Investigate the family of curves defined by the polar equation  $r = (a \cos n\theta)$ , where  $n$  is some positive integer. How do the number of leaves depend on  $n$ ?

53. Investigate the family of curves defined by the polar equation  $r = (a \sin n\theta)$ , where  $n$  is some positive integer. How do the number of leaves depend on  $n$ ?

54. Sketch the curve  $r = a \cos n\theta$  given by  $r = 8 \cos 4\theta$ . Does it appear to be clockwise or counterclockwise?

55. The following polar equations are represented by six graphs in Figure 12. Match each graph with its equation.

- |                          |                       |
|--------------------------|-----------------------|
| a) $r = 1 + \cos \theta$ | b) $r = \sin \theta$  |
| c) $r = 1 + \sin \theta$ | d) $r = \cos \theta$  |
| e) $r = \cos 4\theta$    | f) $r = \sin 4\theta$ |



1. Section 10.1      2. Section 10.2      3. Section 10.3      4. Section 10.4

## 10.7 Calculus in Polar Coordinates



$$s = r\theta$$

The two most basic problems in calculus are the determination of the slope of a tangent line and the area of a curve region. Here we consider both problems but in the context of polar coordinates. The area problem plays a larger role in the rest of the book, so we consider it first.

In Cartesian coordinates, the fundamental building block in area problems was the rectangle. In polar coordinates, the sector of a circle is the pie-shaped building block, as shown in Figure 1. From the fact that the area of a circle is  $\pi r^2$ , we infer that the area of a sector with central angle  $\theta$  radians is  $\frac{\theta}{2\pi} \pi r^2$ —that is,

$$\text{Area of a sector} = \frac{1}{2} r^2 \theta.$$

Let  $f$  be a continuous nonnegative function for  $a \leq \theta \leq \beta$  and  $\beta - a < 2\pi$ . The curves  $r = f(\theta)$ ,  $\theta = a$ , and  $\theta = \beta$  bound a region  $R$  (see the chart on the left in Figure 2) whose area  $A(R)$  we wish to determine.



Figure 2



Partition the interval  $[a, \beta]$  into  $n$  subintervals by means of  $n + 1$  numbers  $a = \theta_0 < \theta_1 < \theta_2 < \cdots < \theta_n = \beta$  thereby dividing  $R$  into  $n$  smaller pie-shaped regions  $R_1, R_2, \dots, R_n$  as shown in the right half of Figure 2. Clearly,  $A(R) = A(R_1) + A(R_2) + \cdots + A(R_n)$ .

We approximate the area  $A(R)$  of the  $n$ th slice in (a) by (b) in two ways. On the interval  $[\theta_{i-1}, \theta_i]$  choose  $v_i$  as any number less than or equal to the maximum value for  $|f|$  on  $[\theta_{i-1}, \theta_i]$  and  $u_i$  as any number greater than or equal to the minimum value for  $|f|$  on  $[\theta_{i-1}, \theta_i]$ . Then

$$\frac{1}{2} |f(u_i)|^2 \Delta\theta_i \leq A(R_i) \leq \frac{1}{2} |f(v_i)|^2 \Delta\theta_i$$

or, equivalently,

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{2} |f(u_i)|^2 \Delta\theta_i \leq \sum_{i=1}^n A(R_i) \leq \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{2} |f(v_i)|^2 \Delta\theta_i$$

The first and third members of this inequality are Riemann sums for the same integral  $\int_a^\beta \frac{1}{2} |f(\theta)|^2 d\theta$ . When we let the norm of the partition tend toward zero, we obtain (using the Squeeze Theorem) the area formula

$$A = \int_a^\beta \frac{1}{2} |f(\theta)|^2 d\theta$$



## EXAMPLE 3

Curves that, with axes that depend on  $x$ , have an equation of form  $y = a \sin b(x-h)$  or  $y = a \cos b(x-h)$  all have the same shape. For instance,  $y = \sin x$  and  $y = \cos x$  have the same shape, though the pole has length  $\pi/2$  in the  $y$  direction, whereas the corresponding circle of diameter 1 has area  $\pi/4$ . Thus, having equal chords in all directions through a point is not enough to determine area.

Here is a famous unsolved problem that poses in 19th-century terms the question: “How can we tell whether a curve is a circle?” A correct answer to this question (whether an example of such a region or a proof that no such region exists) would make you instantly famous. But, we suggest you work on the problems at the end of the section before you tackle this challenge.

This formula can, of course, be memorized. We prefer that you remember how it was derived. In fact you will note that the three important words *the*, *approximate*, and *integral* all show the way to area problems in polar coordinates. We illustrate what we mean.

**EXAMPLE 4** Find the area of the region inside the cardioid  $r = 2 - \cos \theta$  (see Fig. 4).

**SOLUTION** The graph is sketched in Figure 4; note that  $\theta$  goes from 0 to  $2\pi$ .

For a rough approximation of the area, observe that the cardioid looks much like a circle of radius 2. We therefore expect the answer to be approximately  $\pi(2)^2 = 4\pi$ . To find the exact area, we slice, approximate, and integrate.

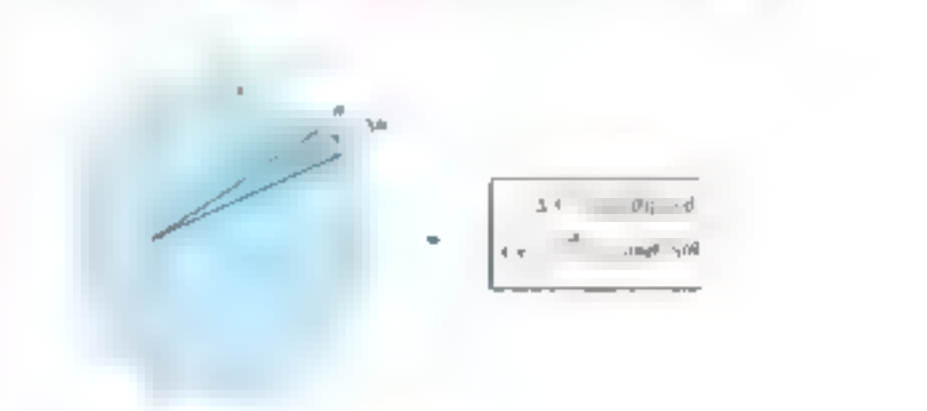


Figure 4

By symmetry, we can double the integral from 0 to  $\pi$ . Thus

$$\begin{aligned} A &= 2 \int_0^\pi (2 - \cos \theta)^2 d\theta = 2 \int_0^\pi (4 + 4 \cos \theta + \cos^2 \theta) d\theta \\ &= 2 \int_0^\pi 4 d\theta + 2 \int_0^\pi 4 \cos \theta d\theta + 2 \int_0^\pi \cos^2 \theta d\theta = 8\pi + 2 \int_0^\pi (1 + \cos 2\theta) d\theta \\ &= 8\pi + 2 \int_0^\pi 1 d\theta + 2 \int_0^\pi \cos 2\theta d\theta = 8\pi + 2\pi + 2 \int_0^\pi \cos 2\theta d\theta \\ &= 10\pi + 2 \left[ \frac{1}{2} \sin 2\theta \right]_0^\pi = 10\pi + 2 \left[ \frac{1}{2} \sin 2\pi - \frac{1}{2} \sin 0 \right] \\ &= 10\pi. \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 5** Find the area of the leaf of the four-leaved rose  $r = 4 \cos 2\theta$  (see Fig. 5).

**SOLUTION** The complete rose was described in Example 3—the petals in Section 10.1. Here we show only the first quadrant leaf (Figure 5). It is 4 units in  $x$  and averages about 5 units in  $y$ ; taking 8 as an estimate for its area. The exact area  $A$  is given by

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \int_0^{\pi/2} (4 \cos 2\theta)^2 d\theta = 16 \int_0^{\pi/2} \cos^2 2\theta d\theta \\ &= 16 \int_0^{\pi/2} \frac{1 + \cos 4\theta}{2} d\theta = 8 \int_0^{\pi/2} (1 + \cos 4\theta) d\theta \\ &= 8 \left[ \theta + \frac{1}{4} \sin 4\theta \right]_0^{\pi/2} = 8 \left[ \frac{\pi}{2} + \frac{1}{4} \sin 2\pi - \left( 0 + \frac{1}{4} \sin 0 \right) \right] \\ &= 4\pi. \end{aligned}$$

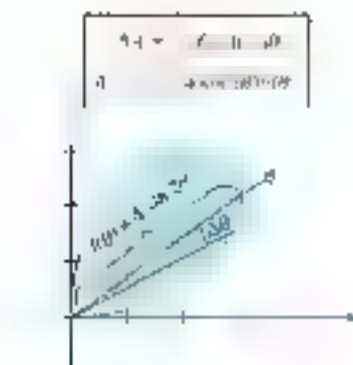
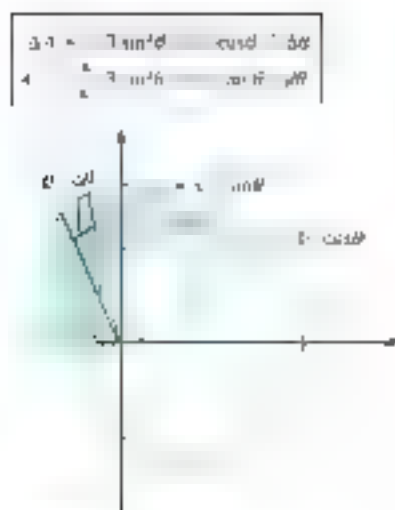


Figure 5



**EXAMPLE 5** Find the area of the region outside the cardioid  $r = 3 \sin \theta$  and inside the circle  $r = 1 + \cos \theta$ .

**SOLUTION** The graphs of the two curves are sketched in Figure 6. We will need the  $\theta$ -coordinates of the points of intersection. Let's solve the two equations simultaneously:

$$\begin{aligned} 1 + \cos \theta &= 3 \sin \theta \\ 1 + 2 \cos \theta + \cos \theta &= 3 \sin \theta \\ 1 + 2 \cos \theta + \cos^2 \theta &= 3(1 - \cos \theta) \\ 4 \cos \theta + 2 \cos^2 \theta - 2 &= 0 \\ 2 \cos \theta + \cos^2 \theta - 1 &= 0 \\ (2 \cos \theta - 1)(\cos \theta + 1) &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\cos \theta = \frac{1}{2} \quad \text{or} \quad \cos \theta = -1$$

$$\theta = \frac{\pi}{3} \quad \text{or} \quad \theta = \pi$$

Now slice, approximate, and integrate:

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \frac{1}{2} \int_{\pi/3}^{\pi} [3 \sin^2 \theta - (1 + \cos \theta)^2] d\theta \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \int_{\pi/3}^{\pi} [3 \sin^2 \theta - 1 - 2 \cos \theta - \cos^2 \theta] d\theta \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \int_{\pi/3}^{\pi} \left[ \frac{3}{2}(1 - \cos 2\theta) - 1 - 2 \cos \theta - \frac{1}{2}(1 + \cos 2\theta) \right] d\theta \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \int_{\pi/3}^{\pi} [-\sin \theta - \cos \theta] d\theta \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left[ \cos \theta - \sin \theta \right]_{\pi/3}^{\pi} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left[ \frac{1}{2} - \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \right] = \frac{1 - \sqrt{3}}{4} \approx 0.249 \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 6** Find the slope of the tangent line to the curve  $r = 1 + \cos \theta$  at the point where the curve intersects the line  $\theta = \pi/3$ . (See Figure 7.)

$$y = r \sin \theta = f(\theta, \sin \theta)$$

$$x = r \cos \theta = f(\theta, \cos \theta)$$

Then

$$m = \lim_{\Delta \theta \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta x} = \lim_{\Delta \theta \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta y \cdot \Delta \theta}{\Delta x \cdot \Delta \theta} = \frac{dy/d\theta}{dx/d\theta}$$

That is,

$$m = \frac{f'(\theta) \cos \theta + f(\theta) \sin \theta}{-f'(\theta) \sin \theta + f(\theta) \cos \theta}$$

The formula we derived simplifies when the graph  $r = f(\theta)$  passes through the pole. For example, suppose for some angle  $\alpha$  that  $r = f(\alpha) = 0$  and  $f'(\alpha) \neq 0$ . Then (at the pole) our formula for  $m$  is

$$m = \frac{f'(\alpha) \cos \alpha}{-f'(\alpha) \sin \alpha} = -\cot \alpha$$



Since the line  $\theta = \alpha$  also has slope  $\tan \alpha$ , we conclude that this line is tangent to the curve at the pole. We refer to such a tangent line as the *tangent line at the pole*, and find it by solving the equation  $f(\theta) = 0$ . We illustrate this next.

**EXAMPLE 4** Consider the polar equation  $r = 4 \sin 3\theta$ .

- Find the slope of the tangent line at  $\theta = \pi/6$  and  $\theta = \pi/4$ .
- Find the tangent lines at the pole.
- Sketch the graph.
- Find the area of one petal.

**SOLUTION**

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(a) } m &= \frac{r'(\theta) \cos \theta - r(\theta) \sin \theta}{r'(\theta) \sin \theta + r(\theta) \cos \theta} = \frac{4 \cos 3\theta \cos \theta - 4 \sin 3\theta \sin \theta}{4 \cos 3\theta \sin \theta + 4 \sin 3\theta \cos \theta} \\ &= \frac{4(\cos \theta \cos 3\theta - \sin \theta \sin 3\theta)}{4(\sin \theta \cos 3\theta + \cos \theta \sin 3\theta)} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{At } \theta = \pi/6:$$

$$m = \frac{4(\cos \pi/6 \cos \pi/2 - \sin \pi/6 \sin \pi/2)}{4(\sin \pi/6 \cos \pi/2 + \cos \pi/6 \sin \pi/2)} = \frac{4(0 - 1/2)}{4(1/2 + 0)} = -1$$

$$\text{At } \theta = \pi/4:$$

$$m = \frac{4(\cos \pi/4 \cos 3\pi/4 - \sin \pi/4 \sin 3\pi/4)}{4(\sin \pi/4 \cos 3\pi/4 + \cos \pi/4 \sin 3\pi/4)} = \frac{4(1/2 \cdot (-1/2) - 1/2 \cdot 1/2)}{4(1/2 \cdot (-1/2) + 1/2 \cdot 1/2)} = \frac{-1}{0}$$

(b) We set  $f(\theta) = 4 \sin 3\theta = 0$  and solve. This yields  $\theta = 0 = \pi \times \theta = 2\pi \times$ ,  $\theta = \pi/3 = \pi \times \theta = 4\pi/3$ , and  $\theta = 5\pi/3$ .

(c) After noting that

$$\sin 1(\pi - \theta) = \sin(3\pi - 3\theta) = \sin 1\pi \cos 3\theta - \cos 1\pi \sin 3\theta = \sin 3\theta$$

which implies symmetry with respect to the  $y$ -axis, we obtain a table of values and sketch the graph shown in Figure 7.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(d) } A &= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{2\pi} (4 \sin 3\theta)^2 d\theta = 8 \int_0^{2\pi} \sin^2 3\theta d\theta \\ &= 4 \int_0^{2\pi} (1 - \cos 6\theta) d\theta = 4 \left[ \theta - \frac{1}{6} \sin 6\theta \right]_0^{2\pi} = 8 \int_0^{\pi} \cos 6\theta d\theta \\ &= \left[ 4\theta - \frac{2}{3} \sin 6\theta \right]_0^{\pi} = \frac{4\pi}{3} \end{aligned}$$

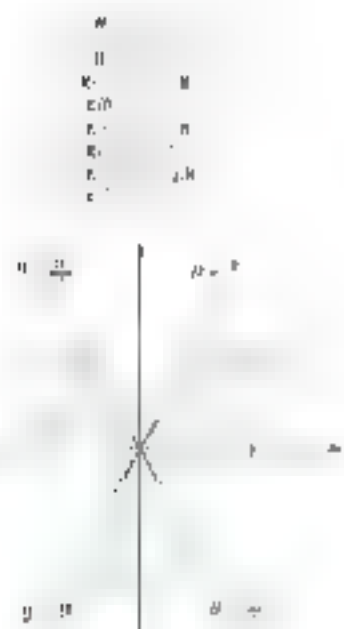


Figure 7

## Concepts Review

1. The formula for the area  $A$  of a sector of a circle of radius  $r$  and angle  $\theta$  (in radians) is  $A =$  \_\_\_\_\_.

2. The formula in Question 1 leads to the formula for the area  $A$  of the region bounded by the curve  $r = f(\theta)$  between  $\theta = a$  and  $\theta = b$  that is \_\_\_\_\_.

3. From the formula of Question 2, we conclude that the area  $A$  of the region inside the cardioid  $r = 2 + 2 \cos \theta$  can be expressed as  $A =$  \_\_\_\_\_.

4. The tangent lines to the polar curve  $r = f(\theta)$  at the pole can be found by solving the equation \_\_\_\_\_.

## Problem Set 10.7

In Problems 1–10, sketch the graph of the given equation and find the area of the region bounded by it.

1.  $r = 1 - \cos \theta$

2.  $r = 2 \cos \theta + 1$

3.  $r = \cos \theta$

4.  $r = 4 \cos \theta$

5.  $r = 2 \sin \theta$

6.  $r = \sin \theta$

7.  $r = 2(1 - \cos \theta)$

8.  $r = \cos 2\theta$

9.  $4 \sin \theta$  10.  $4 \cos \theta$  and  $0$

11. Sketch the limacon  $r = 3 - 4 \sin \theta$ , and find the area of the region inside its small loop.

12. Sketch the limacon  $r = 4 \cos \theta$ , and find the area of the region inside its small loop.

13. Sketch the limacon  $r = 2 - 3 \cos \theta$ , and find the area of the region inside its inner loop.

14. Sketch one leaf of the four-leaved rose  $r = 3 \cos 2\theta$  and find the area of the region enclosed by it.

15. Sketch the three-leaved rose  $r = 4 \cos 3\theta$ , and find the area of the entire region enclosed by it.

16. Sketch the three-leaved rose  $r = 2 \sin 3\theta$  and find the area of the region bounded by it.

17. Find the area of the region between the two concentric circles  $r = 7$  and  $r = 10$ .

18. Sketch the region that is inside the circle  $r = 3 \sin \theta$  and outside the cardioid  $r = 1 - \sin \theta$ , and find its area.

19. Sketch the region that is inside the circle  $r = 7$  and outside the cardioid  $r^2 = 4 \cos 2\theta$ , and find its area.

20. Sketch the limacon  $r = 3 - 6 \sin \theta$ , and find the area of the region that is inside the large loop but outside its small loop.

21. Sketch the region in the first quadrant that is inside the cardioid  $r = 2 + 3 \cos \theta$  and outside the cardioid  $r = 3 + 4 \sin \theta$ , and find its area.

22. Sketch the region in the second quadrant that is inside the cardioid  $r = 2 + 3 \sin \theta$  and outside the cardioid  $r = 3 + 4 \cos \theta$ , and find its area.

23. Find the slope of the tangent line to each of the following curves at  $\theta = \pi/6$ .

- (a)  $r = 2 \cos \theta$  (b)  $r = 1 + \sin \theta$   
 (c)  $r = 4 \sin \theta$  (d)  $r = 1 + \cos \theta$

24. Find all points on the cardioid  $r = a(1 + \cos \theta)$  where the tangent line is

- (a) horizontal (b) vertical

25. Find all points on the limacon  $r = 2 - 2 \sin \theta$  where the tangent line is horizontal.

26. Let  $r = f(\theta)$ , where  $f$  is continuous on the closed interval  $[\alpha, \beta]$ . Derive the following formula for the length  $L$  of the corresponding polar curve from  $\theta = \alpha$  to  $\theta = \beta$ .

$$L = \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \sqrt{[f(\theta)]^2 + [f'(\theta)]^2} d\theta$$

27. Use the formula of Problem 26 to find the perimeter of the cardioid  $r = a(1 + \cos \theta)$ .

28. Find the length of the logarithmic spiral  $r = e^{a\theta}$  from  $\theta = 0$  to  $\theta = \pi$ .

29. Find the total area of the rose  $r = a \cos n\theta$ , where  $n$  is a positive integer.

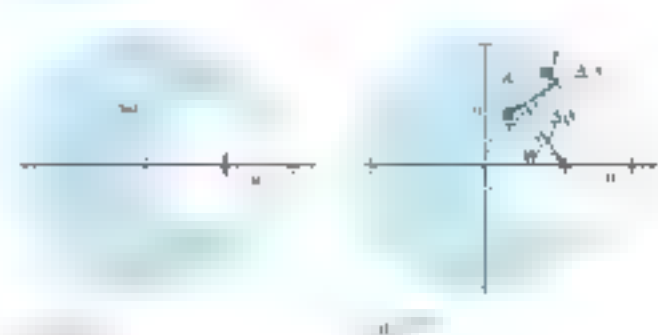
30. Sketch the graph of the cardioid  $r = \sec \theta - 2 \cos \theta$  and find the area of its loop.

31. Consider the two circles  $r = 2a \cos \theta$  and  $r = 2b \cos \theta$ , with  $a$  and  $b$  positive.

- (a) Find the area of the region inside both circles.  
 (b) Show that the two circles intersect at right angles.

32. Assume that a planet of mass  $m$  is revolving around the sun (located at the pole) with constant angular momentum  $mh = mh^2/dt$ . Deduce Kepler's Second Law: The time from the sun to the planet sweeps out equal areas in equal times.

33. **First Old Goat Problem** A goat is tethered to the edge of a circular pond of radius  $a$  by a rope of length  $ka$  ( $0 < k \leq 2$ ). Let the arc length of the part of the rope that is outside the pond be  $s$  (see Figure 8). *Note:* We solved this problem once before (Problem 73 of Section 6.8); you should be able to make your answer a lot better.



34. **Second Old Goat Problem** Do Problem 33 again, but assume that the pond has a fence around it so that, in forming the wedge  $A$ , the rope wraps around the fence (Figure 9). *Hint:* you are especially well-suited to try the method of this section. *Help:* Note that in the wedge  $A$

$$\frac{1}{2} A = \frac{1}{2} r^2 \alpha = \frac{1}{2} a^2 \alpha$$

which leads to a Riemann sum for an integral. The final answer is  $a^2(2k - 1) - \frac{1}{2} a^2(2k - 1)^2$ , a result needed in Problem 35.

35. **Third Old Goat Problem** An untethered goat grazes inside a yard enclosed by a circular fence of radius  $a$ ; an other grazes outside the fence (pictured as in Problem 34). Find the length of the rope if the two goats have the same grazing area.

Use a computer to do Problems 36–39. In each case be sure to make a visual estimate first. *Note:* the length formula in Problem 26.

36. Find the length of the limacon  $r = 2 + \cos \theta$  and  $r = 2 - 4 \cos \theta$  (see Example 1 of this section and Example 3 of Section 10.6).

37. Find the area and length of the three-leaved rose  $r = 4 \sin 3\theta$  (see Example 4).

38. Find the area and length of the four-leaved rose  $r^2 = k \cos 2\theta$  (see Example 2 of Section 10.6).

39. Plot the curve  $r = 4 \sin(3\theta/2)$ ,  $0 \leq \theta \leq 2\pi$ , and then find its length.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Length} &= \int_0^{2\pi} \sqrt{[f(\theta)]^2 + [f'(\theta)]^2} d\theta \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi} \sqrt{[4 \sin(3\theta/2)]^2 + [6 \cos(3\theta/2)]^2} d\theta \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi} \sqrt{16 \sin^2(3\theta/2) + 36 \cos^2(3\theta/2)} d\theta \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi} \sqrt{16 \sin^2(3\theta/2) + 36 \cos^2(3\theta/2)} d\theta \end{aligned}$$

## 10.8 Chapter Review

## Concepts Test

Respond with true or false to each of the following statements. Be prepared to justify your answer.

- The graph of  $y = ax^2 + bx + c$  is a parabola for all choices of  $a$ ,  $b$ , and  $c$ .
- The vertex of a parabola is midway between the focus and the directrix.
- A vertex of an ellipse is closer to a focus than to a focus.
- The point on a parabola closest to its focus is the vertex.
- The hyperbolas  $x^2/a^2 - y^2/b^2 = 1$  and  $y^2/b^2 - x^2/a^2 = 1$  have the same asymptotes.
- The circumference  $C$  of the ellipse  $x^2/a^2 + y^2/b^2 = 1$  with  $a < b$ , satisfies  $2\pi b < C < 2\pi a$ .
- The smaller the eccentricity  $e$  of an ellipse, the more nearly circular the ellipse is.
- The ellipse  $6x^2 + 4y^2 = 36$  has its foci on the  $y$ -axis.
- The equation  $x^2 - y^2 = 0$  represents a hyperbola.
- The equation  $y^2 - 4x - 1 = 0$  represents a parabola.
- If  $k \neq 0$ ,  $x^2/a^2 - y^2/b^2 = k$  is an equation of a hyperbola.
- If  $k \neq 0$ ,  $x^2/a^2 + y^2/b^2 = k$  is an equation of an ellipse.
- The distance between the foci of the graph of  $x^2/a^2 + y^2/b^2 = 1$  is  $2\sqrt{a^2 - b^2}$ .
- The graph of  $x^2/4 - y^2/4 = -2$  does not intersect the  $x$ -axis.
- Light emanating from a point between a focus and the nearest vertex of an elliptical mirror will be reflected toward the other focus.
- An ellipse that is drawn using a string of length 8 units, at angles to fixed 2 units apart will have minor diameter of length  $\sqrt{2}$  units.
- The graph of  $x^2 + y^2 + Cx + Dy + F = 0$  is either a circle, a point, or the empty set.
- The graph of  $2x^2 + y^2 + Cx + Dy + F = 0$  cannot be a single point.
- The graph of  $Ax^2 + Bxy + Cy^2 + Dx + Ey + F = 0$  is the dissection of a plane with a cone of two nappes for all choices of  $A$ ,  $B$ ,  $C$ ,  $D$ ,  $E$ , and  $F$ .
- In an appropriate coordinate system, the intersections of a plane with a cone of two nappes will have an equation of the form  $Ax^2 + Cx + D = 0$ .
- The graph of a hyperbola must enter all four quadrants.
- If two of the four vertices pass through the four points  $(1, -1)$ ,  $(1, 1)$ , and  $(-1, 1)$ , it must be a circle.
- The parametric representation of a curve is unique.
- The graph of  $x = 2t$ ,  $y = t^2$  is a line.
- If  $y = f(t)$  and  $x = g(t)$ , then we can find a function  $A$  such that  $y = A(x)$ .
- The curve with parametric representation  $x = \ln t$ ,  $y = t^2 - 1$  passes through the origin.
- If  $x = f(t)$  and  $y = g(t)$  and both  $f'$  and  $g'$  exist, then  $d^2y/dx^2 = g''(t)/f''(t)$  whenever  $f'(t) \neq 0$ .

28. A curve may have more than one tangent line at a point on the curve.

29. The graph of the polar equation  $r = 4 \cos \theta$ ,  $\theta \in [0, 2\pi)$  is a circle.

30. Every point in the plane has infinitely many sets of polar coordinates.

31. All points of intersection of the graphs of the polar equations  $r = f(\theta)$  and  $r = g(\theta)$  can be found by solving the equations  $f(\theta) = g(\theta)$ .

32. If  $f$  is an odd function, then the graph of  $r = f(\theta)$  is symmetric with respect to the  $y$ -axis (the line  $\theta = \pi/2$ ).

33. If  $f$  is an even function, then the graph of  $r = f(\theta)$  is symmetric with respect to the  $x$ -axis (the line  $\theta = 0$ ).

34. The graph of  $r = 4 \cos 3\theta$  is a rose of three leaves whose area is less than half that of the circle  $r = 4$ .

## Sample Test Problems

1. From the numbered list pick the correct response or put in each blank the answer.

(1) no graph

(2) a parabola

(3) an intersecting lines

(4) a parabola

(5) a hyperbola

(a)  $\frac{x^2}{4} - \frac{y^2}{4} = 0$

(b)  $\frac{x^2}{4} - \frac{y^2}{4} = 1$

(c)  $\frac{x^2}{4} - \frac{y^2}{4} = -1$

(d)  $\frac{x^2}{4} - \frac{y^2}{4} = 2$

(e)  $\frac{x^2}{4} - \frac{y^2}{4} = -2$

(f)  $\frac{x^2}{4} - \frac{y^2}{4} = 2$

(g)  $\frac{x^2}{4} - \frac{y^2}{4} = -2$

(8) a single point

(9) a circle with

radius

(10) an ellipse

(11) none of the above

(12)  $\frac{x^2}{4} - \frac{y^2}{4} = 1$

(13)  $\frac{x^2}{4} - \frac{y^2}{4} = -1$

(14)  $\frac{x^2}{4} - \frac{y^2}{4} = 2$

(15)  $\frac{x^2}{4} - \frac{y^2}{4} = -2$

2. In each problem, identify the conic, then find the given equation. Find its vertices and foci, and sketch the graph.

1.  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$

2.  $16x^2 - 36y^2 = 900$

3.  $x^2 - 4y^2 = 16$

4.  $x^2 + 4y^2 = 16$

5.  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$

6.  $(x - 2)^2 + y^2 = 9$

7.  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$

8.  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$

9.  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$

10.  $(x - 2)^2 + y^2 = 9$

11.  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$

12.  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$

13.  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$

14.  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$

15.  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$

16.  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$

17.  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$

18.  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$

19.  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$

20.  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$

21.  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$

22.  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$

23.  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$

24.  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$

25.  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$

In Problems 14–22, use the process of completing the square to transform the given equation to a standard form. Then name the corresponding curve and sketch its graph.

19.  $4x^2 + y^2 - 24x - 4y + 31 = 0$

20.  $x^2 + y^2 - 4x + 6y - 16 = 0$

21.  $x^2 + y^2 - 7x = 0$

22.  $x^2 + y^2 - 10x - 16y + 85 = 0$

23. A rotation of axes through  $\theta = 45^\circ$  transforms  $x^2 + 3xy + y^2 = 16$  into  $x'^2 + 16y'^2 = 16$ . Determine  $r$  and  $c$ , name the corresponding curve, and find the distance between its foci.

24. Determine the acute angle  $\theta$  needed to eliminate the  $xy$ -term in  $x^2 + 4xy + 7y^2 = 16$ . Write the corresponding  $xy$ -equation and identify the curve that it represents.

In Problems 25–29, a parametric representation of a curve is given. Eliminate the parameter to obtain the corresponding Cartesian equation. Sketch the graph of the curve.

25.  $x = 6t + 2, y = 3t, -\infty < t < \infty$

26.  $x = 4t^2, y = 4t, -\infty < t < \infty$

27.  $x = 4 \sin t + 2, y = 3 \cos t, 0 \leq t < 2\pi$

28.  $x = \cos t, y = \sin t, 0 \leq t < 2\pi$

In Problems 29 and 30, find the equations of the tangent line at  $t = c$ .

29.  $x = 2t^2 - 4t + 7, y = t + 10, t = 1$

30.  $x = t^2, y = t^3, t = 2$

31. Find the length of the curve  $y = 1 + e^{1/2} - 2 + e^{1/2}$  from  $t = 0$  to  $t = 2$ .

32. Find the length of the curve  $x = t^2, y = t^3$  from  $t = 0$  to  $t = 2$ . Make a sketch.

In Problems 33–42, rewrite the given polar equation and sketch its graph.

33.  $r = 5 \cos \theta$

34.  $r = \frac{5}{\cos \theta}$

35.  $r = \cos 2\theta$

36.  $r = \frac{3}{\sin \theta}$

37.  $r = 4$

38.  $r = 5 - 2 \cos \theta$

39.  $r = \cos \theta$

40.  $r = 2 - 3 \cos \theta$

41.  $\theta = \pi$

42.  $r = 2 \sin 3\theta$

43.  $r^2 = 16 \sin 2\theta$

44.  $r = 2, 0 \leq \theta < 2\pi$

45. Find a Cartesian equation of the graph of

$$r^2 = 6r \cos \theta + 9 \sin^2 \theta + 9 = 0$$

and then sketch the graph.

46. Find a Cartesian equation of the graph of  $r^2 \cos 2\theta = 4$  and then sketch the graph.

47. Find the slope of the tangent line to the graph of  $r = 3 + 3 \cos \theta$  at the point on the graph where  $\theta = \pi$ .

48. Sketch the graphs of  $r = 5 \sin \theta$  and  $r = 2 - \sin \theta$  and find their points of intersection.

49. Find the area of the region bounded by the graph of  $r = 2 - \cos \theta$ .

50. Find the area of the region that is outside the limaçon  $r = 2 - \sin \theta$  and inside the circle  $r = 4 \sin \theta$ .

51. A racing car driving on the elliptical race track  $x^2 + y^2 = 100$  went out of control at the point  $(-6, 8)$  and thereafter continued on the tangent line until it hit a tree at  $(-4, 4)$ . Determine  $\theta$ .

52. Match each polar equation with its graph.

(a)  $r = 3 \sin \theta$

(b)  $r = 3 \cos \theta$

(c)  $r = 3 \sin 2\theta$

(d)  $r = 3 \cos 2\theta$



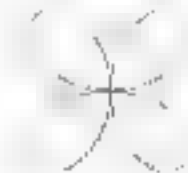
53. Match each polar equation with its graph.

(a)  $r = 2 - 3 \cos \theta$

(b)  $r = 3 \cos \theta$

(c)  $r = 3 \sin \theta$

(d)  $r = 2 \sin \theta$



(I)

(II)

(III)

(IV)

# REVIEW & PREVIEW PROBLEMS

In Problems 1–6, plot the curve whose parametric equation is given.

- $x = t^2, y = t, -1 \leq t \leq 4$
- $x = t^2, y = 1 - t^2, -2 \leq t \leq 2$
- $x = \cos t, y = \sin t, 0 \leq t \leq \pi$
- $x = \sinh t, y = \cosh t, 0 \leq t \leq \pi$
- $x = t, y = \tan^{-1} t, -\pi/4 \leq t \leq \pi/4$
- $x = \cosh t, y = \sinh t, -4 \leq t \leq 4$

In Problems 7–8, find expressions for  $x$  and  $y$  in terms of  $t$  and  $\theta$ .



In Problems 9–13, find the length of the given curve.

- $x = t, y = t^2, 0 \leq t \leq 4$
- $x = t^2, y = t^3, 0 \leq t \leq 1$
- $x = a \cos 3t, y = a \sin 3t, 0 \leq t \leq \pi/3$
- $x = \cosh t, y = \sinh t, 0 \leq t \leq 4$
- Find the point on the line  $y = 2x + 1$  that is closest to the point  $(0, 3)$ . What is the minimum distance between the point and the line?
- Find parametric equations of the locus  $x = at + b_1$  and  $y = at + b_2$  for the line through  $(b_1/a, 0)$  and  $(0, b_2/a)$ .
- An object moving along the  $x$ -axis has position  $s(t) = t^2 - 6t + 8$ .
  - Find the velocity and acceleration.
  - When is the object moving forward?
- An object initially at rest at position  $x = 30$  has acceleration  $a = 2$ .
  - Find the velocity and position.
  - When will the object reach position  $(0, 0)$ ?

In Problems 17–20, sketch a plot of the given curve section.

- $4x = y^2$
- $\frac{x^2}{4} + y^2 = 1$
- $x = t^2$
- $x = t^2, y = t^3, 0 \leq t \leq 4$

In Problems 21–24, sketch a graph of the given polar equation.

- $r = 2$
- $r = \sec \theta$
- $r = 3 \sin \theta$
- $r = \frac{1}{1 + \cos \theta}$

- 11.1 Cartesian Coordinates in Three-Space
- 11.2 Vectors
- 11.3 The Dot Product
- 11.4 The Cross Product
- 11.5 Vector-Valued Functions and Curvilinear Motion
- 11.6 Lines and Tangent Lines in Three-Space
- 11.7 Curvature and Components of Acceleration
- 11.8 Surfaces in Three-Space
- 11.9 Cylindrical and Spherical Coordinates

## 11.1

## Cartesian Coordinates in Three-Space

We have noticed an important relationship between our study of calculus I and II so far: we have been studying curves that lie in the extensive known as the Euclidean plane, or two-space. The concepts of calculus have been applied to functions of a single variable, but only whose graphs can be drawn in the plane. We are now going to study calculus in three dimensions. All the familiar ideas (such as limit, derivative, integral) are to be explored again from a further perspective.

To begin, consider three mutually perpendicular coordinate lines—the  $x$ -,  $y$ -, and  $z$ -axes—with their zero points at a common point  $O$ , called the *origin*. As though these lines are the three edges of a cube, we draw planes to form a coordinate system. The  $xy$ -plane is the part of the plane of a cube with  $O$  at one of its corners. Directions of the right and upward, respectively. The  $yz$ -axis is then perpendicular to the paper, and we suppose its positive end is toward you. The  $xz$ -axis is then perpendicular to the paper, and we suppose its positive end is toward the right. This is a **right-handed system**. We call it right-handed because, if the fingers of the right hand are curled so that they agree with the positive  $x$ -axis, the thumb points in the direction of the positive  $z$ -axis (Figure 1).

The three axes, extending three planes, divide space into eight octants (Figure 2). For each point  $P$  in space, we drop out three perpendiculars to the three planes, which measure its directed distances from the three planes (Figure 3).

Plotting points in the three-space is the same as plotting points in the plane, except that we have an extra axis. We illustrate some of the possibilities by plotting two points, each of which requires one positive and two negative coordinates:  $P(-2, -3, 4)$  and  $Q(-5, 2, -3)$ .

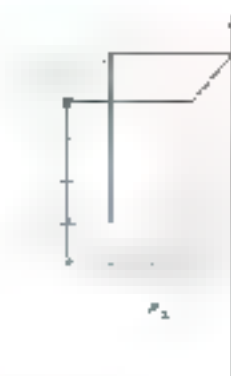
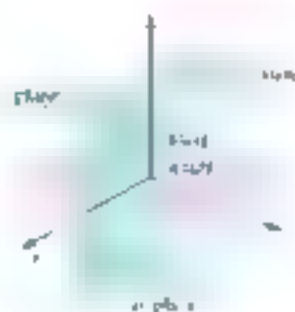
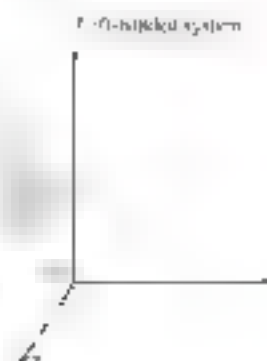


FIGURE 4

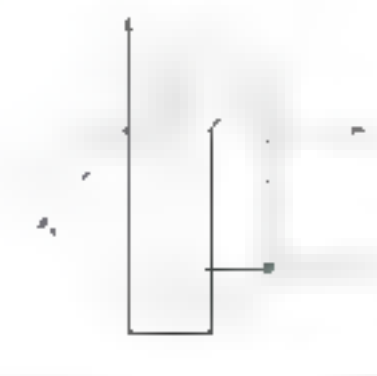
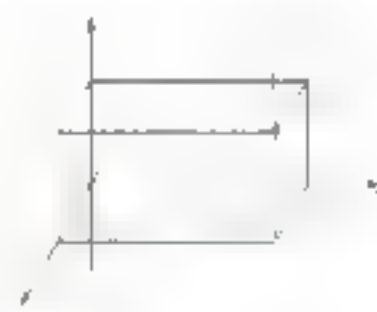
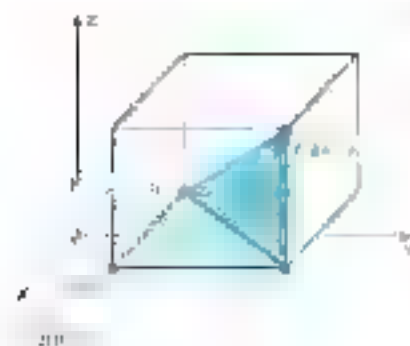


FIGURE 6



**FIGURE 4** Consider two points  $P = (x_1, y_1, z_1)$  and  $P' = (x_2, y_2, z_2)$  in three space. They determine a **parallelepiped** (i.e., a rectangular box) with  $P$  and  $P'$  as opposite vertices and with edges parallel to the coordinate axes (Figure 4). The triangle  $PP'Q$  and  $PQR$  are right triangles and, by the Pythagorean Theorem,

$$|PP'|^2 = |PQ|^2 + |QR|^2$$

and

$$|PQ|^2 = |PR|^2 + |RQ|^2.$$

Thus,

$$|PP'|^2 = |PR|^2 + |RQ|^2 + |QR|^2.$$

$$= (x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2 + (z_2 - z_1)^2.$$

This gives us the **Distance Formula** in three space, which applies even if the coordinates are identical.

$$|PP'| = \sqrt{(x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2 + (z_2 - z_1)^2}.$$

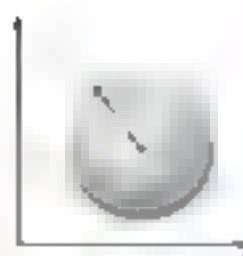
**EXAMPLE 1** Find the distance between the points  $P = (-3, 2, 4)$  and  $Q = (-3, 3, -5)$ , which were plotted in Figures 4 and 5.

**SOLUTION**

$$|PQ| = \sqrt{(-3 - -3)^2 + (2 - 3)^2 + (-5 - 4)^2} = \sqrt{11} \approx 3.32 \quad \blacksquare$$

**DEFINITION** The set of all points in three space that satisfy the Distance Formula is the equation of a **sphere**. If  $(h, k, l)$  is the set of all points in three space that are a constant distance  $r$  from a fixed point  $(h, k, l)$ , then  $(h, k, l)$  is the **center**. Recall that a circle is defined as the set of points in a plane equidistant from a fixed point. In fact, if  $(h, k, l)$  is a center of the sphere,  $r$  is a **radius** centered at  $(h, k, l)$ , then (see Figure 7)

$$(x - h)^2 + (y - k)^2 + (z - l)^2 = r^2.$$



We can derive the **standard equation of a sphere**:

In expanded form, the boxed equation may be written as

$$x^2 + y^2 + z^2 - 2hx - 2ky - 2lz + (h^2 + k^2 + l^2 - r^2) = 0.$$

Conversely, the graph of any equation of this form is either a sphere, a point, a degenerate sphere, or the empty set. To see why, consider the following example.

### What Is a Sphere?

We have already seen a sphere to be the set of points a given distance away from some point. But is, however, a circle, a sphere, or a cylinder?  $x^2 + y^2 = r^2$

A circle is a set of points in a plane that are a given distance away from a fixed point. A circle is a set of points in a plane that are a given distance away from a fixed point. A circle is a set of points in a plane that are a given distance away from a fixed point.

There are times when by "sphere" we mean the boundary together with the interior. (This is sometimes called a ball or a solid sphere.) In other words, we sometimes mean the set of points satisfying  $(x - h)^2 + (y - k)^2 + (z - l)^2 \leq r^2$ .

When we say that the volume of a sphere is  $\frac{4}{3}\pi r^3$ , we of course mean this latter interpretation. The context of a problem will usually dictate which "sphere" we are talking about.



**EXAMPLE 1** Find the center and radius of the sphere with equation:

$$x^2 + y^2 + z^2 - 10x - 8y - 12z + 64 = 0$$

and sketch its graph.

**SOLUTION** We use the process of completing the square.

$$\begin{aligned} x^2 - 10x + y^2 - 8y + z^2 - 12z + 64 &= 0 \\ (x^2 - 10x + 25) + (y^2 - 8y + 16) + (z^2 - 12z + 36) &= -64 + 25 + 16 + 36 \\ (x - 5)^2 + (y - 4)^2 + (z - 6)^2 &= 17 \end{aligned}$$

Thus the equation represents a sphere with center at  $(5, 4, 6)$  and radius  $\sqrt{17}$ . Its graph is shown in Figure 5.

If, after completing the square in Example 2 the equation had been

$$(x - 4)^2 + (y - 4)^2 + (z - 4)^2 = 0$$

then the graph would be the single point  $(4, 4, 4)$ . If the right-hand side were negative, the graph would be the empty set.

As one last application of the Distance Formula, we introduce the **Midpoint Formula**. If  $P(x_1, y_1, z_1)$  and  $Q(x_2, y_2, z_2)$  are points in space and the midpoint  $M(x_3, y_3, z_3)$  lies on segment  $PQ$ , then the midpoint  $M$  has coordinates

$$x_3 = \frac{x_1 + x_2}{2}, \quad y_3 = \frac{y_1 + y_2}{2}, \quad z_3 = \frac{z_1 + z_2}{2}.$$

In other words, to find the coordinates of the midpoint of a segment, simply take the average of corresponding coordinates of the end points.

**EXAMPLE 2** Find the equation of the sphere that has the line segment joining  $(-2, 0, 4)$  and  $(4, 0, 2)$  as a diameter.

**SOLUTION** The center of the sphere is at the midpoint of the segment joining  $(-2, 0, 4)$  and  $(4, 0, 2)$ ; the radius satisfies

$$r^2 = \frac{1}{4}[(4 - (-2))^2 + (0 - 0)^2 + (2 - 4)^2] = 2.$$

We conclude that the equation of the sphere is

$$(x - 1)^2 + y^2 + (z - 3)^2 = 2.$$

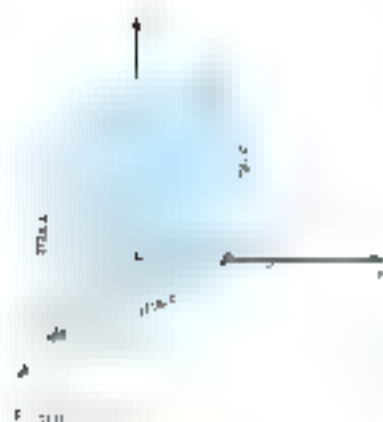
**DEFINITION** It was natural to consider quadratic equations because of the relation to the Distance Formula. But, presumably, a **linear equation** in  $x$ ,  $y$ , and  $z$ , that is, an equation of the form

$$Ax + By + Cz + D = 0 \quad (A, B, C \text{ not all } 0)$$

should be even easier to analyze. Since  $Ax + By + Cz = 0$  is a convenient way of saying that  $A$ ,  $B$ , and  $C$  are not all zero, a glance of fact we will show in Section 11.5 that the graph of a linear equation is a plane. Using this as a guide, for now, let's consider how we might graph such an equation.

It is as will often be the case, the plane intersects the three axes, we begin by finding these intersection points; that is, we find the  $x$ ,  $y$ , and  $z$  intercepts. These three points determine the plane, so now we draw the coordinate plane. **Intercepts**, which are the lines of intersection of that plane with the coordinate planes. Then, with just a bit of artistic we can shade in the plane.





### EXAMPLE 4 Sketch the graph of $x = 4 - 2y - 12z$

**SOLUTION** To find the  $x$ -intercept, set  $y$  and  $z$  equal to zero and solve for obtaining  $x = 4$ . The corresponding point is  $(4, 0, 0)$ . Similarly, the  $y$ - and  $z$ -intercepts are  $(0, 2, 0)$  and  $(0, 0, 1/3)$ . Now connect these points by line segments to get the traces. Then shade in the first octant part of the plane, thereby obtaining the result shown in Figure 12.

What if the plane does not intersect all three axes? This will happen, for example, if one of the variables in the equation of the plane is missing (a zero coefficient).

### EXAMPLE 5 Sketch the graph of the linear equation

$$x = 3y - 6$$

in three space.

**SOLUTION** The  $y$ - and  $z$ -intercepts are  $(-6, 0, 0)$  and  $(0, 2, 0)$ , respectively, and the  $xz$ -trace determines the trace in the  $xz$ -plane. The line is parallel to the  $yz$ -plane because  $x$  cannot have been 0, and so the plane is parallel to the  $yz$ -axis. We have sketched the graph in Figure 13.

Notice that in each of our examples the graph of an equation in three-space was not just the intersection of the two space axes where the graph of the equation was itself a curve. We will have a curve in a plane, say a circle, defining equations and the corresponding surfaces in Section 11.8.

**Section 11.7** We saw parametrized curves in the plane in Section 9.4. This section generalizes curves to three dimensions. A curve in three-space is determined by the parametric equations

$$x = x(t), \quad y = y(t), \quad z = z(t) \quad a \leq t \leq b$$

We say that a curve is smooth if  $x', y', z'$  are continuous and  $x', y', z'$  is not equal to 0.

The concept of arc length also generalizes easily to curves in three-space, but the parametric curve defined above, the arc length is

$$L = \int_a^b \sqrt{[x'(t)]^2 + [y'(t)]^2 + [z'(t)]^2} \, dt$$

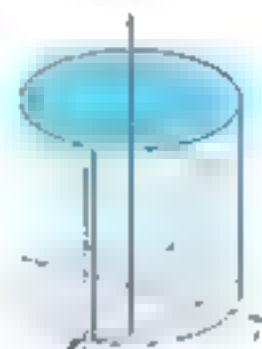
**EXAMPLE 6** An object revolves at unit speed in the plane, forming a circle with curve  $x = \cos t$ ,  $y = \sin t$ ,  $z = 1/\pi$  for  $0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$ . Sketch this curve and find its arc length.

**SOLUTION** We begin by making a table of values of  $x$ ,  $y$ , and  $z$ ; then we connect the dots in three-space. The curve is shown in Figure 14. The arc length is

$$\begin{aligned} L &= \int_0^{2\pi} \sqrt{(\sin^2 t) + (\cos^2 t) + 1/\pi^2} \, dt \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi} \sqrt{\sin^2 t + \cos^2 t + 1/\pi^2} \, dt \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi} \sqrt{1 + 1/\pi^2} \, dt \\ &= 2\pi\sqrt{1 + 1/\pi^2} \end{aligned}$$

The curve in Example 6 is called a **helix**. Notice that if we ignore (for a moment) the motion in the  $z$  dimension, the object is in uniform circular motion. In including back the motion in the  $z$  dimension, which is  $z = t$  with a constant speed, we see that the object is going around and around as it moves upward, much like a spiral staircase.

Here is another way to obtain the length of the curve. The helix lies entirely on the surface of a right circular cylinder as shown in Figure 7. Now imagine that the cylinder is cut as in Figure 8. If the cylinder has radius 1 and height 1, the cut will be along a diagonal of the rectangle, and it will have length  $\sqrt{1^2 + 1^2} = \sqrt{2}$ . If the cylinder has radius  $\pi$  and height 1, it will have length  $\sqrt{4\pi^2 + 1} = \sqrt{4\pi^2 + 1}$ . If the cylinder has radius  $\pi$  and height 1, it will have length  $\sqrt{4\pi^2 + 1} = \sqrt{4\pi^2 + 1}$ .



## Concepts & Views

1. The numbers  $x$ ,  $y$ , and  $z$  in  $(x, y, z)$  represent the  $x$ ,  $y$ , and  $z$  coordinates of a point in three space.
2. The distance between the points  $(x_1, y_1, z_1)$  and  $(x_2, y_2, z_2)$  is  $\sqrt{(x_2 - x_1)^2 + (y_2 - y_1)^2 + (z_2 - z_1)^2}$ .
3. The equation  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = r^2$  represents a sphere with radius  $r$  centered at the origin.
4. The graph of  $3x + 2y + 4z = 12$  is a plane with  $x$ -intercept  $4$ ,  $y$ -intercept  $6$ , and  $z$ -intercept  $3$ .

## Problem Set 11.1

1. Plot the points whose coordinates are  $(1, 2, 3)$ ,  $(2, 0, 1)$ ,  $(-2, 4, 5)$ ,  $(0, 3, 0)$  and  $(-1, -2, -3)$ . If appropriate, show the “line” as in Figures 4 and 5.
2. Follow the directions of Problem 1 for  $(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{2}, \sqrt{2})$ ,  $(\pi, \pi, \pi)$ , and  $(e, e, e)$ .
3. What is peculiar to the coordinates of all points in the  $xy$ -plane? On the  $z$ -axis?
4. What is peculiar to the coordinates of all points in the  $xz$ -plane? On the  $y$ -axis?
5. Find the distance between the following pairs of points.
  - (a)  $(0, 1, 0)$  and  $(1, 2, 3)$
  - (b)  $(1, 2, 0)$  and  $(2, 3, 3)$
  - (c)  $(0, 0, 0)$  and  $(-\pi, -4, \sqrt{3})$
6. Show that  $(4, 5, 3)$ ,  $(1, 7, 4)$ , and  $(2, 4, 6)$  are vertices of an equilateral triangle.
7. Show that  $(2, 1, 6)$ ,  $(4, -3, 4)$ , and  $(6, 5, -8)$  are vertices of a right triangle. *Hint:* Only right triangles satisfy the Pythagorean Theorem.
8. Find the distance from  $(2, 3, -1)$  to
  - (a) the  $xy$ -plane.
  - (b) the  $yz$ -plane.
  - (c) the  $xz$ -plane.
  - (d) the  $z$ -axis.
  - (e) the origin.

9. A rectangular box has its faces parallel to the coordinate planes and has  $(2, 3, 4)$  and  $(6, -1, 0)$  as the end points of a main diagonal. Sketch the box and find the coordinates of all eight vertices.

10. Find the equation of the line through  $(2, -4, 3)$  that is parallel to one of the coordinate axes. Which axis must it be and what are  $r$  and  $s$ ?

11. Write the equation of the sphere with the given center and radius.

(a)  $(-2, 3, 4)$        $r = 3$

(b)  $(\pi, -\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{\pi})$        $r = \sqrt{\pi}$

12. Find the equation of the sphere whose center is  $(2, 4, 5)$  and that is tangent to the  $xy$ -plane.

In Problems 13–16, complete the squares to find the center and radius of the sphere whose equation is given (see Example 2).

13.  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 - 4x + 6y - 2z = 0$

14.  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 - 2x + 4y - 6z = 4$

15.  $4x^2 + 4y^2 + 4z^2 - 8x + 8y + 8z - 13 = 0$

16.  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 + 4x - 6y + 2z = 0$

In Problems 17–24, sketch the graphs of the given equations. Begin by sketching the traces in the coordinate planes (see Examples 4 and 5).

17.  $x = 2$

18.  $y = 1$

19.  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$

20.  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$

21.  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$

22.  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$

23.  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$

24.  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$

In Problems 25–27, find the arc length of the given curve.

25.  $x = t, y = 2t, z = t^2$

26.  $x = t, y = 4t, z = t^2$

27.  $x = t^{1/2}, y = 3t, z = 4t; 0 \leq t \leq 4$

28.  $x = t, y = 4t, z = 4t$

29.  $x = 4 + t, y = 4 + t, z = 4 + t$

30.  $x = 4 + t, y = 4 + t, z = 4 + t$

31.  $x = 2 \cos t, y = 2 \sin t, z = t; 0 \leq t \leq \pi$

32.  $x = t, y = 2 \cos t, z = 2 \sin t; 0 \leq t \leq \pi$

**CAI** In Problems 33–36, set up a definite integral for the arc length of the given curve. Use the Parametric Mode with  $n = 10$  on a CAS to approximate the integral.

33.  $x = t, y = t^2, z = t^3$

34.  $x = t, y = t^2, z = t^3$

35.  $x = t, y = 2t, z = t^2$

36.  $x = \sin t, y = \cos t, z = \sin t; 0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$

37. Find the equation of the sphere that has the line segment joining  $(-2, 3, 6)$  and  $(4, -5, 7)$  as a diameter (see Example 3).

38. Find the equations of the tangent spheres of equal radius whose centers are  $(1, 0, 0)$  and  $(0, 1, 0)$ .

39. Find the equation of the sphere that is tangent to the three coordinate planes if its radius is 6 and its center is in the first octant.

40. Find the equation of the sphere with center  $(-1, 4)$  that is tangent to the plane  $x + y = 12$ .

41. Describe the graph in three-space of each equation.

(a)  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$

(b)  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$

(c)  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$

(d)  $x = \sqrt{4 - y^2 - z^2}$

42. The sphere  $(x - 1)^2 + (y + 2)^2 + (z - 3)^2 = 36$  intersects the plane  $z = 2$  in a circle. Find the circle's center and radius.

43. An object's position  $P$  changes so that its distance from  $(2, -3)$  is always twice its distance from  $(-1, 2, 3)$ . Show that  $P$  lies on a sphere and find its center and radius.

44. An object's position  $P$  changes so that its distance from  $(3, 2, -3)$  always equals its distance from  $(3, 2, 2)$ . Find the equation of the plane on which  $P$  lies.

45. The solid spheres  $(x - 1)^2 + (y - 2)^2 + (z - 3)^2 \leq 4$  and  $(x - 2)^2 + (y - 4)^2 + (z - 3)^2 \leq 4$  intersect in a circle. Find its radius.

46. On Problem 45 assuming that the second solid sphere is  $(x - 2)^2 + (y - 4)^2 + (z - 3)^2 \leq 2$ .

**CAI** 47. The curve defined by  $x = a \cos t$ ,  $y = a \sin t$ ,  $z = at$  is a helix. Hold  $a$  fixed and use a CAS to obtain a parametric plot of the helix for various values of  $a$ . What effect does  $a$  have on the curve?

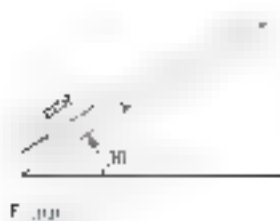
48. For the helix described in Problem 47, hold  $a$  fixed and use a CAS to obtain a parametric plot for various values of  $a$ . What effect does  $a$  have on the curve?

**Answers to Concepts Review:** 1. even/odd

2.  $x = t, y = t^2, z = t^3$

3.  $x = t, y = t^2, z = t^3$

## 11.2 Vectors



Many quantities that occur in science (e.g., length, mass, volume, and electric charge) can be specified by giving a single number. These quantities are the scalars. Others, however, are called **vectors**. Other quantities such as velocity, force, torque, and displacement require both a magnitude and a direction for complete specification. We call such quantities **vectors** and represent them by an arrow directed line segment. The length of the arrow represents the **magnitude**, or length, of the vector; a direction is the **direction** of the vector. The vector in Figure 11.2.1 has length 7 units and direction  $40^\circ$  north of east (or  $40^\circ$  from the positive  $x$ -axis).

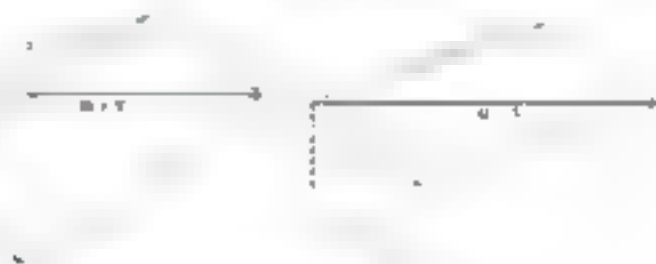
Arrows that we have already seen from a flow have a tail, or end, and a head, or tip. The tail and the arrow point are called the **tail** and the **pointed end** of the vector.



points called the **tail**, or **tip**. Figure 3. Two vectors are considered to be **equivalent** if they have the same magnitude and direction (Figure 3). We shall compare vectors by holding tails such as  $u$  and  $v$  together as in Figure 3. (In normal writing, you might use  $\vec{u}$  and  $\vec{v}$ .) The magnitude, or length, of a vector  $u$  is symbolized by  $|u|$ .

In general, we think of vectors as being three-dimensional; that is, their initial and terminal points are points in three-space. There are many applications, however, where the vectors lie entirely in the  $xy$ -plane. The context of a problem should indicate whether the vectors are two- or three-dimensional.

**DEFINITION** The **sum**, or **resultant**, of  $u$  and  $v$  (where  $v$  is obtained by changing  $u$ 's magnitude or direction or both) is the vector  $u + v$ . Then  $u + v$  is the vector connecting the tail of  $u$  to the head of  $v$ . This method (called the *Triangle Law*) is illustrated in the left half of Figure 4.



Two methods of adding vectors

As an alternative way to find  $u + v$ , move  $v$  so that its tail coincides with the head of  $u$ . Then  $u + v$  is the vector with the common tail and connecting with the head of the parallelogram that has  $u$  and  $v$  as sides. This method (called the *Parallelogram Law*) is illustrated on the right in Figure 4.

These two methods are equivalent ways to describe what we mean by the sum of two vectors. You should convince yourself that vector addition is commutative and associative; that is,

$$u + v = v + u \quad \text{and} \quad (u + v) + w = u + (v + w)$$

If  $u$  is a vector, then  $ku$  is the vector with the same direction as  $u$  but three times as long. If  $k = 0$ ,  $ku$  is the zero vector. If  $k$  is negative,  $ku$  is the vector with the same direction as  $u$  but opposite direction. If  $k$  is a scalar multiple of  $u$ , its magnitude is  $|k||u|$ . If  $0 < k < 1$ ,  $ku$  is shorter than  $u$ . If  $k > 1$ ,  $ku$  is longer than  $u$ . If  $k = 0$ ,  $ku$  is the zero vector. If  $k < 0$ ,  $ku$  is the vector with the same length as  $u$  but opposite direction. If  $k = -1$ ,  $ku$  is the negative of  $u$ , because when we add it to  $u$ , the result is the zero vector, nothing more than a point. This latter vector (the only vector without a well-defined direction) is called the **zero vector** and is denoted by  $\mathbf{0}$ . It is the identity element for addition, that is,  $u + \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0} + u = u$ . If  $k = -1$ ,  $ku$  is the additive inverse of  $u$ , that is,  $u + (-u) = \mathbf{0}$ .

$$u + (-u) = \mathbf{0} \quad \text{and} \quad (-u) + u = \mathbf{0}$$

**EXAMPLE 1** In Figure 5 express  $w$  in terms of  $u$  and  $v$ .

**SOLUTION** Since  $u + u = v$ , it follows that

$$u = v - u$$

If  $P$  and  $Q$  are points in the plane, then  $\overrightarrow{PQ}$  denotes the vector with tail at  $P$  and head at  $Q$ .

**EXAMPLE 2** In Figure 6  $\overrightarrow{AB} = 4\overrightarrow{AC}$ . Express  $w$  in terms of  $u$  and  $v$ .

Equivalent  
vectors





Figure 8



Figure 9

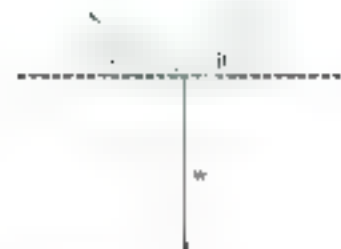
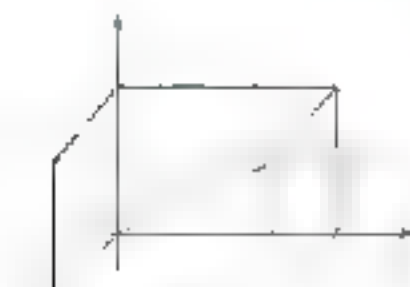


Figure 10



Identify  $u$  with the ordered pair  $(u_x, u_y)$ .

Figure 11



Identify  $u$  with the ordered triple  $(u_x, u_y, u_z)$ .

Figure 12

## SOLUTION

$$\vec{AB} = \vec{AC} \quad \text{if and only if} \quad \vec{AB} = \vec{AC} \quad \text{if and only if} \quad \vec{AB} = \vec{AC}$$

More generally, if  $\vec{AB} = c\vec{AC}$ , where  $c$  is a scalar, then

$$\vec{AB} = c\vec{AC} \quad \text{if and only if} \quad \vec{AB} = c\vec{AC}$$

The expression just obtained for  $\vec{AB}$  can also be written as

$$\vec{AB} = c(\vec{AC})$$

If we allow  $c$  to range over all scalars, we obtain the set of all vectors which starts at the same point as the given  $\vec{AC}$  and lies on the line containing  $\vec{AC}$ . This set will be important to us later in describing lines using vector language.

**Example 1** A force of 300 newtons is applied to a point in a direction of two forces  $\vec{u}$  and  $\vec{v}$ . The resultant force at the point is the vector sum of the two forces.

**Example 2** A weight of 200 newtons is supported by two wires as shown in Figure 9. Find the magnitude of the tension in each wire.

**Solution** All forces are in one plane, so the vectors in this problem are all coplanar. The weight  $\vec{w}$  and the two tensions  $\vec{u}$  and  $\vec{v}$  are all coplanar. In fact, as we saw in Example 1, each of these vectors can be expressed as a sum of a horizontal  $\vec{i}$  and a vertical  $\vec{j}$  component. The weight  $\vec{w}$  is  $200\vec{j}$  newtons ( $\vec{j}$  is the unit vector in the upward direction). The magnitude of the upward force and the magnitude of the downward force are equal, the magnitude of the downward force is 200. In other words, the net force is zero. Thus,

$$(1) \quad |\vec{u}| \cos 33^\circ = |\vec{v}| \cos 50^\circ$$

$$(2) \quad |\vec{u}| \sin 33^\circ + |\vec{v}| \sin 50^\circ = |\vec{w}| = 200$$

When we solve (1) for  $|\vec{v}|$  and substitute in (2), we get

$$|\vec{u}| \sin 33^\circ + \frac{|\vec{u}| \cos 33^\circ}{\cos 50^\circ} \sin 50^\circ = 200$$

so

$$|\vec{u}| \left( \frac{\sin 33^\circ}{\cos 50^\circ} + \frac{\sin 50^\circ}{\cos 50^\circ} \right) = 200$$

Then

$$|\vec{u}| = \frac{200}{\left( \frac{\sin 33^\circ}{\cos 50^\circ} + \frac{\sin 50^\circ}{\cos 50^\circ} \right)} \approx 124.2 \text{ newtons}$$

**Definition** Let  $\vec{u}$  be a vector in the plane. We choose  $\vec{u}$  to represent  $(u_x, u_y)$ , where  $u_x$  and  $u_y$  are the components of  $\vec{u}$ . This arrow is unique. It is determined by the coordinates  $(u_x, u_y)$  and is headed from the origin to the point  $(u_x, u_y)$ . The numbers  $u_x$  and  $u_y$  are called the **components** of the vector  $\vec{u}$ . We write  $\vec{u} = (u_x, u_y)$  to indicate that  $\vec{u}$  is the vector originating at the origin and terminating at the point with coordinates  $u_x$  and  $u_y$ , from the point having coordinates  $u_x$  and  $u_y$ .

In vectors in three-space, the generalization is straightforward. We represent the vector  $\vec{u}$  by an arrow starting at the origin and terminating at the point with coordinates  $u_x$ ,  $u_y$ , and  $u_z$ . Also we denote this vector by  $\vec{u} = (u_x, u_y, u_z)$ . Figure 12 shows a representation of this vector. We develop the properties of vectors in three dimensions; the results for vectors in two dimensions should be obvious.

The vectors  $\vec{u} = (u_1, u_2, u_3)$  and  $\vec{v} = (v_1, v_2, v_3)$  are equal if and only if their corresponding components are equal; that is,  $u_1 = v_1$ ,  $u_2 = v_2$ , and  $u_3 = v_3$ . To multiply a vector  $\vec{u}$  by a scalar  $c$  we multiply each component by  $c$ ; that is,

$$c\vec{u} = (cu_1, cu_2, cu_3)$$

The vector  $\mathbf{u} = \langle u_1, u_2, u_3 \rangle$  indicates the vector  $\mathbf{u}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . The vector with all components equal to zero is called the **zero vector** and is  $\mathbf{0} = \langle 0, 0, 0 \rangle$ . The sum of the two vectors  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  is

$$\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} = \langle u_1 + v_1, u_2 + v_2, u_3 + v_3 \rangle$$

The vector  $\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{v} - \mathbf{u}$  is defined to be

$$\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{v} - \mathbf{u} = \langle v_1 - u_1, v_2 - u_2, v_3 - u_3 \rangle$$

Figure 1 indicates that these definitions are equivalent to the geometric ones given earlier in this section.

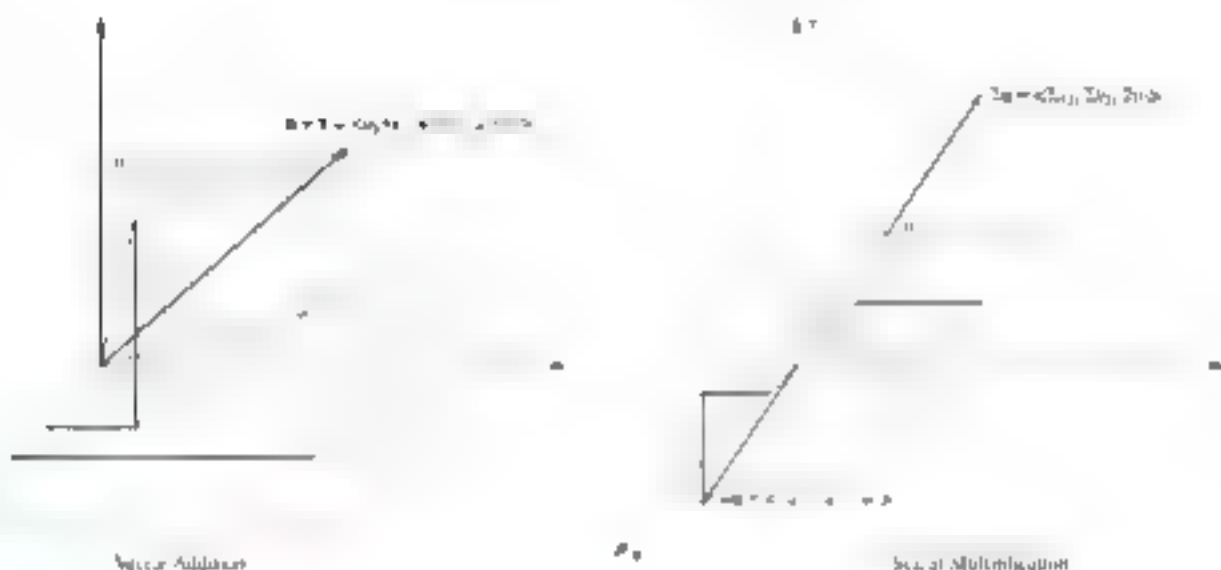


FIGURE 1

**DEFINITION** The magnitude (or length) of a vector  $\mathbf{u} = \langle u_1, u_2, u_3 \rangle$  is denoted by  $\|\mathbf{u}\|$  and is defined to be the square root of the sum of the squares of its components:

$$\|\mathbf{u}\| = \sqrt{u_1^2 + u_2^2 + u_3^2}$$

The magnitude of a vector  $\mathbf{u}$  is always nonnegative. The magnitude of the zero vector is zero.

**THEOREM 11.2.1** The magnitude of a vector  $\mathbf{u} = \langle u_1, u_2, u_3 \rangle$  is given by

$$\|\mathbf{u}\| = \sqrt{u_1^2 + u_2^2 + u_3^2}$$

The magnitude of a vector  $\mathbf{u}$  is the length of the arrow  $\mathbf{u}$  in Figure 11.2.1(a). The magnitude of a vector  $\mathbf{u}$  is the length of the arrow  $\mathbf{u}$  in Figure 11.2.1(b).

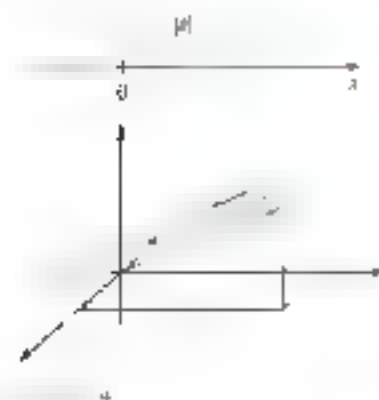


FIGURE 2

Three special vectors in three-space are  $\mathbf{i} = \langle 1, 0, 0 \rangle$ ,  $\mathbf{j} = \langle 0, 1, 0 \rangle$ , and  $\mathbf{k} = \langle 0, 0, 1 \rangle$ . These are called the **standard unit vectors**, or **basis vectors**. Every vector  $\mathbf{u} = \langle u_1, u_2, u_3 \rangle$  can be written in terms of  $\mathbf{i}$ ,  $\mathbf{j}$ , and  $\mathbf{k}$  as follows:

$$\mathbf{u} = \langle u_1, u_2, u_3 \rangle = u_1\mathbf{i} + u_2\mathbf{j} + u_3\mathbf{k}$$

The **magnitude** of a vector  $\mathbf{u}$  is the length of the arrow  $\mathbf{u}$  (Figure 11.2.1(a)). The arrow begins at the origin and ends at the point  $(u_1, u_2, u_3)$ . The magnitude of a vector  $\mathbf{u}$  can be easily determined from the distance formula:

$$\|\mathbf{u}\| = \sqrt{u_1^2 + u_2^2 + u_3^2} = \sqrt{(u_1 - 0)^2 + (u_2 - 0)^2 + (u_3 - 0)^2} = \sqrt{u_1^2 + u_2^2 + u_3^2}$$

Just as  $\|\mathbf{u}\|$  gives the distance from the origin to a point on the number line  $[0]$ ,  $\|\mathbf{u}\|$  gives the distance from the origin to the point  $(u_1, u_2, u_3)$  in three-space. The magnitude of a vector  $\mathbf{u}$  is the length of the arrow  $\mathbf{u}$  (Figure 11.2.1(b)). The magnitude of a vector  $\mathbf{u}$  can be easily determined from the distance formula. The following rules for operating with vectors can be easily established.

### THEOREM 11.2.2

For any vectors  $\mathbf{u}$ ,  $\mathbf{v}$ , and  $\mathbf{w}$  and any scalars  $a$  and  $b$ , the following statements hold:

1.  $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{u}$
2.  $(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) + \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{u} + (\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w})$
3.  $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0} + \mathbf{u} = \mathbf{u}$
4.  $\mathbf{u} + (-\mathbf{u}) = \mathbf{0}$
5.  $a(b\mathbf{u}) = (ab)\mathbf{u}$
6.  $a(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) = a\mathbf{u} + a\mathbf{v}$
7.  $(a + b)\mathbf{u} = a\mathbf{u} + b\mathbf{u}$
8.  $1\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{u}$
9.  $(-1)\mathbf{u} = -\mathbf{u}$

**Proof** We illustrate the proof by demonstrating Rules 6 and 7 for the case of three-dimensional vectors.

$$\begin{aligned}
 a(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) &= a(u_1, u_2, u_3) + a(v_1, v_2, v_3) \\
 &= a u_1 + a v_1, a u_2 + a v_2, a u_3 + a v_3 \\
 &= a(u_1 + v_1), a(u_2 + v_2), a(u_3 + v_3) \\
 &= (au_1 + av_1), (au_2 + av_2), (au_3 + av_3) \\
 &= (au_1, au_2, au_3) + (av_1, av_2, av_3) \\
 &= a(u_1, u_2, u_3) + a(v_1, v_2, v_3) \\
 &= a\mathbf{u} + a\mathbf{v}
 \end{aligned}$$

This proves Rule 6. Now for Rule 7.

$$\begin{aligned}
 |\mathbf{au}| &= |(au_1, au_2, au_3)| \\
 &= \sqrt{(au_1)^2 + (au_2)^2 + (au_3)^2} \\
 &= \sqrt{a^2(u_1^2 + u_2^2 + u_3^2)} \\
 &= \sqrt{a^2} \sqrt{u_1^2 + u_2^2 + u_3^2} = |a| |\mathbf{u}|
 \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 1** Let  $\mathbf{u} = (1, 2, 3)$  and  $\mathbf{v} = (0, -1, 2)$ . Find (a)  $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}$ , (b)  $3\mathbf{u}$ , (c)  $|\mathbf{u}|$ , and express them in terms of  $\mathbf{i}$ ,  $\mathbf{j}$ , and  $\mathbf{k}$ . (b)  $\mathbf{u} - 2\mathbf{v}$  (c)  $|\mathbf{u}|$

**SOLUTION**

$$(a) \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} = (1, 2, 3) + (0, -1, 2) = (1 + 0, 2 + (-1), 3 + 2) = (1, 1, 5)$$

$$(b) 3\mathbf{u} = 3(1, 2, 3) = (3, 6, 9)$$

$$(c) |\mathbf{u}| = \sqrt{1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2} = \sqrt{14}$$

$$(d) |\mathbf{u}| = \sqrt{1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2} = \sqrt{14}$$

### Definition Unit Vector

A vector having length one is called a **unit vector**.

**EXAMPLE 2** Let  $\mathbf{v} = (4, -3)$ . Find  $\frac{1}{|\mathbf{v}|}\mathbf{v}$  and find a unit vector  $\mathbf{u}$  with the same direction as  $\mathbf{v}$ .

**SOLUTION** In the problem, all vectors are two-dimensional. The length (or magnitude) of  $\mathbf{v}$  is  $|\mathbf{v}| = \sqrt{4^2 + (-3)^2} = 5$ . Therefore, we divide  $\mathbf{v}$  by its length  $|\mathbf{v}|$  to get

$$\frac{1}{|\mathbf{v}|}\mathbf{v} = \frac{(4, -3)}{\sqrt{4^2 + (-3)^2}} = \frac{(4, -3)}{5} = \frac{1}{5}(4, -3) = \left\langle \frac{4}{5}, -\frac{3}{5} \right\rangle$$

The length of  $\mathbf{u}$  is then

$$|\mathbf{u}| = \left| \frac{1}{5}\mathbf{v} \right| = \frac{1}{5}|\mathbf{v}| = \frac{1}{5}(5) = 1$$

### Dividing a Vector by a Scalar

We will now look at dividing vector  $\mathbf{v}$  by a scalar  $c$ . By this we mean we divide all the components of vector  $\mathbf{v}$  by  $c$ .

$$\frac{1}{c}\mathbf{v}$$

provided, of course, that  $c \neq 0$ . The expression on the right is simply a scalar times a vector, which we defined earlier in this section. Dividing one vector by another is, of course, nonsense.

## Concepts Review

1. Vectors are distinguished from scalars in that vectors have both **direction** and **magnitude**.

2. Two vectors are considered to be equivalent if

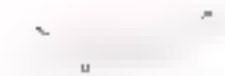
3. If the vectors coincide with the head of  $\mathbf{u}$  then  $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}$  is the vector with tail at **tail of  $\mathbf{u}$**  and head at **head of  $\mathbf{v}$** .

4. The vector  $\mathbf{u}$  is **parallel** to  $\mathbf{v}$  if its length is **any** times that of the vector  $\mathbf{v}$ .

## Problem Set 11.2

In Problems 1–4, draw the vector  $w$ .

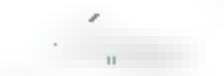
1.  $w = u + v$



3.  $w = u + u + u$



2.  $w = u + v$



4.  $w = u + u + u$

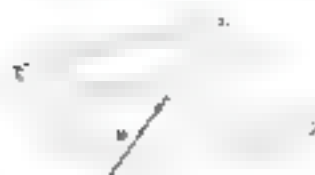
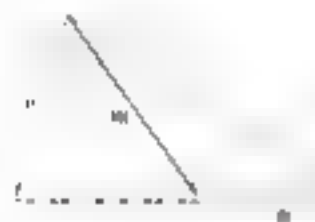
5. Figure 5 is a parallelogram. Express  $w$  in terms of  $u$  and  $v$ .6. In the large triangle of Figure 16,  $u$  is a median to the side to which it is drawn. Express  $w$  and  $v$  in terms of  $u$  and  $v$ .

Figure 16



Figure 17

7. In Figure 7,  $w = (u + v)$ , and  $u = (u + v) + 1$ . Find  $w$ .

8. On Problem 7 if the tip angle is  $40^\circ$  and the two side angles are each  $35^\circ$ .For the two-dimensional vectors  $u$  and  $v$  in Problems 9–12, find the sum  $u + v$ , the difference  $u - v$ , and the magnitudes  $|u|$  and  $|v|$ .

9.  $u = (1, 2)$ ,  $v = (3, 4)$

10.  $u = (1, 0)$ ,  $v = (-3, 4)$

11.  $u = (2, -3)$ ,  $v = (-2, 2)$

12.  $u = (1, 1)$ ,  $v = (-1, 1)$

For the three-dimensional vectors  $u$  and  $v$  in Problems 13–16, find the sum  $u + v$ , the difference  $u - v$ , and the magnitudes  $|u|$  and  $|v|$ .

13.  $u = (1, 2, 3)$ ,  $v = (4, 5, 6)$

14.  $u = (1, 0, 0)$ ,  $v = (0, 1, 0)$

15.  $u = (1, 1, 1)$ ,  $v = (-1, -1, -1)$

16.  $u = (1, 1, 1)$ ,  $v = (1, 1, 1)$

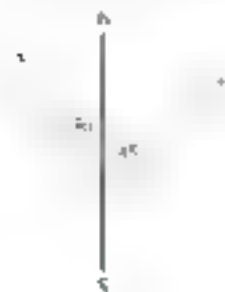
17. In Figure 18, forces  $u$  and  $v$  each have magnitude 50 pounds. Find the magnitude and direction of the force  $w$  needed to subvert the ends of  $u$  and  $v$ .

Figure 18

18. Mark pushes on a post in the direction  $S 30^\circ E$  with a force of 60 pounds. Dan pushes on the same post in the direction  $S 60^\circ W$  with a force of 80 pounds. What are the magnitude and direction of the resultant force?19. A 100-newton weight rests on a smooth frictionless inclined plane that makes an angle of  $30^\circ$  with the horizontal. (a) What force parallel to the plane will just keep the weight from sliding down the plane? (b) Consider the downward force of 100 newtons to be the sum of two forces, one parallel to the plane and one perpendicular to it.20. An object weighing 250.5 pounds is held in equilibrium by two ropes that make angles of  $25.34^\circ$  and  $34.22^\circ$  respectively with the vertical. Find the magnitude of the force exerted on the ropes.21. A wind with velocity 45 miles per hour is blowing at the direction  $S 30^\circ W$ . An airplane has air speed 400 miles per hour and is supposed to fly straight north. How should the airplane be headed and how fast will it then be flying with respect to the ground?

22. A ship is heading due south at 30 miles per hour. A man walks west (i.e., at right angles to the side of the ship) toward the deck at 3 miles per hour. What are the magnitude and direction of his velocity relative to the surface of the water?

23. John is flying in a wind blowing 40 miles per hour due south. Determine the direction he should head when the pilot's true airplane is in the direction  $S 60^\circ E$ . Find the airspeed speed in still air of the plane.24. What heading and airspeed are required for an airplane to fly 437 miles per hour due north if a wind of 63 miles per hour is blowing in the direction  $S 15^\circ E$ ?

25. Prove all parts of Theorem A for the case of two-dimensional vectors.

26. Prove parts 1–5 and 7–9 of Theorem A for the case of three-dimensional vectors.

27. Prove using vector methods that the line segment joining the midpoints of two sides of a triangle is parallel to the third side.

28. Prove that the midpoints of the four sides of an arbitrary quadrilateral are the vertices of a parallelogram.



29. Let  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n$  be the edges of a polygon arranged in cyclic order as shown for the case  $n = 7$  in Figure 19. Show that

$$v_1 + v_2 + \cdots + v_n = \mathbf{0}$$



Figure 19

30. Let  $n$  points be equally spaced on a circle and let  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n$  be the vectors from the center of the circle to these points. Show that  $v_1 + v_2 + \cdots + v_n = \mathbf{0}$ .

31. Consider a horizontal triangular table with each vertex supported by a vertical wire. At the vertices, counterweights put on the wires are in equilibrium. Each wire and counterweight is as shown in Figure 20. Show that at equilibrium the three angles at  $P$  are equal; that is, show that  $\alpha = \beta = \gamma$ .



32. Show that the point  $P$  of the triangle of Problem 31 that minimizes  $AP^2 + BP^2 + CP^2$  is the point where the three angles at  $P$  are equal. *Hint:* Let  $A', B'$ , and  $C'$  be the points where the weights are attached. The center of gravity is then located  $(1/3)(AA') + (1/3)(BB') + (1/3)(CC')$  units below the plane of the triangle. The system is in equilibrium when the center of gravity of the three weights is above  $P$ .

33. Let the weights at  $A, B$ , and  $C$  of Problem 31 be 3 lb, 4 lb, and 5 lb, respectively. Determine the three angles at  $P$  at equilibrium. What geometric quantity (as in Problem 32) is now minimized?

34. A company will build a plant to manufacture an item to be sold in cities  $A, B$ , and  $C$  in quantities  $a, b$ , and  $c$ , respectively, each year. Where is the best location for the plant that is, the location that will minimize delivery costs (see Problem 2)?

35. A 100-pound chandelier is held in place by four wires attached to the corners of the ceiling and a square table with side  $s$  ft, at an angle of  $45^\circ$  with the horizontal. Find the magnitude of the tension in each wire.

36. Repeat Problem 35 for the case where there are three wires attached to the ceiling at the three corners of an equilateral triangle.

**Answers to Concepts Review:** 1. magnitude, direction 2. they have the same magnitude and direction 3. the sum of  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  is  $\mathbf{0}$  4.

## 11.3 The Dot Product

We have discussed scalar multiplication, that is, the multiplication of a vector  $\mathbf{u}$  by a scalar  $c$ . The result is always a vector. Now we introduce a multiplication of two vectors  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$ . It is called the **dot product**, or **scalar product**, and is denoted by  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}$  or  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}$ . We define it for two-dimensional vectors as

$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = (u_1, u_2) \cdot (v_1, v_2) = u_1v_1 + u_2v_2$$

and for three-dimensional vectors as

$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = (u_1, u_2, u_3) \cdot (v_1, v_2, v_3) = u_1v_1 + u_2v_2 + u_3v_3$$

**EXAMPLE 1** Let  $\mathbf{u} = (0, 1, 1)$ ,  $\mathbf{v} = (2, -1, 1)$ , and  $\mathbf{w} = (4, -3, 3)$ . Compute each of the following if they are defined: (a)  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}$  (b)  $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{u}$  (c)  $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w}$  (d)  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u}$ , and (e)  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w}$ .

**SOLUTION**

(a)  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = (0, 1, 1) \cdot (2, -1, 1) = (0)(2) + (1)(-1) + (1)(1) = 0$

(b)  $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{u} = (2, -1, 1) \cdot (0, 1, 1) = (2)(0) + (-1)(1) + (1)(1) = 0$

(c)  $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w} = (2, -1, 1) \cdot (4, -3, 3) = (2)(4) + (-1)(-3) + (1)(3) = 13$

(d)  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u} = (0, 1, 1) \cdot (0, 1, 1) = 0 + 1 + 1 = 2$

(e)  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w}$  is not defined. The quantity  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}$  is a scalar. A scalar dotted with a vector doesn't make sense.

The properties of the dot product are easy to establish. See Problems 40–50. Note that this theorem as well as all statements in this section apply to both two- and three-dimensional vectors.

### Theorem A Properties of the Dot Product

If  $\mathbf{u}$ ,  $\mathbf{v}$ , and  $\mathbf{w}$  are vectors, and  $c$  is a scalar, then

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} &= \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{u} & (\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) \cdot \mathbf{w} &= \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{w} + \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w} \\ (\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) \cdot \mathbf{w} &= \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{w} + \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w} & c(\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}) &= (c\mathbf{u}) \cdot \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{u} \cdot (c\mathbf{v}) \\ c(\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}) &= (c\mathbf{u}) \cdot \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{u} \cdot (c\mathbf{v}) \end{aligned}$$

To emphasize the significance of the dot product, we offer the following interesting formula for it that involves the geometric properties of the vectors  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$ .

### Theorem B

If  $\theta$  is the smaller nonnegative angle between the nonzero vectors  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$ , then

$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = |\mathbf{u}| |\mathbf{v}| \cos \theta$$

**Proof** To prove this result, apply the Law of Cosines to the triangle in Figure 1.

$$|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}|^2 = (u^2 + v^2 - 2|\mathbf{u}| |\mathbf{v}| \cos \theta)$$

On the other hand, from the properties of the dot product stated in Theorem A,

$$\begin{aligned} |\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}|^2 &= (\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}) \cdot (\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}) \\ &= \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u} - \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} - \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v} \\ &= u^2 - \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} - \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{u} + v^2 \\ &= u^2 + v^2 - 2\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} \end{aligned}$$

Equating the two expressions for  $|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}|^2$  gives

$$\begin{aligned} u^2 + v^2 - 2|\mathbf{u}| |\mathbf{v}| \cos \theta &= u^2 + v^2 - 2\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} \\ -2|\mathbf{u}| |\mathbf{v}| \cos \theta &= -2\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} \\ \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} &= |\mathbf{u}| |\mathbf{v}| \cos \theta \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 2** Find the angle between  $\mathbf{u} = \langle 8, 6 \rangle$  and  $\mathbf{v} = \langle 5, 12 \rangle$  (see Figure 2).

**SOLUTION** Solving for  $\cos \theta$  in Theorem B gives

$$\cos \theta = \frac{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}}{|\mathbf{u}| |\mathbf{v}|} = \frac{(8)(5) + (6)(12)}{(10)(13)} = \frac{112}{130} \approx 0.862$$

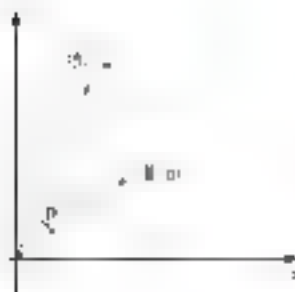
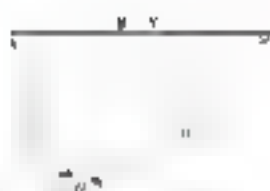
Then

$$\theta \approx \cos^{-1}(0.862) \approx 0.532 \text{ (or } 30.5^\circ)$$

An important consequence of Theorem B is the following.

### Theorem C Perpendicularity Criterion

Two vectors  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  are perpendicular if and only if their dot product,  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}$ , is 0.



**Proof** Two nonzero vectors are perpendicular if and only if the smaller, nonnegative angle  $\theta$  between them is  $\pi/2$ . This is if and only if  $\cos \theta = \cos(\pi/2) = 0$  if and only if  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = 0$ . (This result is valid for zero vectors, provided that we agree that a zero vector is perpendicular to every other vector.) ■

### Definition Orthogonal

Vectors that are perpendicular are said to be **orthogonal**.

**EXAMPLE 3** Find the angles between each of the three pairs of vectors from Example 1. Which pairs are orthogonal?

**SOLUTION** For the vectors  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  we have

$$\cos \theta_1 = \frac{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}}{\|\mathbf{u}\| \|\mathbf{v}\|} = \frac{(0)(2) + (1)(-1) + (1)(1)}{\sqrt{2} \sqrt{2}} = \frac{0}{2} = 0$$

For the vectors  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{w}$  we have

$$\cos \theta_2 = \frac{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{w}}{\|\mathbf{u}\| \|\mathbf{w}\|} = \frac{(0)(6) + (1)(-1) + (1)(4)}{\sqrt{2} \sqrt{17}} = \frac{3}{\sqrt{34}}$$

Finally, for the vectors  $\mathbf{v}$  and  $\mathbf{w}$ , we have

$$\cos \theta_3 = \frac{\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w}}{\|\mathbf{v}\| \|\mathbf{w}\|} = \frac{(2)(6) + (-1)(-3) + (1)(3)}{\sqrt{5} \sqrt{10}} = \frac{18}{\sqrt{50}}$$

Thus the pair  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  and the pair  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{w}$  are orthogonal, so  $\theta_1 = \theta_2 = \pi/2$ . Note that for the pair  $\mathbf{v}$  and  $\mathbf{w}$  the cosine of the angle is  $\cos \theta_3 = 18/\sqrt{50}$ , indicating that  $\theta_3 = 0$ ; that is, the vectors point the same direction. ■

Recall that every vector  $\mathbf{u}$  in the plane can be written as  $\mathbf{u} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j}$ , where  $\mathbf{i} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$  and  $\mathbf{j} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ , and that every vector  $\mathbf{v}$  in three-space can be written as  $\mathbf{v} = x_1\mathbf{i} + x_2\mathbf{j} + x_3\mathbf{k}$ , where, in this case,  $\mathbf{i} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $\mathbf{j} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ , and  $\mathbf{k} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ .

**EXAMPLE 4** Find the measure of the angle  $ABC$  where the three points are  $A(4, 3)$ ,  $B(1, -1)$ , and  $C(6, -4)$  as in Figure 3.

**SOLUTION**

$$\mathbf{u} = \overrightarrow{BA} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 - 1 \\ 3 - (-1) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} = 3\mathbf{i} + 4\mathbf{j}$$

$$\mathbf{v} = \overrightarrow{BC} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 - 1 \\ -4 - (-1) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix} = 5\mathbf{i} - 3\mathbf{j}$$

$$\|\mathbf{u}\| = \sqrt{3^2 + 4^2} = 5$$

$$\|\mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{5^2 + (-3)^2} = \sqrt{34}$$

$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = (3)(5) + (4)(-3) = 3$$

$$\cos \theta = \frac{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}}{\|\mathbf{u}\| \|\mathbf{v}\|} = \frac{3}{5\sqrt{34}}$$

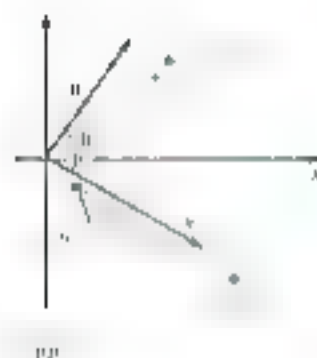
$$\theta = 1.485 \text{ (about } 84.89^\circ\text{)}$$

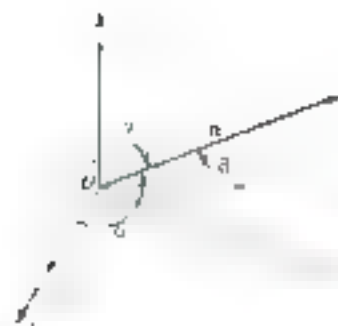
**EXAMPLE 5** Find the measure of angle  $ABC$  if the points are  $A(1, -2, 3)$ ,  $B(-1, 5, 8)$ , and  $C(5, -2, 6)$  as in Figure 4.

**SOLUTION** First we determine vectors  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  emanating from the origin (or any other point) to  $B$  and  $C$ . This is done by subtracting the coordinates of the initial point from those of the terminal point, that is,

$$\mathbf{u} = \overrightarrow{OB} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 - 0 \\ 5 - 0 \\ 8 - 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 5 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{v} = \overrightarrow{OC} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 - 0 \\ -2 - 0 \\ 6 - 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ -2 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$$





Thus

$$\cos \theta = \frac{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{v}}{\|\mathbf{a}\| \|\mathbf{v}\|} = \frac{(-1)(3) + (-6)(-7) + (9)(8)}{\sqrt{1 + 36 + 81} \sqrt{9 + 4 + 64}} \approx .4751$$

$$\theta \approx 0.9814 \quad (\text{about } 56.31^\circ)$$

**DEFINITION** The smallest nonnegative angle between a nonzero three-dimensional vector  $\mathbf{a}$  and the first vectors  $\mathbf{i}$ ,  $\mathbf{j}$ , and  $\mathbf{k}$  are called the **direction angles** of  $\mathbf{a}$ ; they are denoted  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ , and  $\gamma$ , respectively, as shown in Figure 11.15. In more advanced work with the direction cosines  $\cos \alpha$ ,  $\cos \beta$ , and  $\cos \gamma$ , if  $\mathbf{a} = a_1\mathbf{i} + a_2\mathbf{j} + a_3\mathbf{k}$ , then

$$\begin{aligned}\cos \alpha &= \frac{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{i}}{\|\mathbf{a}\|} = \frac{a_1}{\|\mathbf{a}\|} \\ \cos \beta &= \frac{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{j}}{\|\mathbf{a}\|} = \frac{a_2}{\|\mathbf{a}\|} \\ \cos \gamma &= \frac{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{k}}{\|\mathbf{a}\|} = \frac{a_3}{\|\mathbf{a}\|}\end{aligned}$$

**THEOREM**

$$\cos^2 \alpha + \cos^2 \beta + \cos^2 \gamma = \frac{a_1^2}{\|\mathbf{a}\|^2} + \frac{a_2^2}{\|\mathbf{a}\|^2} + \frac{a_3^2}{\|\mathbf{a}\|^2}$$

The vector with  $\cos \alpha$ ,  $\cos \beta$ ,  $\cos \gamma$  is a unit vector having the same direction as  $\mathbf{a}$ .

**EXAMPLE 1** Find the direction angles  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ ,  $\gamma$  of the vector  $\mathbf{a} = 4\mathbf{i} - 3\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$ .

**SOLUTION** Since  $\|\mathbf{a}\| = \sqrt{4^2 + (-3)^2 + 1^2} = 5\sqrt{2}$

$$\cos \alpha = \frac{4}{5\sqrt{2}} = \frac{2\sqrt{2}}{5}, \quad \cos \beta = \frac{-3}{5\sqrt{2}} = -\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}, \quad \cos \gamma = \frac{1}{5\sqrt{2}} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{10}$$

and

$$\alpha \approx 55.35^\circ, \quad \beta \approx 135^\circ, \quad \gamma \approx 64.90^\circ$$

**DEFINITION** Let  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  be vectors, and let  $\theta$  be the angle between them. For any  $\mathbf{w}$ , we assume that  $0 \leq \theta \leq \pi/2$ . Let  $\mathbf{w}$  be the vector in the direction of  $\mathbf{v}$  having the same magnitude as  $\mathbf{u} \cos \theta$  (see Figure 11.16). Since  $\mathbf{w}$  has the same direction as  $\mathbf{v}$ , we know that  $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{v}$  for some nonnegative scalar  $c$ . In the next lemma, the magnitude of  $\mathbf{w}$  must be  $\|\mathbf{u}\| \cos \theta$ . Thus

$$\|\mathbf{u}\| \cos \theta = \|\mathbf{w}\| = c\|\mathbf{v}\| = c\|\mathbf{v}\|$$

The constant  $c$  is therefore

$$c = \frac{\|\mathbf{u}\| \cos \theta}{\|\mathbf{v}\|} = \frac{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}}{\|\mathbf{v}\| \|\mathbf{v}\|} = \frac{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}}{\|\mathbf{v}\|^2}$$

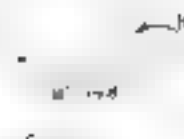
Thus

$$\mathbf{w} = \frac{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}}{\|\mathbf{v}\|^2} \mathbf{v}$$

For  $\pi/2 < \theta \leq \pi$ , we define  $\mathbf{w}$  to be the vector in the line determined by  $\mathbf{v}$  but pointing in the direction opposite to  $\mathbf{v}$  (see Figure 11.17). The magnitude of this vector is  $\|\mathbf{w}\| = \|\mathbf{u}\| \cos \theta = c\|\mathbf{v}\|$ , so  $\mathbf{w}$  must be  $-\mathbf{v}$ . Thus  $\mathbf{w} = \frac{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}}{\|\mathbf{v}\|^2} \mathbf{v}$ . Since  $\mathbf{w}$  points in the direction opposite to  $\mathbf{v}$ , we have  $\mathbf{w} = -\mathbf{v} = \frac{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}}{\|\mathbf{v}\|^2} \mathbf{v}$ . Thus in both cases we have  $\mathbf{w} = \frac{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}}{\|\mathbf{v}\|^2} \mathbf{v}$ . The vector  $\mathbf{w}$  is called



is



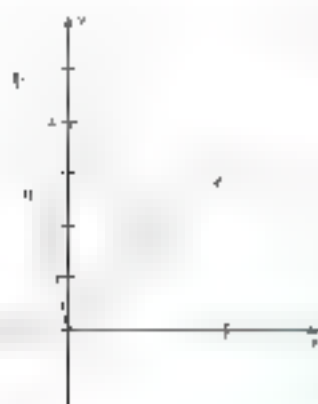


Figure 8

The **vector projection of  $\mathbf{u}$  on  $\mathbf{v}$**  or sometimes just the **projection of  $\mathbf{u}$  on  $\mathbf{v}$**  and is denoted  $\text{pr}_{\mathbf{v}} \mathbf{u}$ .

$$\text{pr}_{\mathbf{v}} \mathbf{u} = \frac{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}}{v^2} \mathbf{v}$$

The **scalar projection of  $\mathbf{u}$  on  $\mathbf{v}$**  is defined to be  $u \cos \theta$ , where  $\theta$  is the positive angle between  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$ , depending on whether  $\theta$  is acute, right, or obtuse. When  $\theta = \pi/2$ , the scalar projection is zero; it is the magnitude of  $\text{pr}_{\mathbf{v}} \mathbf{u}$  only when  $\pi/2 \leq \theta \leq \pi$ ; the scalar projection is equal to the opposite of the magnitude of  $\text{pr}_{\mathbf{v}} \mathbf{u}$ .

**EXAMPLE 7** Let  $\mathbf{u} = \langle 1, 5 \rangle$  and  $\mathbf{v} = \langle 3, 3 \rangle$ . Find the vector projection of  $\mathbf{u}$  on  $\mathbf{v}$  and the scalar projection of  $\mathbf{u}$  on  $\mathbf{v}$ .

**SOLUTION** Figure 8 shows the two vectors. The vector projection is

$$\text{pr}_{\mathbf{v}} \mathbf{u} = \frac{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}}{v^2} \mathbf{v} = \frac{\langle 1, 5 \rangle \cdot \langle 3, 3 \rangle}{3^2 + 3^2} \langle 3, 3 \rangle = \frac{18}{18} \langle 3, 3 \rangle = \langle 3, 3 \rangle$$

and the scalar projection is

$$u \cos \theta = \frac{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}}{v} = \frac{\langle 1, 5 \rangle \cdot \langle 3, 3 \rangle}{\sqrt{3^2 + 3^2}} = \frac{18}{\sqrt{18}} = 3\sqrt{2}.$$

The work done by a constant force  $\mathbf{F}$  in moving an object from the point  $P$  to the point  $Q$  is the product of the force and the distance the object moves in the direction of  $\mathbf{F}$ . Thus, if  $\mathbf{D}$  is the vector from  $P$  to  $Q$ , the work done is

$$(\text{Scalar projection of } \mathbf{F} \text{ on } \mathbf{D})|\mathbf{D}| = (\mathbf{F} \cos \theta)|\mathbf{D}|$$

That is,

$$\text{Work} = \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{D}$$

**EXAMPLE 8** A force  $\mathbf{F} = 4\mathbf{i} + 5\mathbf{j}$  newtons moves an object from the point  $P(0, 0)$  to the point  $Q(6, 1)$  meters. Express the work done in joules.

**SOLUTION** Let  $\mathbf{D}$  be the vector from  $P$  to  $Q$ ; thus  $\mathbf{D} = 6\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j}$ . Then

$$\text{Work} = \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{D} = (4\mathbf{i} + 5\mathbf{j}) \cdot (6\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j}) = (5)(1) = 5 \text{ newton-meters} = 5 \text{ joules}.$$

**DEFINITION** One fruitful way to describe a plane is by using vector language. Let  $\mathbf{u} = \langle A, B, C \rangle$  be a vector not equal to  $\mathbf{0}$  and let  $\mathcal{P}$  be a fixed nonempty set of points in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  such that  $\overrightarrow{P_0 P}$  is perpendicular to  $\mathbf{u}$  for every point  $P$  in  $\mathcal{P}$ . We say that  $\mathcal{P}$  is a plane perpendicular to  $\mathbf{u}$  and that  $\mathbf{u}$  is normal to  $\mathcal{P}$ . We can characterize  $\mathcal{P}$  in this way.

To get the Cartesian equation of the plane, write the vector  $\overrightarrow{P_0 P}$  in component form:  $\langle x - x_0, y - y_0, z - z_0 \rangle$ .

$$\overrightarrow{P_0 P} = \langle x - x_0, y - y_0, z - z_0 \rangle$$

Then  $\overrightarrow{P_0 P} \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0$  is equivalent to

$$A(x - x_0) + B(y - y_0) + C(z - z_0) = 0$$

This equation, in which at least one of  $A$ ,  $B$ , and  $C$  is different from zero, is called the **standard form for the equation of a plane**.

If we remove the parentheses and simplify, the boxed equation takes the form of the general linear equation

$$Ax + By + Cz = D, \quad A^2 + B^2 + C^2 \neq 0$$

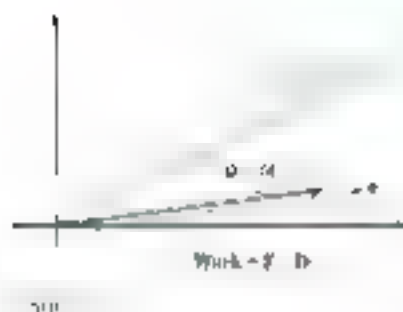


Figure 9

Thus every plane has a linear equation. Conversely, the graph of a linear equation in three-space is always a plane. To see the latter, let  $(x_1, y_1, z_1)$  satisfy the equation (1) that is,

$$Ax_1 + By_1 + Cz_1 = D.$$

When we substitute this equation for the one above, we have the boxed equation which we know represents a plane.

**EXAMPLE 2** Find an equation of the plane through  $S(1, 2, 3)$  perpendicular to  $\mathbf{u} = 3\mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j} + 5\mathbf{k}$ . Then find the angle between this plane and the one with equation  $4x - 4y + 7z = 5$ .

**SOLUTION** To perform the first task, simply apply the standard form for the equation of a plane to the problem at hand, which gives

$$3x_1 + 2y_1 + 5z_1 = 5 + 6 + 15 = 26$$

or equivalently,

$$3x + 2y + 5z = 26.$$

A vector  $\mathbf{m}$  perpendicular to both  $\pi$  and  $\pi'$  is  $\mathbf{m} = 3\mathbf{i} + 4\mathbf{j}$ . The angle  $\theta$  between two planes is the angle between their normal vectors; thus,

$$\begin{aligned}\cos \theta &= \frac{|\mathbf{m} \cdot \mathbf{n}|}{|\mathbf{m}| |\mathbf{n}|} = \frac{|3(2) + 4(4) + (7)(3)|}{\sqrt{25} \sqrt{26}} = \frac{43}{5\sqrt{26}} \approx 0.8375 \\ \theta &\approx 34.2^\circ.\end{aligned}$$

Actually, there are two angles between two planes, but they are supplementary. The process we described will give one of them. The other value is obtained by subtracting the first value from  $180^\circ$ . In our case, we obtain  $145.8^\circ$ .

**EXAMPLE 3** Show that the distance  $L$  from the point  $(x_0, y_0, z_0)$  to the plane  $Ax + By + Cz = D$  is given by the formula

$$L = \frac{|Ax_0 + By_0 + Cz_0 - D|}{\sqrt{A^2 + B^2 + C^2}}.$$

**SOLUTION** Let  $(x_1, y_1, z_1)$  be a point on the plane and let  $\mathbf{m} = (x_0 - x_1, y_0 - y_1, z_0 - z_1)$  be the vector from  $(x_1, y_1, z_1)$  to  $(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ , as in Figure 11.37. If  $\mathbf{n} = A\mathbf{i} + B\mathbf{j} + C\mathbf{k}$  is a vector perpendicular to the given plane, then  $\mathbf{m}$  might point in the opposite direction of  $\mathbf{n}$  or in the same direction. The number  $t$  that we seek is the length of the projection of  $\mathbf{m}$  on  $\mathbf{n}$ . Thus,

$$\begin{aligned}t &= |\mathbf{m}| \cos \theta = \frac{|\mathbf{m} \cdot \mathbf{n}|}{|\mathbf{n}|} \\ &= \frac{|A(x_0 - x_1) + B(y_0 - y_1) + C(z_0 - z_1)|}{\sqrt{A^2 + B^2 + C^2}} \\ &= \frac{|Ax_0 + By_0 + Cz_0 - (Ax_1 + By_1 + Cz_1)|}{\sqrt{A^2 + B^2 + C^2}}.\end{aligned}$$

But  $(x_1, y_1, z_1)$  is on the plane, and so

$$Ax_1 + By_1 + Cz_1 = D.$$

Substitution of this result in the expression for  $t$  yields the desired formula. ■





**SOLUTION** The planes are parallel since the vector  $\langle 3, -2, 4 \rangle$  is perpendicular to both planes (Figure 1). The point  $(1, -2, 3)$  is easily seen to be on the first plane. We find the distance  $d$  from  $(1, -2, 3)$  to the second plane using the formula of Example 4.

## Concepts Review

2. 'I was surprised to find a box of (handwritten) letters and notes of mine in the library'.

4. A normal vector to the plane  $\mathcal{A}_x = S_1$  is  $\vec{n}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ .

### Problem Set 11.5

a.  $\frac{1}{2}a = -\frac{1}{2}b$  (D)  $a = b$   
 c.  $a + (b - c)$  (A)  $[-2a - 3b] \leq$   
 u.  $|a|c = 0$  (F)  $2a + b = 1b$

- a)  $4m - 3b$
- b)  $5a + 3b - c$
- c)  $3b + 4a - 5c$
- d)  $2c - (5b + 4a)$
- e)  $4b + 3a - 5c$
- f)  $4a^2 - 3b + 5c$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{II} & \quad \text{a} & \quad \text{b} & \quad \text{c} \\ \text{V} & \quad \text{a} & \quad \text{b} & \quad \text{c} \\ \text{VI} & \quad \text{a} = (4, -7), \text{b} = -9, \text{c} \end{aligned}$$

c.  $\mu = \sqrt{31} + 1$ ,  $\sigma = \frac{1}{2} + \sqrt{31}$

|   |   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| a | h | b | a | a | b |
| c | a | d | a | b | a |
|   | a | h |   |   |   |
| c |   |   | b | b | b |

0 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50 51 52 53 54 55 56 57 58 59 60 61 62 63 64 65 66 67 68 69 70 71 72 73 74 75 76 77 78 79 80 81 82 83 84 85 86 87 88 89 90 91 92 93 94 95 96 97 98 99 100 101 102 103 104 105 106 107 108 109 110 111 112 113 114 115 116 117 118 119 120 121 122 123 124 125 126 127 128 129 130 131 132 133 134 135 136 137 138 139 140 141 142 143 144 145 146 147 148 149 150 151 152 153 154 155 156 157 158 159 160 161 162 163 164 165 166 167 168 169 170 171 172 173 174 175 176 177 178 179 180 181 182 183 184 185 186 187 188 189 190 191 192 193 194 195 196 197 198 199 200 201 202 203 204 205 206 207 208 209 210 211 212 213 214 215 216 217 218 219 220 221 222 223 224 225 226 227 228 229 230 231 232 233 234 235 236 237 238 239 240 241 242 243 244 245 246 247 248 249 250 251 252 253 254 255 256 257 258 259 260 261 262 263 264 265 266 267 268 269 270 271 272 273 274 275 276 277 278 279 280 281 282 283 284 285 286 287 288 289 290 291 292 293 294 295 296 297 298 299 300 301 302 303 304 305 306 307 308 309 310 311 312 313 314 315 316 317 318 319 320 321 322 323 324 325 326 327 328 329 330 331 332 333 334 335 336 337 338 339 340 341 342 343 344 345 346 347 348 349 350 351 352 353 354 355 356 357 358 359 360 361 362 363 364 365 366 367 368 369 370 371 372 373 374 375 376 377 378 379 380 381 382 383 384 385 386 387 388 389 390 391 392 393 394 395 396 397 398 399 400 401 402 403 404 405 406 407 408 409 410 411 412 413 414 415 416 417 418 419 420 421 422 423 424 425 426 427 428 429 430 431 432 433 434 435 436 437 438 439 440 441 442 443 444 445 446 447 448 449 450 451 452 453 454 455 456 457 458 459 460 461 462 463 464 465 466 467 468 469 470 471 472 473 474 475 476 477 478 479 480 481 482 483 484 485 486 487 488 489 490 491 492 493 494 495 496 497 498 499 500 501 502 503 504 505 506 507 508 509 510 511 512 513 514 515 516 517 518 519 520 521 522 523 524 525 526 527 528 529 530 531 532 533 534 535 536 537 538 539 540 541 542 543 544 545 546 547 548 549 550 551 552 553 554 555 556 557 558 559 560 561 562 563 564 565 566 567 568 569 570 571 572 573 574 575 576 577 578 579 580 581 582 583 584 585 586 587 588 589 590 591 592 593 594 595 596 597 598 599 600 601 602 603 604 605 606 607 608 609 610 611 612 613 614 615 616 617 618 619 620 621 622 623 624 625 626 627 628 629 630 631 632 633 634 635 636 637 638 639 640 641 642 643 644 645 646 647 648 649 650 651 652 653 654 655 656 657 658 659 660 661 662 663 664 665 666 667 668 669 670 671 672 673 674 675 676 677 678 679 680 681 682 683 684 685 686 687 688 689 690 691 692 693 694 695 696 697 698 699 700 701 702 703 704 705 706 707 708 709 710 711 712 713 714 715 716 717 718 719 720 721 722 723 724 725 726 727 728 729 730 731 732 733 734 735 736 737 738 739 740 741 742 743 744 745 746 747 748 749 750 751 752 753 754 755 756 757 758 759 760 761 762 763 764 765 766 767 768 769 770 771 772 773 774 775 776 777 778 779 780 781 782 783 784 785 786 787 788 789 790 791 792 793 794 795 796 797 798 799 800 801 802 803 804 805 806 807 808 809 810 811 812 813 814 815 816 817 818 819 820 821 822 823 824 825 826 827 828 829 830 831 832 833 834 835 836 837 838 839 840 841 842 843 844 845 846 847 848 849 850 851 852 853 854 855 856 857 858 859 860 861 862 863 864 865 866 867 868 869 870 871 872 873 874 875 876 877 878 879 880 881 882 883 884 885 886 887 888 889 890 891 892 893 894 895 896 897 898 899 900 901 902 903 904 905 906 907 908 909 910 911 912 913 914 915 916 917 918 919 920 921 922 923 924 925 926 927 928 929 930 931 932 933 934 935 936 937 938 939 940 941 942 943 944 945 946 947 948 949 950 951 952 953 954 955 956 957 958 959 960 961 962 963 964 965 966 967 968 969 970 971 972 973 974 975 976 977 978 979 980 981 982 983 984 985 986 987 988 989 990 991 992 993 994 995 996 997 998 999 1000 1001 1002 1003 1004 1005 1006 1007 1008 1009 1010 1011 1012 1013 1014 1015 1016 1017 1018 1019 1020 1021 1022 1023 1024 1025 1026 1027 1028 1029 1030 1031 1032 1033 1034 1035 1036 1037 1038 1039 1040 1

(c)  $b \cdot c$                       (d)  $a + a$      $|K|^{1/2}$

6. Let  $a = (\sqrt{3}, 3, \sqrt{3}, 3, \sqrt{3}, 3)$ ,  $b = (1, 1, 0)$ , and  $c = (2, -3, 1)$ . Find the angle between each pair of vectors.

10. For the function  $g$ , in each of the following, find the direct variation and the constant of variation.

12. Show that the vectors  $\mathbf{u} = 1, \mathbf{i}, \mathbf{h} = 1, \mathbf{j}$ , and  $\mathbf{c} = 1, 1, 2$  are mutually independent. Use Pythagoras' theorem to verify that  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{h}$  are orthogonal.

13. Show that the vectors  $\mathbf{u} = i + j$ ,  $\mathbf{h} = i - j$ , and  $\mathbf{c} = \mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j}$  are mutually orthogonal, that is, each pair of vectors is orthogonal.

14. If  $\mathbf{u}$  &  $\mathbf{v}$  is orthogonal to  $\mathbf{w}$ , what can you say about the relative magnitudes of  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$ ?

15. Find two vectors of length 10 units of which is horizontal and is both  $\mathbf{i}$  &  $\mathbf{j}$  unit  $\mathbf{i}$  &  $\mathbf{j}$ .

16. Find all vectors perpendicular to both  $\mathbf{u} = 2\mathbf{i} + 3\mathbf{j}$  and  $\mathbf{v} = 3\mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j}$ .

17. Find the angle  $ABC$  if the perimeter of  $\triangle A_1B_1C_1$  is 23.

18. Show that the triangle  $ABC$  is a right triangle if the vertices are  $A(6, 3, 3)$ ,  $B(3, 2, -1)$ , and  $C(-1, 0, 2)$ . *Hint:* Check the axes  $a, b$ .

19. For what numbers  $c$  are  $\langle c, 6 \rangle$  and  $\langle c, 4 \rangle$  orthogonal?
20. For what numbers  $c$  are  $2c\mathbf{i} - 8\mathbf{j}$  and  $3\mathbf{i} + c\mathbf{j}$  orthogonal?
21. For what numbers  $c$  and  $d$  are  $\mathbf{u} = c\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$  and  $\mathbf{v} = 2\mathbf{j} + d\mathbf{k}$  orthogonal?
22. For what values of  $a$ ,  $b$ , and  $c$  are the three vectors  $\langle a, 0, 1 \rangle$ ,  $\langle 0, 2, b \rangle$ , and  $\langle c, 1, 1 \rangle$  mutually orthogonal?

In Problems 23–28, find each of the given projections if  $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{i} + 3\mathbf{j}$ ,  $\mathbf{v} = 2\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j}$ , and  $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{i} + 5\mathbf{j}$ .

23.  $\text{proj}_{\mathbf{u}} \mathbf{u}$                                       24.  $\text{proj}_{\mathbf{v}} \mathbf{v}$   
 25.  $\text{proj}_{\mathbf{u}} \mathbf{w}$                                       26.  $\text{proj}_{\mathbf{v}} (\mathbf{w} + \mathbf{v})$   
 27.  $\text{proj}_{\mathbf{u}} \mathbf{u}$                                       28.  $\text{proj}_{\mathbf{u}} \mathbf{u}$

In Problems 29–34, find each of the given projections if  $\mathbf{u} = 3\mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$ ,  $\mathbf{v} = 3 - \mathbf{k}$ , and  $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{i} + 5\mathbf{j} - 3\mathbf{k}$ .

29.  $\text{proj}_{\mathbf{u}} \mathbf{u}$                                       30.  $\text{proj}_{\mathbf{u}} \mathbf{v}$   
 31.  $\text{proj}_{\mathbf{u}} \mathbf{w}$                                       32.  $\text{proj}_{\mathbf{u}} (\mathbf{w} + \mathbf{v})$   
 33.  $\text{proj}_{\mathbf{u}} \mathbf{u}$                                       34.  $\text{proj}_{\mathbf{u}} \mathbf{u}$

35. Find a simple expression for each of the following for an arbitrary vector  $\mathbf{u}$ .

- (a)  $\text{proj}_{\mathbf{u}} \mathbf{u}$                                       (b)  $\text{proj}_{-\mathbf{u}} \mathbf{u}$

36. Find a simple expression for each of the following for an arbitrary vector  $\mathbf{u}$ .

- (a)  $\text{proj}_{\mathbf{u}} (-\mathbf{u})$                                       (b)  $\text{proj}_{-\mathbf{u}} (-\mathbf{u})$

37. Find the scalar projection of  $\mathbf{u} = -\mathbf{i} + 5\mathbf{j} + 3\mathbf{k}$  on  $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} - \mathbf{k}$ .

38. Find the scalar projection of  $\mathbf{u} = 5\mathbf{i} + 5\mathbf{j} + 2\mathbf{k}$  on  $\mathbf{v} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}\mathbf{i} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$ .

39. A vector  $\mathbf{u} = 2\mathbf{i} + 3\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$  emanating from the origin points into the first octant (i.e., that part of three-space where all components are positive). If  $\|\mathbf{u}\| = 5$ , find  $z$ .

40. If  $\alpha = 46^\circ$  and  $\beta = 108^\circ$  are direction angles for a vector  $\mathbf{u}$ , find two possible values for the third angle.

41. Find two perpendicular vectors  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  such that each is also perpendicular to  $\mathbf{w} = \langle -4, 2, 5 \rangle$ .

42. Find the vector emanating from the origin whose terminal point is the midpoint of the segment joining  $(3, 2, -1)$  and  $(5, -2, 2)$ .

43. Which of the following do not make sense?

- (a)  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w}$                                       (b)  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{w} + \mathbf{w}$   
 (c)  $\|\mathbf{u}\|(\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w})$                                       (d)  $(\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v})\mathbf{w}$

44. Which of the following do not make sense?

- (a)  $\mathbf{u} \cdot (\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w})$                                       (b)  $(\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{w})\|\mathbf{w}\|$   
 (c)  $\|\mathbf{u}\| \cdot \|\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}\|$                                       (d)  $(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v})\mathbf{w}$

In Problems 45–50, give a proof of the indicated property for  $n$ -dimensional vectors. Use  $\mathbf{u} = \langle u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n \rangle$ ,  $\mathbf{v} = \langle v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n \rangle$ , and  $\mathbf{w} = \langle w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n \rangle$ .

45.  $(a + b)\mathbf{u} = a\mathbf{u} + b\mathbf{u}$   
 46.  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{u}$   
 47.  $c(\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}) = (c\mathbf{u}) \cdot \mathbf{v}$   
 48.  $\mathbf{u} \cdot (\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{w}$   
 49.  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0$   
 50.  $\|\mathbf{u}\|^2 = \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u}$

51. Given the two nonparallel vectors  $\mathbf{a} = 3\mathbf{i} - 2\mathbf{j}$  and  $\mathbf{b} = 3\mathbf{i} + 4\mathbf{j}$  and another vector  $\mathbf{r} = 7\mathbf{i} - 8\mathbf{j}$ , find scalars  $k$  and  $m$  such that  $\mathbf{r} = k\mathbf{a} + m\mathbf{b}$ .

52. Given the two nonparallel vectors  $\mathbf{a} = -4\mathbf{i} + 3\mathbf{j}$  and  $\mathbf{b} = 2\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j}$  and another vector  $\mathbf{r} = 6\mathbf{i} - 7\mathbf{j}$ , find scalars  $k$  and  $m$  such that  $\mathbf{r} = k\mathbf{a} + m\mathbf{b}$ .

53. Show that the vector  $\mathbf{u} = a\mathbf{i} + b\mathbf{j}$  is perpendicular to the line with equation  $ax + by = c$ . Hint: Let  $P_1(x_1, y_1)$  and  $P_2(x_2, y_2)$  be two points on the line and show that  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \overrightarrow{P_1P_2} = 0$ .

54. Prove that  $\|\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}\|^2 = 2\|\mathbf{u}\|^2 + 2\|\mathbf{v}\|^2$ .

55. Prove that  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \frac{1}{4}(\|\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}\|^2 - \|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}\|^2)$ .

56. Find the angle between a main diagonal of a cube and one of its faces.

57. Find the smallest angle between the main diagonals of a rectangular box 4 feet by 6 feet by 9 feet.

58. Find the angles formed by the diagonals of a cube.

59. Find the work done by the force  $\mathbf{F} = 3\mathbf{i} + 10\mathbf{j}$  newtons in moving an object 9 meters north (i.e., in the  $\mathbf{j}$  direction).

60. Find the work done by a force of 100 newtons acting in the direction  $S 70^\circ E$  in moving an object 30 meters east.

61. Find the work done by the force  $\mathbf{F} = 6\mathbf{i} + 8\mathbf{j}$  pounds in moving an object from  $(1, 0)$  to  $(6, 5)$ , where distance is in feet.

62. Find the work done by a force  $\mathbf{F} = 3\mathbf{i} + 8\mathbf{j}$  newtons in moving an object 12 meters north.

63. Find the work done by a force  $\mathbf{F} = -4\mathbf{k}$  newtons in moving an object from  $(0, 0, 8)$  to  $(4, 4, 0)$ , where distance is in meters.

64. Find the work done by a force  $\mathbf{F} = 3\mathbf{i} - 6\mathbf{j} + 7\mathbf{k}$  pounds in moving an object from  $(2, 1, 3)$  to  $(9, 4, 6)$ , where distance is in feet.

In Problems 65–68, find the equation of the plane having the given normal vector  $\mathbf{n}$  and passing through the given point  $P$ .

65.  $\mathbf{n} = 2\mathbf{i} - 4\mathbf{j} + 3\mathbf{k}$ ;  $P(-2, -1)$

66.  $\mathbf{n} = 3\mathbf{i} - 2\mathbf{j} - \mathbf{k}$ ;  $P(-2, -3, 4)$

67.  $\mathbf{n} = \langle 1, 4, 4 \rangle$ ;  $P(1, 2)$

68.  $\mathbf{n} = \langle 0, 0, 1 \rangle$ ;  $P(-2, -3)$

69. Find the smaller of the angles between the two planes from Problems 65 and 66.

70. Find the equation of the plane through  $(-2, -3)$  and parallel to the plane  $2x + 4y - z = 6$ .

71. Find the equation of the plane passing through  $(-1, -2)$  and parallel to

- (a) the  $xy$ -plane  
 (b) the plane  $2x - 3y - 4z = 0$

72. Find the equation of the plane passing through the origin and parallel to

- (a) the  $xy$ -plane  
 (b) the plane  $x + y + z = 0$

73. Find the distance from  $(-1, -2)$  to the plane  $x + 3y + z = 7$ .

74. Find the distance from  $(2, 6, 3)$  to the plane  $4x + 2y + z = 0$ .



75. Find the distance between the parallel planes  $3x + 4y + 6z = 1$  and  $6x + 8y + 12z = 4$ .

76. Find the distance between the parallel planes  $5x - 3y - 2z = 5$  and  $5x - 3y + 2z = 7$ .

77. Find the distance from the sphere  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 + 2x + 6y + 8z = 0$  to the plane  $3x - 4y + z = 16$ .

78. Find the equation of the plane each of whose points is equidistant from  $(-2, 4, 1)$  and  $(6, 1, 2)$ .

79. Prove the Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality for two-dimensional vectors.

$$|\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}| \leq \|\mathbf{u}\| \|\mathbf{v}\|$$

80. Prove the Triangle Inequality (see Figure 13) for two-dimensional vectors.

$$\|\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}\| \leq \|\mathbf{u}\| + \|\mathbf{v}\|$$

*Hint:* Use the dot product to compute  $\|\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}\|^2$ , then use the Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality from Problem 79.



Figure 13

81. A weight of 30 pounds is suspended by three wires with resulting tensions  $\frac{1}{3}\mathbf{u}$ ,  $\frac{1}{3}\mathbf{v}$ ,  $\frac{1}{3}\mathbf{w}$ ,  $\|\mathbf{u}\| = \|\mathbf{v}\| = \|\mathbf{w}\| = 10\text{ lb}$ , and  $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{0}$ . Determine  $\mathbf{u}$ ,  $\mathbf{b}$ , and  $\mathbf{c}$  so that the net force is straight up.

82. Show that the work done by a constant force  $\mathbf{F}$  on an object that moves completely around a closed polygonal path is 0.

83. Let  $\mathbf{a} = (a_1, a_2, a_3)$  and  $\mathbf{b} = (b_1, b_2, b_3)$  be fixed vectors. Show that  $(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a}) \cdot (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b}) = 0$  is the equation of a sphere, and find its center and radius.

84. Refine the method of Example 10 by showing that the distance  $L$  between the parallel planes  $Ax + By + Cz = D$  and  $Ax + By + Cz = E$  is

$$L = \frac{|D - E|}{\sqrt{A^2 + B^2 + C^2}}.$$

85. The medians of a triangle meet at a point  $P$ ; see Example 10 by Problem 41 of Section 5.6 that a two-thirds of the way from a vertex to the midpoint of the opposite edge. Show that  $P$  is the head of the position vector  $(\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b} + \mathbf{c})/3$ , where  $\mathbf{a}$ ,  $\mathbf{b}$ , and  $\mathbf{c}$  are the position vectors of the vertices, and use this to find  $P$  if the vertices are  $(2, 6, 3)$ ,  $(4, -1, 2)$ , and  $(6, 4, 2)$ .

86. Let  $\mathbf{a}$ ,  $\mathbf{b}$ ,  $\mathbf{c}$ , and  $\mathbf{d}$  be the position vectors of the vertices of a tetrahedron. Show that the lines joining the vertices to the centroids of the opposite faces meet in a point  $P$  and give a nice vector formula for it, thus generalizing Problem 85.

87. Suppose that the three coordinate planes bounding the first octant are mirrors. A light ray with direction  $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}$  is reflected successively from the  $xy$ -plane, the  $xz$ -plane, and the  $yz$ -plane. Determine the direction of the ray after each reflection and state a nice result concerning the final reflected ray.

**Answers to Chapter 11 Review:** 1.  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = u_1v_1 + u_2v_2 + u_3v_3$   
2.  $\mathbf{b}$  3.  $\cos \theta$  4.  $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{C}$

## 11.4 The Cross Product

The dot product of two vectors is a scalar. We have explored some of its uses in the physical sciences. Now we introduce the cross product of two nonparallel vectors  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$ . The cross product  $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}$  of  $\mathbf{u} = u_1\mathbf{i} + u_2\mathbf{j} + u_3\mathbf{k}$  and  $\mathbf{v} = v_1\mathbf{i} + v_2\mathbf{j} + v_3\mathbf{k}$  is defined by

$$\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v} = (u_2v_3 - u_3v_2)\mathbf{i} + (u_3v_1 - u_1v_3)\mathbf{j} + (u_1v_2 - u_2v_1)\mathbf{k}.$$

Before using the formula, it is best to remember one's sign convention for it, given by the following rule, which is shown in the accompanying diagram.

To help us remember the formula for the cross product, we use the following mnemonic that involves writing vertically the components. For the value of a  $2 \times 2$  determinant is

$$\begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{vmatrix} = ad - bc.$$

Then the value of a  $3 \times 3$  determinant is (expanding along the top row)

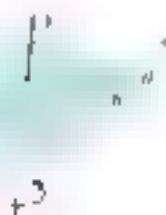
$$\begin{vmatrix} a & b & c \\ d & e & f \\ g & h & i \end{vmatrix} = a \begin{vmatrix} e & f \\ h & i \end{vmatrix} - b \begin{vmatrix} d & f \\ g & i \end{vmatrix} + c \begin{vmatrix} d & e \\ g & h \end{vmatrix} = a(ei - fh) - b(di - fg) + c(dh - ge).$$

## Torque

The cross product plays an important role in mechanics. Let  $O$  be a fixed point in a body, and suppose that a force  $\mathbf{F}$  is applied at another point  $P$  of the body. Then  $\mathbf{F}$  tends to cause the body about an axis through  $O$  and perpendicular to the plane of  $OP$  and  $\mathbf{F}$ . The vector

$$\overrightarrow{OP} \times \mathbf{F}$$

is called the **torque**. It points in the direction of the axis and has magnitude  $|\overrightarrow{OP}| |\mathbf{F}| \sin \theta$ , which is just the moment of force about the axis due to  $\mathbf{F}$ .



Using determinants, we can write the definition of  $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}$  as

$$\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ u_1 & u_2 & u_3 \\ v_1 & v_2 & v_3 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} u_2 & u_3 \\ v_2 & v_3 \end{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} - \begin{vmatrix} u_1 & u_3 \\ v_1 & v_3 \end{vmatrix} \mathbf{j} + \begin{vmatrix} u_1 & u_2 \\ v_1 & v_2 \end{vmatrix} \mathbf{k}$$

Note that the components of the left vector  $\mathbf{u}$  go in the second row and those of the right vector  $\mathbf{v}$  go in the third row. This is important because if we interchange the positions of  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$ , we interchange the second and third rows of the determinant and this changes the sign of the determinant's value as you may check. Thus

$$\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v} = -(\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{u})$$

which is sometimes called the **noncommutative law**.

**EXAMPLE 1** Let  $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{i} - 2\mathbf{j} - 3\mathbf{k}$  and  $\mathbf{v} = -2\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} - 4\mathbf{k}$ . Evaluate  $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}$  and  $\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{u}$  using the determinant definition.

**SOLUTION**

$$\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ 1 & -2 & -3 \\ -2 & 1 & -4 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} -2 & -3 \\ 1 & -4 \end{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} - \begin{vmatrix} 1 & -3 \\ -2 & -4 \end{vmatrix} \mathbf{j} + \begin{vmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ -2 & 1 \end{vmatrix} \mathbf{k}$$

$$= 11\mathbf{i} - 10\mathbf{j} - 6\mathbf{k}$$

$$\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{u} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ -2 & 1 & -4 \\ 1 & -2 & -3 \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & -4 \\ -2 & -3 \end{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} - \begin{vmatrix} -2 & -4 \\ 1 & -3 \end{vmatrix} \mathbf{j} + \begin{vmatrix} -2 & 1 \\ 1 & -2 \end{vmatrix} \mathbf{k}$$

$$= -11\mathbf{i} + 10\mathbf{j} + 6\mathbf{k}$$

Since  $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v} = -(\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{u})$ , we see that the dot product, the orthonormal set, gains significance from its geometric interpretation.

## Theorem 1

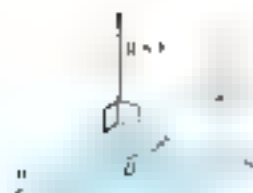
Let  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  be vectors in three space and  $\theta$  be the angle between them. Then

- $\mathbf{u} \cdot (\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}) = 0 = \mathbf{v} \cdot (\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v})$ , that is,  $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}$  is perpendicular to both  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$ .
- $\mathbf{u}$ ,  $\mathbf{v}$ , and  $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}$  form a right-handed triple.
- $|\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}| = |\mathbf{u}| |\mathbf{v}| \sin \theta$ .

**Proof** Let  $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, u_2, u_3)$  and  $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, v_2, v_3)$ .

- $\mathbf{u} \cdot (\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}) = u_1(u_2v_3 - u_3v_2) + u_2(u_3v_1 - u_1v_3) + u_3(u_1v_2 - u_2v_1)$ . When we remove parentheses, the six terms cancel in pairs, leaving a sum of 0. A similar event occurs when we expand  $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}$ .
- The meaning of right-handedness for the triple  $\mathbf{u}$ ,  $\mathbf{v}$ ,  $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}$  is illustrated in Figure 1. There  $\theta$  is the angle between  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$ , and the fingers of the right hand are curled in the direction of the rotation through which  $\mathbf{u}$  coincides with  $\mathbf{v}$ . It is desired to establish and verify that the ordered triple is right-handed, but you might check it with a few examples. Note in particular that  $\mathbf{i} \times \mathbf{j} = \mathbf{k}$  and by definition we know that the triple  $\mathbf{i}$ ,  $\mathbf{j}$ ,  $\mathbf{k}$  is right-handed.
- We need Lagrange's Identity.

$$|\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}|^2 = |\mathbf{u}|^2 |\mathbf{v}|^2 - (\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v})^2$$



whose proof is a simple algebraic exercise (Problem 4). Using this identity we can write

$$\begin{aligned} \|\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}\|^2 &= \|\mathbf{u}\|^2 \|\mathbf{v}\|^2 - (\|\mathbf{u}\| \|\mathbf{v}\| \cos \theta)^2 \\ &= \|\mathbf{u}\|^2 \|\mathbf{v}\|^2 (1 - \cos^2 \theta) \\ &= \|\mathbf{u}\|^2 \|\mathbf{v}\|^2 \sin^2 \theta \end{aligned}$$

Since  $0 \leq \theta \leq \pi$ ,  $\sin \theta \geq 0$ . Taking the principal square root yields

$$\|\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}\| = \|\mathbf{u}\| \|\mathbf{v}\| \sin \theta \quad \blacksquare$$

It is important that we have geometric interpretations of both  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}$  and  $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}$ . While both products were originally defined in terms of components that depend on a choice of coordinate system, they are actually independent of the particular system. They are intrinsic geometric quantities and can be used in some results (Problem 5) and  $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}$  to make them even stronger. The reader can check and compute here.

Here is a simple consequence of Theorem A (part 3) and the fact that vectors are parallel if and only if the angle  $\theta$  between them is either  $0^\circ$  or  $180^\circ$ :

### Theorem B

Two vectors  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  in three-space are parallel if and only if  $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$ .

**Applications** Our first application is to find the equation of the plane through three noncollinear points.

**EXAMPLE 3** Find the equation of the plane (Figure 3) through the three points  $P(1, -2, 3)$ ,  $Q(4, 1, -3)$ , and  $R(-2, 2, 5)$ .

**SOLUTION** Let  $\mathbf{u} = \overrightarrow{PQ} = \langle 3, 3, -6 \rangle$  and  $\mathbf{v} = \overrightarrow{PR} = \langle -3, 4, 2 \rangle$ . From the first part of Theorem A we know that

$$\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ 3 & 3 & -6 \\ -3 & 4 & 2 \end{vmatrix} = 4\mathbf{i} - 24\mathbf{j} - 6\mathbf{k}$$

is perpendicular to both  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  and thus is the plane's normal vector. The plane through  $P(1, -2, 3)$  with normal  $\langle 4, -24, -6 \rangle$  has equation (see Section 11.1)

$$4(x - 1) - 24(y + 2) - 6(z + 3) = 0$$

or

$$4x - 24y - 6z = 44 \quad \blacksquare$$

**EXAMPLE 4** Show that the area of a parallelogram with  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$  as adjacent sides is  $\|\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{b}\|$ .

**SOLUTION** Recall that the area of a parallelogram is the product of its base times the height. Now look at Figure 4 and use the fact that  $\|\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{b}\| = \|\mathbf{u}\| \|\mathbf{b}\| \sin \theta$ .  $\blacksquare$

**EXAMPLE 5** Show that the volume of the parallelepiped determined by the vectors  $\mathbf{a}$ ,  $\mathbf{b}$ , and  $\mathbf{c}$  is

$$V = \begin{vmatrix} a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \\ c_1 & c_2 & c_3 \end{vmatrix}$$

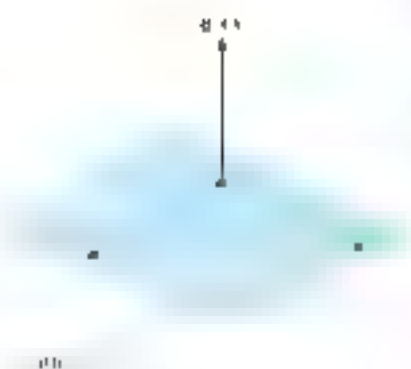
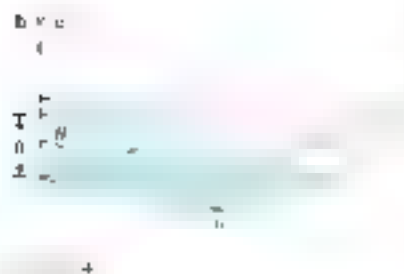


Figure 4



**FIGURE 4** Refer to Figure 4 and regard the parallelogram determined by  $\mathbf{b}$  and  $\mathbf{c}$  as the base of the parallelepiped. The area of the base is  $\|\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}\|$ . By Example 5 the height  $h$  of the parallelepiped is the absolute value of the scalar projection of  $\mathbf{a}$  on  $\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}$ . Thus,

$$V = h\|\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}\| = \frac{|\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c})|}{\|\mathbf{a}\|\|\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}\|} = \frac{|\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c})|}{\|\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}\|}$$

and

$$V = h\|\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}\| = |\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c})|$$

Suppose that the vectors  $\mathbf{a}$ ,  $\mathbf{b}$ , and  $\mathbf{c}$  from the previous example all lie in the same plane. In this case, the parallelepiped has height zero so the volume should be zero. Does the formula for the volume yield  $V = 0$  if  $\mathbf{a}$  is in the plane determined by  $\mathbf{b}$  and  $\mathbf{c}$ ? Then any vector perpendicular to  $\mathbf{b}$  and  $\mathbf{c}$  will be perpendicular to  $\mathbf{a}$  as well. The vector  $\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}$  is perpendicular to both  $\mathbf{b}$  and  $\mathbf{c}$ , hence  $\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}$  is perpendicular to  $\mathbf{a}$ . Thus,  $\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}) = 0$ .

The rules for calculating scalar cross products are summarized in the following theorem. Prove the properties on your own, getting everything right in terms of components and working out all the algebra.

### Theorem 1

If  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  are vectors in three space and  $\mathbf{w}$  is a scalar, then

1.  $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v} = -\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{u}$  (anticommutative law)
2.  $\mathbf{u} \times (\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}) = (\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}) + (\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{w})$  (left distributive law),  
 $(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) \times \mathbf{w} = (\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{w}) + (\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{w})$
3.  $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{u} = \mathbf{0} \times \mathbf{u} = \mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0}$   
 $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0} \iff \mathbf{u} = t\mathbf{v}$
4.  $\mathbf{u} \times (\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{w}) = (\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{w})\mathbf{v} - (\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v})\mathbf{w}$

Check the rules in Theorem 1. It is not so obvious as it could seem, but we will prove can be done with ease. We illustrate  $\mathbf{u} \times (\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}) = (\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}) + (\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{w})$  in a new way. We will need the following simple but important products:

$$\mathbf{i} \times \mathbf{j} = \mathbf{k}, \quad \mathbf{j} \times \mathbf{k} = \mathbf{i}, \quad \mathbf{k} \times \mathbf{i} = \mathbf{j}$$

These results have a cyclic order, which can be remembered by inspection in Figure 5.

**EXAMPLE 1** Calculate  $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}$  if  $\mathbf{u} = 3\mathbf{i} - 2\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$  and  $\mathbf{v} = 4\mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j} - 3\mathbf{k}$ .

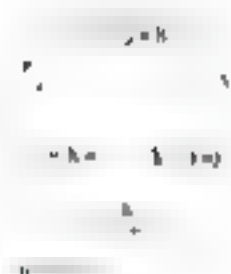
**SOLUTION** We appeal to Theorem 1, especially the distributive law and the anticommutative law.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v} &= (3\mathbf{i} - 2\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}) \times (4\mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j} - 3\mathbf{k}) \\ &= (3\mathbf{i} \times 4\mathbf{i} - 6(\mathbf{i} \times \mathbf{j}) - 9(\mathbf{i} \times \mathbf{k}) - 8(\mathbf{j} \times \mathbf{i}) + 4(\mathbf{j} \times \mathbf{j}) \\ &\quad + 6(\mathbf{j} \times \mathbf{k}) + 4(\mathbf{k} \times \mathbf{i}) + 2(\mathbf{k} \times \mathbf{j})) \\ &= 12(\mathbf{0}) - 6(\mathbf{k}) - 9(-\mathbf{j}) - 8(\mathbf{k}) + 4(\mathbf{0}) \\ &\quad + 6(\mathbf{i}) + 4\mathbf{j} - 2(-\mathbf{i}) - 3(\mathbf{0}) \\ &= 3\mathbf{i} - 3\mathbf{j} - 13\mathbf{k} \end{aligned}$$

Experts would do most of this in their heads. It takes might find the determinant method easier.

**FIGURE 5**

Never read a mathematician book passively; rather ask questions as you read. For instance, why do we take a dot product with the vector  $\mathbf{a}$  in the proof of Theorem 1? The volume of the parallelepiped is a scalar, so the scalar product of the vector  $\mathbf{a}$  with the vector  $\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}$  is the volume. What happens if  $\mathbf{a}$  is not in the plane of  $\mathbf{b}$  and  $\mathbf{c}$ ?



## Concepts Review

- The cross product of  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  is given by a specific determinant evaluation of this determinant gives  $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}$ .
- Geometrically,  $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}$  is a vector perpendicular to the plane of  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  and has length  $\|\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}\|$ .

- The cross product is noncommutative: that is,  $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v} \neq \mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{u}$ .
- Two vectors are parallel if and only if their cross product is  $\mathbf{0}$ .

## Problem Set 11.4

1. Let  $\mathbf{a} = -3\mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j} - 3\mathbf{k}$ ,  $\mathbf{b} = -\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} - 4\mathbf{k}$ , and  $\mathbf{c} = 7\mathbf{i} + 3\mathbf{j} - 4\mathbf{k}$ . Find each of the following:

(a)  $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$  (b)  $\mathbf{a} \times (\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{c})$   
 (c)  $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}$  (d)  $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}$

2. If  $\mathbf{u} = (3, 3, 1)$ ,  $\mathbf{b} = (-2, 1, 0)$ , and  $\mathbf{v} = (2, 3, 1)$ , find each of the following:

(a)  $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{b}$  (b)  $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{v}$   
 (c)  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{v}$  (d)  $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{v}$

3. Find all vectors perpendicular to both of the vectors  $\mathbf{u} = (1, 1, 1)$  and  $\mathbf{b} = (-1, 1, 1)$ .

4. Find all vectors perpendicular to both of the vectors  $\mathbf{u} = (1, 1, 1)$  and  $\mathbf{b} = (-1, 1, 1)$ .

5. Find the unit vectors perpendicular to the plane determined by the three points  $(3, 3, 3)$ ,  $(3, 3, 2)$ , and  $(4, 4, 1)$ .

6. Find the unit vectors perpendicular to the plane determined by the three points  $(-1, 1, 0)$ ,  $(5, 1, 2)$ , and  $(4, -2, -1)$ .

7. Find the area of the parallelogram with  $\mathbf{u} = -\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} - 3\mathbf{k}$  and  $\mathbf{b} = 4\mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j} - 4\mathbf{k}$  as the adjacent sides.

8. Find the area of the parallelogram with  $\mathbf{u} = 2\mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j} - \mathbf{k}$  and  $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{j} + 4\mathbf{k}$  as the adjacent sides.

9. Find the area of the triangle with  $(1, 3, 1)$ ,  $(2, 4, 0)$ , and  $(1, 2, 5)$  as vertices.

10. Find the area of the triangle with  $(1, -3, 1, 5)$  and  $(1, 3, 1, 5)$  as vertices.

In Problems 11–14, find the equation of the plane through the given points.

11.  $(1, 1, 1)$ ,  $(2, 2, 2)$ , and  $(3, 3, 3)$

12.  $(1, 1, 1)$ ,  $(2, 2, 2)$ , and  $(3, 3, 3)$

13.  $(1, 1, 1)$ ,  $(2, 2, 2)$ , and  $(3, 3, 3)$

14.  $(1, 1, 1)$ ,  $(2, 2, 2)$ , and  $(3, 3, 3)$ . (None of  $\mathbf{u}$ ,  $\mathbf{b}$ , and  $\mathbf{c}$  is zero.)

15. Find the equation of the plane through  $(2, 5, 1)$  that is parallel to the plane  $x + y + z = 1$ .

16. Find the equation of the plane through  $(0, 0, 2)$  that is parallel to the plane  $x + y + z = 1$ .

17. Find the equation of the plane through  $(1, -1, 3)$  and perpendicular to both the planes  $x + 3y + 2z = 7$  and  $x + y + z = 1$ .

18. Find the equation of the plane through  $(2, -1, 4)$  that is perpendicular to both the planes  $x + y + z = 1$  and  $x + y + z = 1$ .

19. Find the equation of the plane through  $(2, -3, 2)$  and parallel to the plane of the vectors  $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$  and  $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$ .

20. Find the equation of the plane through the origin that is perpendicular to the  $xy$ -plane and the plane  $3x + 2y + z = 4$ .

21. Find the equation of the plane through  $(6, 2, 1)$  and perpendicular to the line of intersection of the planes  $x + y + z = 1$  and  $x + y + z = 1$ .

22. Let  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$  be nonparallel vectors, and let  $\mathbf{c}$  be any nonzero vector. Show that  $(\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}) \times \mathbf{c}$  is a vector in the plane of  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$ .

23. Find the volume of the parallelepiped with edges  $(2, 3, 4)$ ,  $(0, 4, -1)$ , and  $(5, 1, 3)$  (see Example 4).

24. Find the volume of the parallelepiped with edges  $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$ ,  $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$ , and  $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$ .

25. Let  $\mathbf{A}$  be the parallelepiped determined by  $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$ ,  $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$ , and  $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$ .

- (a) Find the volume of  $\mathbf{A}$ .

- (b) Find the area of the face determined by  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$ .

- (c) Find the angle between  $\mathbf{u}$  and the plane containing the face determined by  $\mathbf{v}$  and  $\mathbf{w}$ .

26. The formula for the volume of a parallelepiped is found in Example 4 should not depend on the choice of which one of the three vectors we call  $\mathbf{u}$ , which one we call  $\mathbf{b}$ , and which one we call  $\mathbf{c}$ . Use this result to explain why  $\mathbf{u} \cdot (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}) = \mathbf{b} \cdot (\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{c}) = \mathbf{c} \cdot (\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{b})$ .

27. Which of the following do not make sense?

- (a)  $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{u}$  (b)  $\mathbf{u} \times (\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{w})$   
 (c)  $(\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{b}) \times \mathbf{c}$  (d)  $\mathbf{u} \times (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c})$

- (e)  $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c}$  (f)  $\mathbf{u} \times (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c})$

- (g)  $(\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}) \times \mathbf{w}$  (h)  $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}$

28. Show that if  $\mathbf{a}$ ,  $\mathbf{b}$ ,  $\mathbf{c}$ , and  $\mathbf{d}$  all lie in the same plane, then  $(\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}) \times (\mathbf{c} \times \mathbf{d}) = \mathbf{0}$ .

29. The volume of a tetrahedron is known to be  $\frac{1}{6}$  times of base times height. From this show that the volume of the tetrahedron with edges  $\mathbf{u}$ ,  $\mathbf{b}$ , and  $\mathbf{c}$  is  $\frac{1}{6} \|\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{b}\| \|\mathbf{c}\|$ .

30. Find the volume of the tetrahedron with vertices  $(1, 2, 3)$ ,  $(4, -1, 2)$ ,  $(5, 6, 4)$ , and  $(1, 1, 2)$  (see Problem 29).

31. Prove Lagrange's Identity:

$$\|\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{u}\|^2 \|\mathbf{v}\|^2 - (\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v})^2$$

- without using Theorem A.

32. Prove the left distributive law:

$$\mathbf{u} \times (\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{w}$$

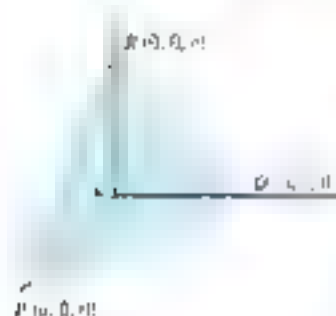
33. Use Problem 32 and the noncommutative law to prove the right distributive law:

34. Both  $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$  and  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = 0$ . What can you conclude about  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$ ?

35. Use Example 3 to develop a formula for the area of the triangle with vertices  $P(x, 0, 0)$ ,  $Q(0, b, 0)$ , and  $R(0, 0, c)$  shown in the left half of Figure 6.

36. Show that the triangle in the plane with vertices  $(x_1, y_1)$ ,  $(x_2, y_2)$ , and  $(x_3, y_3)$  has area equal to one half the absolute value of the determinant

$$\begin{vmatrix} x_1 & y_1 \\ x_2 & y_2 \\ x_3 & y_3 \end{vmatrix}$$



37. **A Pythagorean Theorem in Three-Space** As in Figure 5, let  $P$ ,  $Q$ ,  $R$ , and  $O$  be the vertices of a right-angled tetrahedron, and let  $A$ ,  $B$ ,  $C$ , and  $D$  be the areas of the opposite faces respectively. Show that  $A^2 + B^2 + C^2 = D^2$ .

38. Let vectors  $\mathbf{a}$ ,  $\mathbf{b}$ , and  $\mathbf{c}$  with common initial point determine a tetrahedron, and let  $\mathbf{m}$ ,  $\mathbf{n}$ ,  $\mathbf{p}$ , and  $\mathbf{q}$  be vectors perpendicular to the four faces, pointing outward, and having length equal to the area of the corresponding face. Show that  $\mathbf{m} + \mathbf{n} + \mathbf{p} + \mathbf{q} = \mathbf{0}$ .

39. Let  $\mathbf{a}$ ,  $\mathbf{b}$ , and  $\mathbf{c}$  denote the three edges of a triangle with lengths  $a$ ,  $b$ , and  $c$  respectively. Use Lagrange's identity together with  $|\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}|^2 = |\mathbf{b}|^2 \cdot |\mathbf{a}|^2 - (\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b})^2$  to prove Heron's Formula for the area of a triangle:

$$A = \frac{1}{4} \sqrt{(a+b+c)(a+b-c)(a-b+c)(-a+b+c)}$$

where  $s$  is the semiperimeter,  $s = (a + b + c)/2$ .

40. Use the method of Example 3 to show directly that if  $\mathbf{u} = u_1\mathbf{i} + u_2\mathbf{j} + u_3\mathbf{k}$  and  $\mathbf{v} = v_1\mathbf{i} + v_2\mathbf{j} + v_3\mathbf{k}$  then

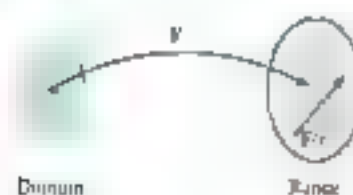
$$\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v} = (u_2v_3 - u_3v_2)\mathbf{i} + (u_3v_1 - u_1v_3)\mathbf{j} + (u_1v_2 - u_2v_1)\mathbf{k}$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ u_1 & u_2 & u_3 \\ v_1 & v_2 & v_3 \end{vmatrix} = (u_2v_3 - u_3v_2)\mathbf{i} + (u_3v_1 - u_1v_3)\mathbf{j} + (u_1v_2 - u_2v_1)\mathbf{k}$$

where  $\mathbf{i}$ ,  $\mathbf{j}$ , and  $\mathbf{k}$  are the unit vectors in the  $x$ ,  $y$ , and  $z$  directions.

## 11.5

### Vector-Valued Functions and Curvilinear Motion



Recall that a function  $f$  is a rule that associates with each member  $t$  of one set (the domain) a unique value  $f(t)$  from a second set (the range). If the domain is the interval  $[0, 2]$  and the range is the curve shown in Figure 7, then  $f$  is a function. So far, this is no different from what we have seen before. A vector-valued function is a function whose range is a set of vectors. A typical example is a function which associates with each real number  $t$  the vector  $f(t)$ .

Now we will study the first of many applications of vector-valued functions. A vector-valued function  $\mathbf{F}$  of a real variable  $t$  associates with each real number  $t$  a vector  $\mathbf{F}(t)$  that

$$\mathbf{F}(t) = f(t)\mathbf{i} + g(t)\mathbf{j} + h(t)\mathbf{k} = \begin{pmatrix} f(t) \\ g(t) \\ h(t) \end{pmatrix}, \text{ for } t \text{ in } I$$

where  $f$ ,  $g$ , and  $h$  are ordinary real-valued functions. A typical example is

$$\mathbf{F}(t) = t^2\mathbf{i} - t^3\mathbf{j} + 2t\mathbf{k} = \begin{pmatrix} t^2 \\ -t^3 \\ 2t \end{pmatrix}, \text{ for } t \text{ in } \mathbb{R}$$

Note the use of boldface letters to help us distinguish between vector functions and scalar functions.

**Calculus for Vector Functions** The most fundamental notion in calculus is that of limit. In terms of  $\mathbf{F}(t)$ , it means that the vector  $\mathbf{F}(t)$  tends toward the vector  $\mathbf{L}$  as  $t$  tends toward  $a$ . Alternatively, we can say that  $\mathbf{F}(t)$  approaches  $\mathbf{L}$  as  $t \rightarrow a$  (Figure 8). The precise definition is nearly identical with that given for real-valued functions in Section 1.2.

#### Definition Limit of a Vector-Valued Function

To say that  $\lim_{t \rightarrow a} \mathbf{F}(t) = \mathbf{L}$  means that for each given  $\epsilon > 0$  no matter how small, there is a corresponding  $\delta > 0$  such that  $\|\mathbf{F}(t) - \mathbf{L}\| < \epsilon$  whenever  $0 < |t - a| < \delta$ ; that is,

$$0 < |t - a| < \delta \Rightarrow \|\mathbf{F}(t) - \mathbf{L}\| < \epsilon$$

The definition of  $\lim_{t \rightarrow c} \mathbf{F}(t)$  is nearly the same as our definition of the limit from Chapter 2, since we interpret  $\|\mathbf{F}(t) - \mathbf{L}\|$  as the length of the vector  $\mathbf{F}(t) - \mathbf{L}$ . Our definition says that we can make  $\|\mathbf{F}(t) - \mathbf{L}\|$  as close to 0 as we like (within  $\epsilon > 0$ ), if the distance  $t$  is measured in three-dimensional space—as long as we make  $t$  close enough (within  $\delta > 0$  of  $c$ ). The next theorem, which is proved for two-dimensional vectors in Appendix A.7 (Theorem 2), gives the relation between the limit of  $\mathbf{F}(t)$  and the limits of the components of  $\mathbf{F}(t)$ .

### THEOREM A

Let  $\mathbf{F}(t) = f(t)\mathbf{i} + g(t)\mathbf{j} + h(t)\mathbf{k}$ . Then  $\mathbf{F}$  has a limit at  $c$  if and only if  $f$ ,  $g$ , and  $h$  have limits at  $c$ . In this case

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow c} \mathbf{F}(t) = \left( \lim_{t \rightarrow c} f(t) \right)\mathbf{i} + \left( \lim_{t \rightarrow c} g(t) \right)\mathbf{j} + \left( \lim_{t \rightarrow c} h(t) \right)\mathbf{k}.$$

As you would expect, all the statements about limits of functions and sequences apply to functions of vectors; that is,  $\mathbf{F}$  is continuous at  $c$  if  $\lim_{t \rightarrow c} \mathbf{F}(t) = \mathbf{F}(c)$  by Theorem A. As before,  $\mathbf{F}$  is continuous at  $c$  if and only if  $f$ ,  $g$ , and  $h$  are continuous at  $c$ . Here, finally, the derivative  $\mathbf{F}'(t)$  is defined just as for real-valued functions: by

$$\mathbf{F}'(t) = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\mathbf{F}(t + \Delta t) - \mathbf{F}(t)}{\Delta t}.$$

This can also be written in terms of components:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{F}'(t) &= \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(t + \Delta t)\mathbf{i} + g(t + \Delta t)\mathbf{j} + h(t + \Delta t)\mathbf{k} - [f(t)\mathbf{i} + g(t)\mathbf{j} + h(t)\mathbf{k}]}{\Delta t} \\ &= \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \left[ \frac{f(t + \Delta t) - f(t)}{\Delta t} \mathbf{i} + \frac{g(t + \Delta t) - g(t)}{\Delta t} \mathbf{j} + \frac{h(t + \Delta t) - h(t)}{\Delta t} \mathbf{k} \right] \\ &= f'(t)\mathbf{i} + g'(t)\mathbf{j} + h'(t)\mathbf{k}. \end{aligned}$$

In summary, if  $\mathbf{F}(t) = f(t)\mathbf{i} + g(t)\mathbf{j} + h(t)\mathbf{k}$ , then

$$\mathbf{F}'(t) = (f'(t)\mathbf{i} + g'(t)\mathbf{j} + h'(t)\mathbf{k}) = \langle f'(t), g'(t), h'(t) \rangle.$$

**EXAMPLE 1** If  $\mathbf{F}(t) = (t^2 + t)\mathbf{i} + t^2\mathbf{j} + 2t\mathbf{k}$ , find  $\mathbf{F}'(t)$ ,  $\mathbf{F}'(0)$  and the angle  $\theta$  between  $\mathbf{F}'(0)$  and  $\mathbf{F}''(0)$ .

**SOLUTION**  $\mathbf{F}'(t) = (2t + 1)\mathbf{i} + 2t\mathbf{j} + 2\mathbf{k}$  and  $\mathbf{F}''(t) = 2\mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j}$ . Thus,  $\mathbf{F}'(0) = \mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j}$ ,  $\mathbf{F}''(0) = 2\mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j}$ , and

$$\begin{aligned} \cos \theta &= \frac{\mathbf{F}'(0) \cdot \mathbf{F}''(0)}{\|\mathbf{F}'(0)\| \|\mathbf{F}''(0)\|} = \frac{2 + 4}{(\sqrt{1^2 + 2^2})(\sqrt{2^2 + 2^2})} = \frac{6}{\sqrt{5} \sqrt{8}} \\ &= 0.8216 \quad (\text{about } 34.35^\circ) \end{aligned}$$

Here are the rules for differentiation.



**Theorem 3** Differentiation Formulas

Let  $\mathbf{F}$  and  $\mathbf{G}$  be differentiable vector-valued functions,  $p$  a differentiable real-valued function, and  $c$  a scalar. Then

1.  $D[\mathbf{F}(t) + \mathbf{G}(t)] = \mathbf{F}'(t) + \mathbf{G}'(t)$
2.  $D[c\mathbf{F}(t)] = c\mathbf{F}'(t)$
3.  $D[p(t)\mathbf{F}(t)] = p(t)\mathbf{F}'(t) + p'(t)\mathbf{F}(t)$
4.  $D[\mathbf{F}(t) + \mathbf{G}(t)] = \mathbf{F}'(t) + \mathbf{G}'(t)$  and  $D[\mathbf{F}(t) - \mathbf{G}(t)] = \mathbf{F}'(t) - \mathbf{G}'(t)$
5.  $D[\mathbf{F}(t) \times \mathbf{G}(t)] = \mathbf{F}'(t) \times \mathbf{G}(t) + \mathbf{F}(t) \times \mathbf{G}'(t)$
6.  $D[\mathbf{F}(p(t))] = \mathbf{F}'(p(t))p'(t)$  (Chain Rule)

**Proof** We prove formula 1 and leave the other parts to the reader. Let

$$\mathbf{F}(t) = f_1(t)\mathbf{i} + f_2(t)\mathbf{j} + f_3(t)\mathbf{k}$$

$$\mathbf{G}(t) = g_1(t)\mathbf{i} + g_2(t)\mathbf{j} + g_3(t)\mathbf{k}$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} D[\mathbf{F}(t) + \mathbf{G}(t)] &= D[f_1(t)\mathbf{i} + f_2(t)\mathbf{j} + f_3(t)\mathbf{k} + g_1(t)\mathbf{i} + g_2(t)\mathbf{j} + g_3(t)\mathbf{k}] \\ &= [f_1(t)\mathbf{i}'(t) + g_1(t)\mathbf{i}'(t)] + [f_2(t)\mathbf{j}'(t) + g_2(t)\mathbf{j}'(t)] + [f_3(t)\mathbf{k}'(t) + g_3(t)\mathbf{k}'(t)] \\ &= [f_1(t)g_1'(t) + g_1(t)f_1'(t)]\mathbf{i} + [f_2(t)g_2'(t) + g_2(t)f_2'(t)]\mathbf{j} \\ &\quad + [f_3(t)g_3'(t) + g_3(t)f_3'(t)]\mathbf{k} \\ &= \mathbf{F}'(t) + \mathbf{G}'(t) \end{aligned}$$

Since derivatives of vector-valued functions are found by component-wise differentiation, it is easy to define the definite integral of a vector-valued function  $\mathbf{F}(t) = f_1(t)\mathbf{i} + f_2(t)\mathbf{j} + f_3(t)\mathbf{k}$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \int \mathbf{F}(t) dt &= \int [f_1(t)\mathbf{i} + f_2(t)\mathbf{j} + f_3(t)\mathbf{k}] dt = \int f_1(t) dt \mathbf{i} + \int f_2(t) dt \mathbf{j} + \int f_3(t) dt \mathbf{k} \\ \int_a^b \mathbf{F}(t) dt &= \left[ \int_a^b f_1(t) dt \right] \mathbf{i} + \left[ \int_a^b f_2(t) dt \right] \mathbf{j} + \left[ \int_a^b f_3(t) dt \right] \mathbf{k} \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 2** If  $\mathbf{F}(t) = t^3\mathbf{i} + e^t\mathbf{j} - 2t\mathbf{k}$ , find

(a)  $D[\mathbf{F}(t)]$  (b)  $\int_0^1 \mathbf{F}(t) dt$

**SOLUTION**

(a)  $D[\mathbf{F}(t)] = t^3(3\mathbf{i}) + e^t(\mathbf{j}) - 2t(2\mathbf{k})$   
 $= 3t^2\mathbf{i} + (e^t - 4t)\mathbf{j} - 4t\mathbf{k}$

(b)  $\int_0^1 \mathbf{F}(t) dt = \left[ \int_0^1 t^3 dt \right] \mathbf{i} + \left[ \int_0^1 e^t dt \right] \mathbf{j} + \left[ \int_0^1 -2t dt \right] \mathbf{k}$   
 $= \left[ \frac{1}{4}t^4 \right]_0^1 \mathbf{i} + [e^t]_0^1 \mathbf{j} - [t^2]_0^1 \mathbf{k} = \frac{1}{4}\mathbf{i} + (e - 1)\mathbf{j} - \mathbf{k}$

**DEFINITION** We are going to use the theory developed above for vector-valued functions to study the motion of a particle in 3-space. We suppose that an object moves in a trajectory in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  given by the parametric equations  $x = f(t)$ ,  $y = g(t)$ ,  $z = h(t)$ . Then the vector

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = f(t)\mathbf{i} + g(t)\mathbf{j} + h(t)\mathbf{k}$$





assumed to emanate from the origin, is called the **position vector** of the point. As  $t$  varies, the head of  $\mathbf{r}(t)$  traces the point of the moving point  $P$  (Figure 4). This is a curve, and we call the corresponding motion **curvilinear motion**.

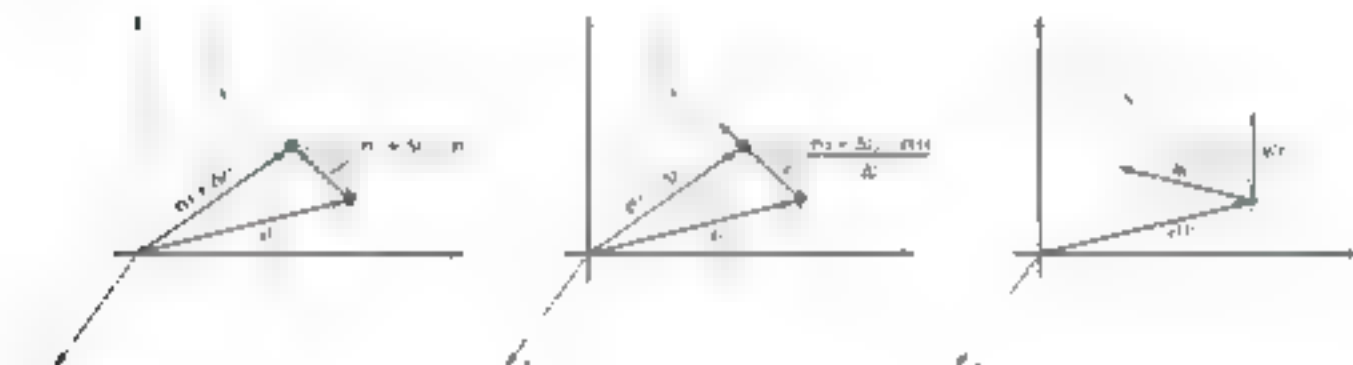
In analogy with linear (straight-line) motion, we define the **velocity**  $\mathbf{v}(t)$  and the **acceleration**  $\mathbf{a}(t)$  of the moving point  $P$  by

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{r}(t) &= x(t)\mathbf{i} + y(t)\mathbf{j} + z(t)\mathbf{k} \\ \mathbf{v}(t) &= \mathbf{r}'(t) = f'(t)\mathbf{i} + g'(t)\mathbf{j} + h'(t)\mathbf{k}.\end{aligned}$$

Since

$$\mathbf{v}(t) = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\mathbf{r}(t + \Delta t) - \mathbf{r}(t)}{\Delta t}$$

it is clear (from Figure 4) that  $\mathbf{v}(t)$  has the direction of the tangent line. The position vector  $\mathbf{r}(t)$  points to the **concave** side of the curve,  $\mathbf{v}(t)$  the side toward which the curve is bending.



If  $\mathbf{r}(t)$  is the position vector of an object that has a curvilinear motion that traces from time  $t = a$  to time  $t = b$  is

$$L = \int_a^b \sqrt{[x'(t)]^2 + [y'(t)]^2 + [z'(t)]^2} dt = \int_a^b \|\mathbf{r}'(t)\| dt.$$

The accumulated arc length from time  $t = a$  to an arbitrary time  $t$  is then

$$s = \int_a^t \sqrt{[x'(u)]^2 + [y'(u)]^2 + [z'(u)]^2} du = \int_a^t \|\mathbf{r}'(u)\| du.$$

By the First Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, the derivative of the accumulated arc length  $ds/dt$  is

$$\frac{ds}{dt} = \sqrt{[f'(t)]^2 + [g'(t)]^2 + [h'(t)]^2} = \|\mathbf{r}'(t)\|.$$

But the derivative is the rate of change of accumulated arc length, what we think of as speed. Thus, the **speed** of an object is

$$\text{speed} = \frac{ds}{dt} = \|\mathbf{r}'(t)\| = \|\mathbf{v}(t)\|.$$

Note that the speed of an object is a scalar quantity, whereas  $\mathbf{v}$  is velocity, a vector.

One of the most important applications of curvilinear motion, **uniform circular motion**, occurs in two dimensions. Suppose that an object moves in the  $xy$ -plane

counterclockwise around a circle with center  $(0, 0)$  and radius  $a$  at a constant angular speed  $\omega$  radians per second.<sup>3</sup> If its initial position is  $(a, 0)$ , then its position vector is

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = a \cos \omega t \mathbf{i} + a \sin \omega t \mathbf{j}$$

**EXAMPLE 1** Find the velocity, acceleration, and speed for dust on circular disk  $D$ .

**SOLUTION** We differentiate the position vector  $\mathbf{r}(t) = a \cos \omega t \mathbf{i} + a \sin \omega t \mathbf{j}$  to get  $\mathbf{v}(t)$  and  $\mathbf{a}(t)$ :

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{v}(t) &= \mathbf{r}'(t) = -a\omega \sin \omega t \mathbf{i} + a\omega \cos \omega t \mathbf{j} \\ \mathbf{a}(t) &= \mathbf{v}'(t) = -a\omega^2 \cos \omega t \mathbf{i} - a\omega^2 \sin \omega t \mathbf{j}\end{aligned}$$

The speed is

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{ds}{dt} &= |\mathbf{v}(t)| = \sqrt{(-a\omega \sin \omega t)^2 + (a\omega \cos \omega t)^2} \\ &= \sqrt{a^2 \omega^2 (\sin^2 \omega t + \cos^2 \omega t)} = a\omega\end{aligned}$$

Note that if we think of  $a$  as being based on the object's location in point  $P$ , then  $\mathbf{a}$  points directly toward the origin and is perpendicular to the path (Figure 1).



We saw a particular case of a helix in Example 6 of Section 11.1. Here we generalize that concept a bit and say that the path traced out by an object with its position vector

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = a \cos \omega t \mathbf{i} + a \sin \omega t \mathbf{j} + c \mathbf{k}$$

is a helix. If we look at just the  $x$  and  $y$  components of motion, we see uniform circular motion. If we look at just the  $z$  component of motion, we see uniform motion along the  $z$ -axis. When we put these two together, we see that the object spirals upward and around as it moves higher and higher (assuming  $c > 0$ ).

**EXAMPLE 2** Find the velocity, acceleration, and speed for motion along a helix.

**SOLUTION** The velocity and acceleration vectors are

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{v}(t) &= \mathbf{r}'(t) = -a\omega \sin \omega t \mathbf{i} + a\omega \cos \omega t \mathbf{j} + c \mathbf{k} \\ \mathbf{a}(t) &= \mathbf{v}'(t) = -a\omega^2 \cos \omega t \mathbf{i} - a\omega^2 \sin \omega t \mathbf{j}\end{aligned}$$

The speed is

$$\frac{ds}{dt} = |\mathbf{v}(t)| = \sqrt{(-a\omega \sin \omega t)^2 + (a\omega \cos \omega t)^2 + c^2} = \sqrt{a^2 \omega^2 + c^2}$$

**EXAMPLE 3** Parametric equations for an object moving in the plane are  $x = 3 \cos t$  and  $y = 2 \sin t$ , where  $t$  represents time and  $0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$ . Let  $P$  denote the object's position.

(a) Graph the path of  $P$ .

(b) Find expressions for the velocity  $\mathbf{v}$ , speed  $|\mathbf{v}|$ , and acceleration  $\mathbf{a}$ .

(c) Find the maximum and minimum values of the speed and when each is reached.

(d) Show that the acceleration vector based at  $P$  always points to the origin.

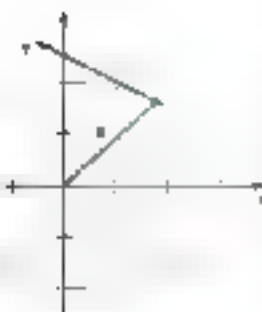


Figure 3

**SOLUTION**

(a) Since  $x^2/9 + y^2/4 = 1$ , the path is the ellipse shown in Figure 3.

(b) The position vector is

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = 3 \cos t \mathbf{i} + 2 \sin t \mathbf{j}$$

and so

$$\mathbf{v}(t) = -3 \sin t \mathbf{i} + 2 \cos t \mathbf{j}$$

$$|\mathbf{v}(t)| = \sqrt{9 \sin^2 t + 4 \cos^2 t} = \sqrt{5 \sin^2 t + 4}$$

$$\mathbf{a}(t) = -\cos t \mathbf{i} - \sin t \mathbf{j}$$

(c) Since the speed is given by  $\sqrt{5 \sin^2 t + 4}$ , the maximum speed is 3 occurs when  $\sin t = \pm 1$ , that is, when  $t = \pi/2$  or  $3\pi/2$ . This corresponds to the points  $(0, \pm 2)$  on the ellipse. Similarly, the minimum speed of 2 occurs when  $\sin t = 0$ , which corresponds to the points  $(\pm 2, 0)$ .

(d) Note that  $\mathbf{a}(t) = -\mathbf{r}(t)$ . Thus, if we draw  $\mathbf{a}(t)$  at  $P$  (the vector  $\mathbf{w}$  in the figure), it will always point to the origin. We conclude that  $|\mathbf{a}|$  is largest if  $|\mathbf{r}|$  is smallest, at  $(0, \pm 2)$ . ■

**EXAMPLE 1** A projectile is shot from the origin at an angle  $\theta$  from the horizontal axis with an initial speed of  $v_0$  m/sec. Assuming the force of the acceleration is the acceleration due to gravity, find the expressions for the velocity  $\mathbf{v}$  and position  $\mathbf{r}$  and show that the path is a parabola.

**SOLUTION** The acceleration due to gravity is  $\mathbf{a}(t) = -g\mathbf{j}$  m/sec<sup>2</sup>. The initial conditions are  $\mathbf{r}(0) = \mathbf{0}$  and  $\mathbf{v}(0) = v_0 \cos \theta \mathbf{i} + v_0 \sin \theta \mathbf{j}$ . Starting with  $\mathbf{a}(t) = -g\mathbf{j}$ , we integrate twice:

$$\mathbf{v} = \int \mathbf{a}(t) dt = \left( v_0 \cos \theta \mathbf{i} + (v_0 \sin \theta - \frac{1}{2}gt^2) \mathbf{j} \right) + \mathbf{C}_1$$

The condition  $\mathbf{v}(0) = v_0 \cos \theta \mathbf{i} + v_0 \sin \theta \mathbf{j}$  allows us to evaluate  $\mathbf{C}_1$  and gives  $\mathbf{C}_1 = v_0 \sin \theta \mathbf{j} = v_0 \sin \theta \mathbf{j}$ . Thus,

$$\mathbf{v}(t) = (v_0 \cos \theta) \mathbf{i} + (v_0 \sin \theta - \frac{1}{2}gt^2) \mathbf{j}$$

and

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = \int \mathbf{v}(t) dt = (v_0 t \cos \theta) \mathbf{i} + (v_0 t \sin \theta - \frac{1}{6}gt^3) \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{C}_2$$

The condition  $\mathbf{r}(0) = \mathbf{0}$  implies that  $\mathbf{C}_2 = \mathbf{0}$ , so

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = (v_0 t \cos \theta) \mathbf{i} + (v_0 t \sin \theta - \frac{1}{6}gt^3) \mathbf{j}$$

To find the equation of the path, we eliminate the parameter  $t$  in the equations

$$x = (v_0 \cos \theta)t, \quad y = (v_0 \sin \theta)t - \frac{1}{6}gt^3$$

Specifically, we solve the first equation for  $t$  and substitute in the second, giving

$$y = (\tan \theta)x - \left( \frac{g}{6v_0^2 \cos^2 \theta} \right) x^2$$

This is the equation of a parabola. ■

**EXAMPLE 2** A baseball is thrown with an initial velocity of 75 miles per hour (110 feet per sec) at a 1-degree angle above the horizontal from five feet above the  $x$ -axis from an initial height of 8 feet. The initial position is  $\mathbf{r}(0) = 8\mathbf{k}$ . In addition, the acceleration due to gravity causes an acceleration of  $-32\mathbf{k}$  ft/sec<sup>2</sup> and the spin on the ball causes an acceleration of  $32\mathbf{i}$  ft/sec<sup>2</sup> per second in the positive  $x$ -direction. What is the position of the ball when its  $x$ -component is 60.5 feet?

**SOLUTION** The initial position vector is  $\mathbf{r}(0) = 8\mathbf{k}$  and the initial velocity vector is  $\mathbf{v}(0) = 110 \cos 1^\circ \mathbf{i} + 110 \sin 1^\circ \mathbf{j}$ . The acceleration vector is  $\mathbf{a}(t) = 32\mathbf{i} - 32\mathbf{k}$ . Proceeding as in the previous example, we have

$$\mathbf{v} = \int \mathbf{a}(t) dt = \left( 32t \mathbf{i} - 32t \mathbf{k} \right) + \mathbf{C}_1$$

Since  $110 \cos 1^\circ \mathbf{i} + 110 \sin 1^\circ \mathbf{j} = \mathbf{v}(0) = \mathbf{C}_1$ , we have

$$\mathbf{v}(t) = 110 \cos 1^\circ \mathbf{i} + 2t \mathbf{j} + (110 \sin 1^\circ - 32t) \mathbf{k}$$

Integrating the velocity vector gives the position:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{r}(t) &= \int \mathbf{v}(t) dt = \int (110 \cos t \mathbf{i} - 32t \mathbf{j} + 2500 \mathbf{k}) dt \\ &= 110(\cos t) \mathbf{i} + t^2 \mathbf{j} + 2500t \mathbf{k} + \mathbf{C}. \end{aligned}$$

The initial position  $\mathbf{r}(0) = 10\mathbf{k}$  implies that  $\mathbf{C} = 10\mathbf{k}$ . Thus

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = 110(\cos t) \mathbf{i} + t^2 \mathbf{j} + (2500t + 10) \mathbf{k}.$$

Next, we must find the value of  $t$  for which the  $x$ -component is 60.5 ft. Setting  $110(\cos t) = 60.5$  yields  $t = 40.5/(110 \cos t) \approx 0.55008$  second. (The position of the ball at the time  $t$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{r}(0.55008) &= 110(\cos 1^\circ)0.55008 \mathbf{i} + (0.55008)^2 \mathbf{j} \\ &\quad + 7\mathbf{k} + 110(\sin 1^\circ)0.55008 \mathbf{k} = 16(0.55008) \mathbf{i} \\ &\approx 60.5\mathbf{i} + 0.303\mathbf{j} + 7.21\mathbf{k} \end{aligned}$$

If this pitch were thrown by a major league pitcher, it would require about 10.5 seconds for the ball to reach the catcher. The ball would be just above the water at the end of the field and about 4 inches (10.33 feet) from the center of home plate.

1. **Kepler's Laws of Planetary Motion** In the early 17th century, Johannes Kepler, a German astronomer, formulated three laws of planetary motion. The first two laws are: 1. In the two-body problem, the orbit of the bodies is an ellipse with the sun at one focus. 2. The line from the sun to the planet sweeps out equal areas in equal times.

3. The square of a planet's orbital period is proportional to the cube of its mean distance from the sun.

Only later was it discovered that Kepler's Laws of Planetary Motion are a consequence of Newton's Laws of Motion. Kepler's First Law can be stated as

$$r = \frac{ep}{1 - e \cos \theta}$$

which is the polar equation of an ellipse. Here,  $\theta$  is the polar coordinate corresponding to the angle  $\theta$  and  $e$  (where  $0 < e < 1$ ) is the eccentricity. Figure 48, which guides the reader through the derivation of Kepler's First Law, shows that

$$e = \frac{r - r_0}{r_0} = 1 - \frac{r_0}{r_0 + d} = \frac{d}{r_0 + d}$$

where  $M$  is the sun's mass,  $d$  is the planet's semi-major axis,  $r_0$  is the distance from the sun to the focus of the ellipse, and  $d$  is the distance from the sun to the planet. The area swept out by the segment joining the sun and the planet is a constant in Kepler's Second Law. We now prove Kepler's First Law.

### EXAMPLE 3 Derive Kepler's Second Law

**SOLUTION** Let  $\mathbf{r}(t)$  denote the position of a planet at time  $t$  and let  $\mathbf{r}(t + \Delta t)$  be its position  $\Delta t$  time units later (Figure 49). The area  $\Delta A$  swept out in time  $\Delta t$  is approximately that of the sector of the circle formed by  $\mathbf{r}(t)$  and  $\Delta \mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}(t + \Delta t) - \mathbf{r}(t)$ . Using the fact from the previous section that the area of a triangle formed by two vectors is half the magnitude of the cross product of the vectors, we have

$$\Delta A \approx \frac{1}{2} |\mathbf{r}(t) \times \Delta \mathbf{r}|$$

Thus

$$\frac{\Delta A}{\Delta t} \approx \frac{1}{2} \left| \mathbf{r}(t) \times \frac{\Delta \mathbf{r}}{\Delta t} \right|$$

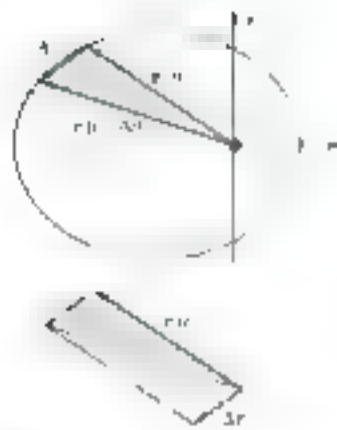


FIGURE 48

so, letting  $\Delta t \rightarrow 0$ , we get

$$\frac{dA}{dt} = \frac{1}{2} |\mathbf{r}(t)|^2 \dot{\theta}(t)$$

The only force acting on the planet is the gravitational attraction of the sun, which acts along the line from the sun to the planet, and thus is parallel to  $\Delta \mathbf{r}(t)$  or  $\mathbf{r}(t)$ , where  $m$  is the planet's mass. Newton's Second Law ( $\mathbf{F} = m\mathbf{a}$ ) implies

$$\frac{GMm}{|\mathbf{r}(t)|^2} \mathbf{r}(t) = m\mathbf{a}(t) = m\mathbf{r}''(t)$$

Dividing both sides by  $m$  gives  $\mathbf{r}''(t) = -(GM/|\mathbf{r}(t)|^2)\mathbf{r}(t)$ .

In light of this, consider the vector  $\mathbf{r}(t) \times \mathbf{r}'(t)$  in the above expression for  $dA/dt$ . Differentiating the vector using Property 5 of Theorem 8 gives

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dt}(\mathbf{r}(t) \times \mathbf{r}'(t)) &= \mathbf{r}'(t) \times \mathbf{r}'(t) + \mathbf{r}(t) \times \mathbf{r}''(t) \\ &= \mathbf{r}(t) \times \left( -\frac{GM}{|\mathbf{r}(t)|^3} \mathbf{r}(t) \right) + \mathbf{0} \\ &= \left( -\frac{GM}{|\mathbf{r}(t)|^3} \right) \mathbf{r}(t) \times \mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{0} \end{aligned}$$

This tells us that the vector  $\mathbf{r}(t) \times \mathbf{r}'(t)$  is a constant and, as a result, its magnitude  $|\mathbf{r}(t) \times \mathbf{r}'(t)|$  is constant. Thus  $dA/dt$  is a constant.  $\blacksquare$

### EXAMPLE 2 Derive Kepler's Third Law

**SOLUTION** Place the sun at the origin and let a planet in the elliptical path pass through point  $A$  in the orbit (see Figure 10). Let  $t$  denote the point in time when the planet is at  $A$  and let  $B$  denote the point in the orbit where the planet is at the perihelion (the major axis at the origin as shown in Figure 10). Let  $a$  and  $b$  denote half the lengths of the major and minor axes of the ellipse, respectively, so that the distance from the center of the ellipse to a focus is  $c$ . We assume the ellipse is in the  $xy$ -plane with the center of the ellipse at the origin and the major axis is the  $x$ -axis. Thus  $\mathbf{F}(t) = (F \cos \theta, F \sin \theta)$  and since  $\mathbf{F}(t) = (F \cos \theta, F \sin \theta)$  we conclude that  $F^2 = (F \cos \theta)^2 + (F \sin \theta)^2$ . An application of the sine property to point  $B$  gives  $F^2 B = BF^2 = a^2$ .

Using the Pythagorean Theorem we conclude  $a^2 = b^2 + c^2$  and  $F^2 B = a^2 = b^2 + c^2$  (see Figure 11). From above  $F^2 B = 2c - BF = 2a - b$ . Putting these results together gives

$$b^2 = (2c)^2 - (F^2 B)^2 = (2a - b)^2 = 4a^2 - 4ab + b^2$$

so we conclude that  $4c^2 = 4a^2 - 4ab$  hence  $c^2 = a^2 - ab$ . Since  $a^2 = b^2 + c^2$  we conclude that

$$a^2 = b^2 + c^2 = a^2 - ab$$

Thus  $b^2 = ab$ .

The point  $B$  also occurs when the angle  $\theta$  is  $\pi/2$ . Using Kepler's First Law,

$$r = r(\theta) = \frac{a(1 - e^2)}{1 - e \cos \theta} = \frac{GM}{\dot{\theta}^2}$$

( $\theta = \pi/2$ ) denote the planet's position. Then we will show the area swept out is swept out at a constant rate. The average rate at which area is swept out is thus  $a^2/b$ , but since  $dA/dt$  is constant (Kepler's Second Law),  $dA/dt = a^2/b$ . Thus

$$T = \frac{a^2 b}{dA/dt}$$

Now it all comes together. Using the relationships  $c^2 = a^2 - b^2$  and  $b^2 = a^2 - ab$  from above, we have

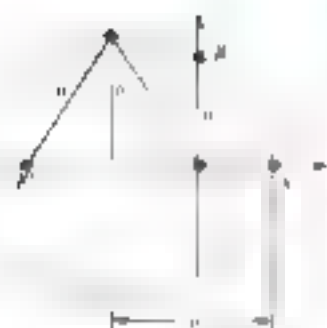


Figure 10

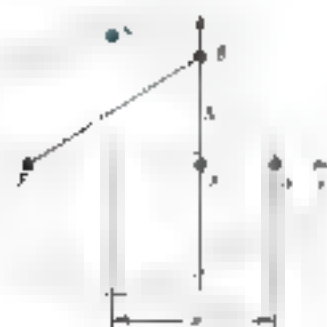


Figure 11



29.  $\mathbf{r}(t) = t \sin \pi t \mathbf{i} + t \cos \pi t \mathbf{j} + e^{-t} \mathbf{k}, 0 \leq t \leq \pi$

30.  $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\ln t) \mathbf{i} + (\ln t) \mathbf{j} + \ln t \mathbf{k}, t \geq 1$

31. Show that if the speed of a moving particle is constant its acceleration vector is always perpendicular to its velocity vector.

32. Prove that  $\|\mathbf{r}'(t)\|$  is constant if and only if  $\mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{c} + \mathbf{v}t$ .

In Problems 33–38, find the length of the curve with the given vector equation.

33.  $\mathbf{r}(t) = t \mathbf{i} + 2t \sin t \mathbf{j} + 2t \cos t \mathbf{k}, 0 \leq t \leq \pi$

34.  $\mathbf{r}(t) = \cos t \mathbf{i} + \sin t \mathbf{j} + \sqrt{1 - \cos t} \mathbf{k}, 0 \leq t \leq \pi$

35.  $\mathbf{r}(t) = \sqrt{t} \mathbf{i} + \frac{t^2}{2} \mathbf{j} + t \ln t \mathbf{k}, 1 \leq t \leq e$

36.  $\mathbf{r}(t) = e^{-t} \mathbf{i} + t^2 \mathbf{j} + \ln t \mathbf{k}, t \geq 1$

37.  $\mathbf{r}(t) = t^2 \mathbf{i} + 2t \mathbf{j} + \ln t \mathbf{k}, 1 \leq t \leq e$

38.  $\mathbf{r}(t) = \sqrt{2t} \mathbf{i} + \sqrt{2t} \mathbf{j} + \ln t \mathbf{k}, t \geq 1$

In Problems 39 and 40,  $\mathbf{F}(t) = f(t)\mathbf{i} + g(t)\mathbf{j}$ . Find  $\mathbf{F}(t)$  in terms of  $t$ .

39.  $\mathbf{F}(t) = \cos t \mathbf{i} + t^2 \mathbf{j}$  and  $\mathbf{v}(t) = 3t \mathbf{i} - 5t \mathbf{j}$

40.  $\mathbf{F}(t) = u^2 \mathbf{i} + \sin^2 u \mathbf{j}$  and  $\mathbf{u}(t) = \tan t$

Evaluate the integrals in Problems 41 and 42.

41.  $\int_0^1 (t^2 + e^{-t}) dt$

42.  $\int_0^1 [(1+t)^{1/2} + (1-t)^{1/2}] dt$

43. A point moves around the circle  $x^2 + y^2 = 25$  at constant angular speed of 6 radians per second starting at  $(5, 0)$ . Find expressions for  $\mathbf{r}(t)$ ,  $\mathbf{v}(t)$ ,  $\mathbf{a}(t)$ , and  $\|\mathbf{a}(t)\|$  (see Exercise 3).

44. Consider the motion of a particle along a helix given by  $\mathbf{r}(t) = 4 \ln t \mathbf{i} + \cos t \mathbf{j} + [t^2 + 3t + 2] \mathbf{k}$ , where the  $k$  component measures the height in meters above the ground and  $t \geq 0$ .

- Does the particle ever move downward?
- Does the particle ever stop moving?
- At what times does it reach a position 12 meters above the ground?
- What is the velocity of the particle when it is 12 meters above the ground?

**EXERCISES 45–48** In many places in the solar system, a moon orbits a planet which in turn orbits the sun. In some cases the orbits are very close to circular. We will assume that these orbits are circular with the sun at the center of the planet's orbit and the planet at the center of the moon's orbit. We will further assume that all motion is in a single  $xy$ -plane. Suppose that at the time the planet orbits the sun once, the moon orbits the planet ten times.

- If the radius of the moon's orbit is  $R_m$  and the radius of the planet's orbit about the sun is  $R_p$ , show that the motion of the moon with respect to the sun at the origin could be given by

$$\mathbf{a} = R_p \cos t + R_m \cos 10t \mathbf{i}, \quad \mathbf{b} = R_p \sin t + R_m \sin 10t \mathbf{j}$$

**EXERCISES 49–52** (a) For  $R_p = 1$  and  $R_m = 0$ , plot the path traced by the moon as the planet makes one revolution around the sun.

- Find one set of values for  $R_m$ ,  $R_p$ , and  $t$  so that at time  $t$  the moon is motionless with respect to the sun.

46. Assuming that the orbits of the earth planet the sun and the moon about the earth lie in the same plane and are circular, we can represent the motion of the moon by

$$\mathbf{r}_1 = 193 \cos 7.55t \mathbf{i} + 193 \sin 7.55t \mathbf{j}$$

$$\mathbf{r}_2 = 0.27 \cos 13.17t \mathbf{i} + 0.27 \sin 13.17t \mathbf{j}$$

where  $\mathbf{r}_1$  is measured in millions of miles.

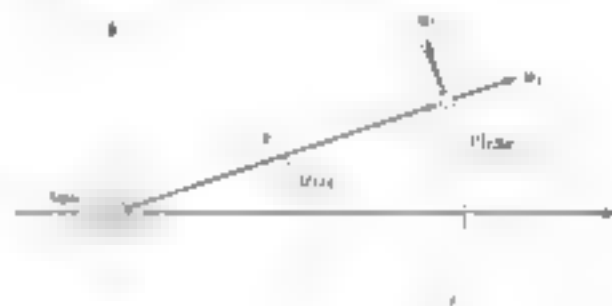
- What are the proper units for  $t$ ?

**EXERCISES 53–56** (a) Plot the path traced by the moon as the earth makes one revolution around the sun.

- What is the period of each of the two motions?
- What is the maximum distance that the moon is from the sun?
- What is the minimum distance that the moon is from the sun?
- Is there ever a time that the moon is stationary with respect to the sun?
- What are the velocity, speed, and acceleration of the moon when  $t = \pi$ ?

47. Describe in general terms the following (general type) motion.

- $\mathbf{r}(t) = \cos t \mathbf{i} + \cos t \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$
- $\mathbf{r}(t) = \sin t^2 \mathbf{i} + \cos t^2 \mathbf{j} + t \mathbf{k}$
- $\mathbf{r}(t) = \sin(t^2 + \pi) \mathbf{i} + t^2 \mathbf{j} + \sin(t^2 - \pi) \mathbf{k}$
- $\mathbf{r}(t) = \sin t \mathbf{i} + \cos t \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$
- $\mathbf{r}(t) = t^2 \sin(\ln t) \mathbf{i} + \ln t \mathbf{j} + t^2 \cos(\ln t) \mathbf{k}, t \geq 1$



**EXERCISES 49–52** In this exercise you will derive Kepler's First Law, that planets travel in elliptical orbits. We begin with the intuition. Place the sun at the origin  $(0, 0)$  and the planet at  $(R_p \cos t, R_p \sin t)$  in the  $xy$ -plane. The planet moves counterclockwise about the sun in the positive  $x$ -axis and occurs at time  $t = 0$ .  $R_p$  is the radius of the planet's orbit and let  $\mathbf{r}(t) = [r(t)]$  denote the distance from the sun at time  $t$ . Also let  $\theta(t)$  denote the angle that the vector  $\mathbf{r}(t)$  makes with the positive  $x$ -axis at time  $t$ . Thus  $r(t), \theta(t)$  is the polar coordinate representation of the planet's position. Let  $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{r} / r$  and  $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{r}' / r$  and  $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{r}'' / r$ . Vectors  $\mathbf{u}_1$  and  $\mathbf{u}_2$  are orthogonal unit vectors pointing in the directions of increasing  $r$  and increasing  $\theta$ , respectively. Figure 12 summarizes this notation. We will often omit the argument  $t$  but keep in mind that  $r, \theta$ , and  $\mathbf{u}$  are all functions of  $t$ . A prime is used to denote differentiation with respect to  $t$ .

- Show that  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = 0$  and  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{w} = -\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v}$ .
- Show that the velocity and acceleration vectors satisfy

$$\mathbf{v} = R_p' \mathbf{u} + R_p \theta' \mathbf{u}_1$$

$$\mathbf{a} = R_p'' \mathbf{u} + 2R_p' \theta' \mathbf{u}_1 + R_p \theta'' \mathbf{u}_2 - R_p \theta'^2 \mathbf{u}$$

- Use the fact that the only force acting on the planet is the gravity of the sun to express  $\mathbf{a}$  as a multiple of  $\mathbf{u}$ . Then explain how we can conclude that

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{1}{r} \right) = -\frac{1}{r^2} \frac{dr}{dt}$$

- (d) Consider a  $\mathbf{r}(t)$  which we showed in Example 4 to be a constant vector, say  $\mathbf{D}$ . Use the result from (b) to show that  $\mathbf{D} = r(t)\mathbf{k}$ .
- (e) Substitute  $t = 0$  to get  $\mathbf{D} = r_0\mathbf{k}$ , where  $r_0 = r(0)$  and  $r_0 = |\mathbf{r}(0)|$  is a true but  $r = r(t)$  is not.
- (f) Make the substitution  $u = \frac{1}{r}$  and use the result from (e) to obtain the first-order nonlinear differential equation for  $u$ .

$$u \frac{du}{dt} = -\frac{1}{r^2} \frac{dr}{dt} = -\frac{1}{r^2} \frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{1}{u} \right)$$

- (g) Integrate with respect to  $t$  in both sides of the above equation and use the given initial condition to obtain

$$u^2 = 2GM \left( \frac{1}{r} - \frac{1}{r_0} \right) + u_0^2 \left( 1 - \frac{r_0}{r} \right)$$

- h) Substitute  $u = \frac{1}{r}$  into the above equation to obtain

$$\left( \frac{1}{r} \right)^2 = 2GM \left( \frac{1}{r} - \frac{1}{r_0} \right) + u_0^2 \left( 1 - \frac{r_0}{r} \right)$$

- (i) Show that

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{1}{r} \right) = -\frac{1}{r^2} \frac{dr}{dt} = -\frac{1}{r^2} \frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{1}{u} \right)$$

- (j) From part (i) we can immediately conclude that

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{1}{r} \right) = -\frac{1}{r^2} \frac{dr}{dt} = -\frac{1}{r^2} \frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{1}{u} \right)$$

Explain why the minus sign in the product sign in this case.

- (k) Separate variables and integrate to obtain

$$\cos^{-1} \left( \frac{r}{r_0} \right) = \frac{r_0}{2GM} \left( \frac{1}{r} - \frac{1}{r_0} \right)$$

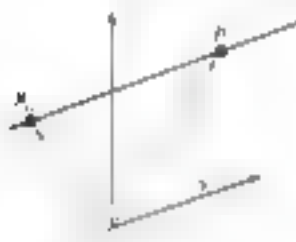
- (l) Finally, obtain  $r$  as a function of  $\theta$ .

$$r_0(1 + e \cos \theta)$$

$$e = \frac{GM}{r_0} \left( 1 - \frac{r_0}{r} \right)$$

**Answers to Conceptual Questions** 1. A vector-valued function of  $t$  is a function  $\mathbf{r}(t) = x(t)\mathbf{i} + y(t)\mathbf{j} + z(t)\mathbf{k}$  where  $x(t)$ ,  $y(t)$ , and  $z(t)$  are scalar-valued functions of  $t$ . 2. A position vector  $\mathbf{r}$  is a vector that points from the origin to a point  $P$  in space. 3. A direction vector  $\mathbf{d}$  is a vector that points in the same direction as a line or curve.

## 11.6 Lines and Tangent Lines in Three-Space



The slopes of all curves in space are the same. A line  $L$  in space is determined by a point  $P$  and a direction vector  $\mathbf{d}$ . If  $\mathbf{r}_0$  is a position vector for  $P$  and  $\mathbf{d}$  is a direction vector for  $L$ , then  $L$  is the set of all points  $P$  such that  $\mathbf{r}_0 + t\mathbf{d}$  is parallel to  $L$ , that is, that satisfy

$$\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}_0 = t\mathbf{d}$$

for some real number  $t$  (Figure 2). If  $\mathbf{r} = \overrightarrow{OP}$  and  $\mathbf{r}_0 = \overrightarrow{OP_0}$  are the position vectors of  $P$  and  $P_0$ , respectively, then  $\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}_0 = t\mathbf{d}$ , and the equation of the line can thus be written

$$\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}_0 + t\mathbf{d}$$

If we write  $\mathbf{r} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$  and  $\mathbf{r}_0 = x_0\mathbf{i} + y_0\mathbf{j} + z_0\mathbf{k}$ , and equate components in the last equation above, we obtain

$$x = x_0 + td, \quad y = y_0 + td, \quad z = z_0 + td$$

These are **parametric equations** of the line through  $P_0$  and parallel to  $\mathbf{d} = \langle a, b, c \rangle$ . The numbers  $a$ ,  $b$ , and  $c$  are called **direction numbers** of the line. They are the unique (up to a nonzero constant multiplier)  $a$ ,  $b$ , and  $c$  such that  $\langle a, b, c \rangle$  is a direction vector.

**EXAMPLE 1** Find parametric equations for the line through  $(3, -2, 4)$  and  $(5, 6, -2)$  (see Figure 2).

**SOLUTION** A vector parallel to the given line is

$$\mathbf{d} = \langle 5 - 3, 6 - (-2), -2 - 4 \rangle = \langle 2, 8, -6 \rangle$$

If we choose  $(x_0, y_0, z_0)$  as  $(3, -2, 4)$ , we obtain the parametric equations

$$x = 3 + 2t, \quad y = -2 + 8t, \quad z = 4 - 6t$$

Note that  $t = 0$  determines the point  $(3, -2, 4)$ , whereas  $t = 1$  gives  $(5, 6, -2)$ . In fact,  $t = 1$  corresponds to the segment joining the two points. ■

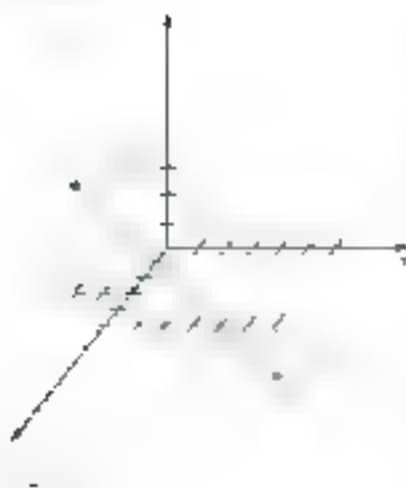






FIGURE 1

If we solve each of the parametric equations for  $x$  (assuming that  $a$ ,  $b$ , and  $c$  are all different from zero) and equate the results, we obtain the symmetric equations for the line through  $(x_0, y_0, z_0)$  with direction numbers  $a$ ,  $b$ ,  $c$ , that is,

$$\frac{x - x_0}{a} = \frac{y - y_0}{b} = \frac{z - z_0}{c}.$$

This is the intersection of the two equations

$$\frac{x - x_0}{a} = \frac{y - y_0}{b} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{y - y_0}{b} = \frac{z - z_0}{c},$$

both of which are the equations of planes (Figure 3) and, of course, the intersection of two planes is a line.

**EXAMPLE 2** Find the symmetric equations of the line that is parallel to the vector  $\langle 4, -3, 2 \rangle$  and goes through  $(2, 3, -1)$ .

**SOLUTION**

$$\frac{x - 2}{4} = \frac{y - 3}{-3} = \frac{z + 1}{2}.$$

**EXAMPLE 3** Find the symmetric equations of the line of intersection of the planes

$$x - 2y + 3z = 14 \quad \text{and} \quad 4x - 5y + 4z = 38.$$

**SOLUTION** We begin by finding a point on the line. Any vector  $\mathbf{u}$  parallel to the line must be perpendicular to the plane  $x - 2y + 3z = 14$  and to the plane  $4x - 5y + 4z = 38$ . The former is obtained by setting  $x = 4$  and solving the resulting equations  $-2y + 3z = -10$  and  $4z = 30$  for  $y$  and  $z$ . This yields the point  $(4, 4, 2)$ . A similar procedure with  $x = 0$  gives the point  $(3, 0, 4)$ . Consequently, a vector parallel to the required line is

$$\mathbf{u} = (4, 4, 2) - (3, 0, 4) = \langle 1, 4, -2 \rangle.$$

Using  $(3, 0, 4)$  for  $(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ , we get

$$\frac{x - 3}{1} = \frac{y - 0}{4} = \frac{z - 4}{-2}.$$

As a check, our solution is based on the fact that the line of intersection of two planes is perpendicular to both of their normals. The vector  $\mathbf{u} = \langle 1, 4, -2 \rangle$  is normal to the first plane  $x - 2y + 3z = 14$  and normal to the second. Since

$$\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ 1 & 4 & -2 \\ 4 & 5 & 4 \end{vmatrix} = 24\mathbf{i} - 28\mathbf{j} - 4\mathbf{k}$$

the vector  $\mathbf{u} = \langle 1, 4, -2 \rangle$  is parallel to the required line, which implies that  $\mathbf{u} = \langle 1, 4, -2 \rangle$  has the required properties. Next, we write parametric equations for the line (for example,  $t = 4$ ) and proceed as in the earlier solution.

**EXAMPLE 4** Find parametric equations of the line through  $(2, 4, 1)$  that is perpendicular to both the  $x$ -axis and the line

$$\frac{x - 1}{2} = \frac{y - 5}{1} = \frac{z}{5}.$$

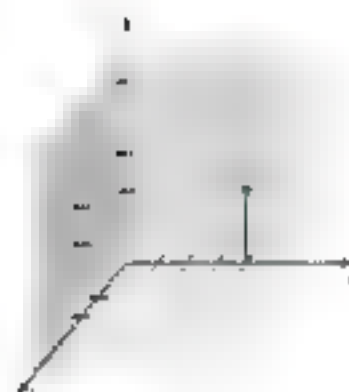


FIGURE 3

**SOLUTION** The  $x$ -axis and the given line have directions  $\mathbf{u} = \langle 0, 0, 1 \rangle$  and  $\mathbf{v} = \langle 2, 1, 5 \rangle$ , respectively. A vector perpendicular to both  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  is

$$\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & 5 \end{vmatrix} = 0\mathbf{i} - 5\mathbf{j} + 2\mathbf{k}$$

The required line is parallel to  $\langle -5, 0, 2 \rangle$  and passes through  $(-5, 0, 0)$ . Since the direction number  $-5 \neq 0$ , the line does not have symmetric equations. Its parametric equations are

$$x = -5 + 5t, \quad y = 0, \quad z = 2t$$

### Tangent Line to a Curve

$$\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}(t) = f(t)\mathbf{i} + g(t)\mathbf{j} + h(t)\mathbf{k} = \langle f(t), g(t), h(t) \rangle$$

be the position vector determining a curve in three space. Then the tangent line to the curve has direction vector

$$\mathbf{r}'(t) = f'(t)\mathbf{i} + g'(t)\mathbf{j} + h'(t)\mathbf{k} = \langle f'(t), g'(t), h'(t) \rangle$$

**EXAMPLE 1** Find the parametric equations and symmetric equations for the tangent line to the curve determined by

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = t\mathbf{i} + \frac{1}{2}t^2\mathbf{j} + \frac{1}{3}t^3\mathbf{k}$$

at  $P(2, 2, 8)$ .

**SOLUTION**

$$\mathbf{r}'(t) = \langle 1, t, t^2 \rangle$$

so that

$$\mathbf{r}'(2) = \langle 1, 2, 4 \rangle$$

is the direction vector of the tangent line at  $P(2, 2, 8)$ . The symmetric equations are

$$\frac{x - 2}{1} = \frac{y - 2}{2} = \frac{z - 8}{4}$$

The parametric equations are

$$x = 2 + t, \quad y = 2 + 2t, \quad z = 8 + 4t$$

There is exactly one plane perpendicular to a straight line in three space. If we have a direction vector for the tangent line to a curve at a point  $P$ , then it is a normal vector to the plane. Figure 11.64, together with the given information, is enough to obtain the equation of the desired plane.

**EXAMPLE 2** Find the equation of the plane perpendicular to the curve  $\mathbf{r}(t) = 2 \cos \pi t \mathbf{i} + \sin \pi t \mathbf{j} - t^2 \mathbf{k}$  at  $P(2, 0, 8)$ .

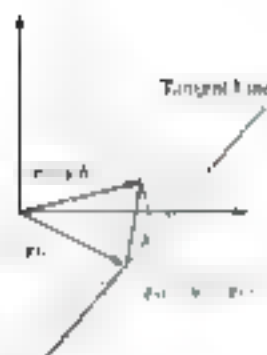
**SOLUTION** The first issue to address is the value of  $t$  that yields the given point  $P$ . Equating the components gives  $-t^2 = 8$ , leading to  $t = 2$ . A quick check verifies that  $t = 2$  also yields the  $x$ - and  $y$ -components of  $P$ . Since  $\mathbf{r}'(t) = \langle -2\pi \sin \pi t, \pi \cos \pi t, -2t \rangle = \langle 0, \pi, -4 \rangle$  at  $t = 2$ , we see that the direction vector for the tangent line at  $P$ , which is also a normal vector for the desired plane, is  $\mathbf{r}'(2) = \pi \mathbf{j} - 4\mathbf{k} = \langle 0, \pi, -4 \rangle$ . The equation of the plane is therefore

$$0(x - 2) + \pi(y - 0) - 4(z - 8) = 0$$

To determine  $D$ , we substitute  $x = 2$ ,  $y = 0$ , and  $z = 8$ :

$$D = 0(2) + \pi(0) - 4(8) = -32$$

The equation of the desired plane is  $\pi y - 4z = -32$ .



## Concepts Review

1. The parametric equations for a line through  $(1, -3, 7)$  parallel to the vector  $\langle 4, -2, -1 \rangle$  are  $x = \quad$ ,  $y = \quad$ ,  $z = \quad$ .
2. The symmetric equations for the line of Question 1 are  $\frac{x-1}{4} = \frac{y+3}{-2} = \frac{z-7}{-1}$ .

## Problem Set 11.6

In Problems 1–4, find the parametric equations of the line through the given pair of points.

1.  $(1, 2, 3)$ ,  $(4, 5, 6)$
2.  $(2, -1, 5)$ ,  $(7, 2, 9)$
3.  $(-4, 2, -1)$ ,  $(-1, 0, 3)$
4.  $(5, -3, -7)$ ,  $(5, 4, 2)$

In Problems 5–8, write both the parametric equations and the symmetric equations for the line through the given point parallel to the given vector.

5.  $(4, 5, 6)$ ,  $\langle 3, 2, 1 \rangle$
6.  $(-1, 3, -6)$ ,  $\langle -2, 0, 5 \rangle$
7.  $(-1, 0, -4)$ ,  $\langle 10, -10, -10 \rangle$
8.  $(-2, 3, -2)$ ,  $\langle 7, -6, 5 \rangle$

In Problems 9–12, find the symmetric equations of the line of intersection of the given pair of planes.

9.  $4x + 3y - 7z = 1$ ,  $8x + 6y - 5z = 10$
10.  $x + y + z = 1$ ,  $x + y - z = 2$
11.  $x + y + z = 1$ ,  $x + y - z = 2$
12.  $x + y + z = 1$ ,  $x + y - z = 2$

13. Find the symmetric equations of the line through  $(4, 0, 0)$  and perpendicular to the plane  $x - 3y + 2z = 10$ .

14. Find the symmetric equations of the line through  $(-3, 7, -2)$  and perpendicular to both  $\langle 2, -3, -1 \rangle$  and  $\langle 5, 4, -1 \rangle$ .

15. Find the parametric equations of the line through  $(-1, 0, 0)$  that intersects the  $yz$ -plane at right angle.

16. Find the symmetric equations of the line through  $(-4, 4, 5)$  that is parallel to the plane  $4x + y - 2z = 9$  and perpendicular to the line  $x = 2 + t$ ,  $y = 3 + t$ ,  $z = 1 + t$ .

17. Find the equation of the plane that contains the parabolas

$$\begin{cases} x = 2 - t^2 \\ y = 4t \\ z = 1 + t^2 \end{cases} \quad \text{and} \quad \begin{cases} x = 3 - t^2 \\ y = 4t \\ z = 1 + t^2 \end{cases}$$

18. Show that the lines

$$\frac{x-1}{2} = \frac{y+1}{3} = \frac{z-2}{4}$$

and

$$\frac{x-2}{3} = \frac{y-1}{4} = \frac{z-3}{5}$$

intersect, and find the equation of the plane that they determine.

19. Find the equation of the plane containing the line  $x + 2y = 1 + 3t$ ,  $z = 4 + t$  and the point  $(1, 0, 0)$ .

20. If  $\mathbf{r}(t) = t^2\mathbf{i} - 3t\mathbf{j} + t^2\mathbf{k}$ , then  $\mathbf{r}'(t) =$

21. A vector parallel to the tangent line at  $t =$  of the curve determined by the position equation  $\mathbf{r}(t)$  of Question 3 is  $\langle \quad, \quad, \quad \rangle$ . The corresponding normal vector is  $\langle \quad, \quad, \quad \rangle$ .

22. For a helix curve in the plane with radius  $R = 10$ ,  $x = R \cos t$ ,  $y = R \sin t$ , and  $z = t$ , the intersection of the plane  $2x + y + 3z = 10$  with the helix is  $(-10, 0, 0)$ .

23. Find the distance between the skew nonintersecting and nonparallel lines  $x = 2 + t$ ,  $y = 3 + 4t$ ,  $z = 2$  and  $x = -1 + t$ ,  $y = 1 - 2t$  by using the following steps:

- (a) Move by setting  $t = 0$  that  $(2, 3, 2)$  is on the first line.
- (b) Find the equation of the plane  $\pi$  through  $(2, 3, 2)$  parallel to both given lines (i.e., with normal perpendicular to both).
- (c) Find a point  $Q$  on the second line.
- (d) Find the distance from  $Q$  to the plane  $\pi$  (See Example 11 of Section 11.3).

See Problem 22 for another way to do this problem.

24. For the distance between the skew lines  $x = 1 + t$ ,  $y = 2 + 4t$ ,  $z = 3 + 5t$  and  $x = 2 + t$ ,  $y = 1 + 2t$ ,  $z = 4 + 3t$ , see Problem 23.

25. Find the symmetric equations of the tangent line to the curve with equation

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = 2 \cos t \mathbf{i} + 6 \sin t \mathbf{j} + t \mathbf{k}$$

at  $t = \pi/3$ .

26. Find the parametric equations of the tangent line to the curve  $\mathbf{r}(t) = t^2\mathbf{i} + t^3\mathbf{j} + t^4\mathbf{k}$  at  $t = 1$ .

27. Find the equation of the plane perpendicular to the curve  $\mathbf{r}(t) = 4t^2\mathbf{i} + 2t^3\mathbf{j} + t^4\mathbf{k}$  at  $t = -1$ .

28. Find the equation of the plane perpendicular to the curve  $\mathbf{r}(t) = t \sin t \mathbf{i} + \frac{1}{2}t^2\mathbf{j} + t^3\mathbf{k}$  at  $t = \pi/2$ .

29. For the curve

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = (2 + t^2)\mathbf{i} + (3 - t^2)\mathbf{j} + (t^2 + t^3)\mathbf{k}$$

(a) Show that the curve lies on a sphere centered at the origin.

(b) Where does the tangent line at  $t = \frac{\pi}{4}$  intersect the  $xy$ -plane?

30. Consider the curve  $\mathbf{r}(t) = \sin t \cos t \mathbf{i} + \sin^2 \frac{t}{2} + \cos t \mathbf{k}$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$ .

(a) Show that the curve lies on a sphere centered at the origin.

(b) Where does the tangent line at  $t = \pi/6$  intersect the  $xy$ -plane?

31. Consider the curve  $\mathbf{r}(t) = 2t(1 + t^2)\mathbf{i} + (1 - t^2)\mathbf{j}$ .

(a) Show that this curve lies on a plane and find the equation of the plane.

(b) Where does the tangent line at  $t = 2$  intersect the  $xy$ -plane?

32. Let  $P$  be a point on a plane with normal vector  $\mathbf{n}$  and  $Q$  be a point of the plane. Show that the result of Example 10 of

Section 11.6, the distance  $d$  between the vector  $\mathbf{r}$  and the plane can be expressed as

$$d = \frac{|\mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{n}|}{\|\mathbf{n}\|}$$

and use this result to find the distance from  $(-1, 5, 2)$  to the plane  $5x - 4y - 2z = 2$ .

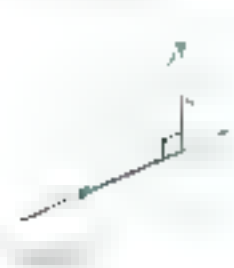
31. **Point to Line** Let  $P$  be a point and  $\ell$  a line with direction  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{x}_0$  a point on the line (Figure 11.7.1). Show that the distance  $d$  from  $P$  to the line is given by

$$d = \frac{\|\overrightarrow{P\mathbf{x}_0} \times \mathbf{u}\|}{\|\mathbf{u}\|}$$

and use this result to find each distance, in parts (a) and (b).

(a) From  $Q(0, -4)$  to the line  $\frac{x+3}{2} = \frac{y+7}{-5}$

(b) From  $P(1, 2, 3)$  to the line  $\frac{x-2}{3} = \frac{y-1}{-2} = \frac{z+4}{5}$

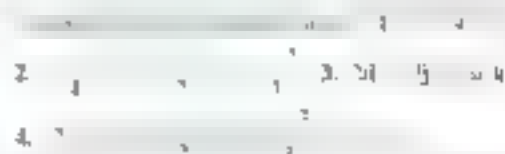


32. **Line to Line** Let  $\mathbf{r}_1$  and  $\mathbf{r}_2$  be points on nonintersecting skew lines with directions  $\mathbf{u}_1$  and  $\mathbf{u}_2$  and let  $\mathbf{n} = \mathbf{u}_1 \times \mathbf{u}_2$  (Figure 11.7.2). Show that the distance  $d$  between these lines is given by

$$d = \frac{|\mathbf{r}_2 \cdot \mathbf{n}|}{\|\mathbf{n}\|}$$

and use this result to find the distance between each pair of lines in parts (a) and (b).

(a)  $\ell_1: \frac{x-1}{2} = \frac{y-1}{-1} = \frac{z-1}{1}$  and  $\ell_2: \frac{x-4}{4} = \frac{y-5}{-4} = \frac{z-5}{5}$   
 (b)  $\ell_1: \frac{x-1}{1} = \frac{y-2}{-2} = \frac{z-3}{3}$  and  $\ell_2: \frac{x-4}{4} = \frac{y-5}{-4} = \frac{z-5}{5}$



## 11.7 Curvature and Components of Acceleration

We want to introduce a number called the **curvature**, which measures how frequently a curve bends at a given point. As a rough guide, we can say that curves that bend sharply should have a large curvature figure.

Let  $\mathbf{r}(t) = \langle x(t), y(t), z(t) \rangle$  denote the position of a particle moving in space. We will assume that  $\mathbf{r}(t)$  is continuous and that  $\mathbf{r}'(t)$  is never  $\mathbf{0}$ . In Section 11.2, this last condition assures that the arc length  $s$  is a function of  $t$  and that  $ds/dt$  increases. Our measure of curvature is going to depend on how  $\mathbf{r}'(t)$  changes as  $t$  changes. Rather than working with the change  $\Delta \mathbf{r}'(t) = \mathbf{r}'(t + \Delta t) - \mathbf{r}'(t)$ , we choose to work with the unit tangent vector (Figure 11.7.3).

$$\mathbf{T}(t) = \frac{\mathbf{r}'(t)}{\|\mathbf{r}'(t)\|} = \frac{\mathbf{v}(t)}{\|\mathbf{v}(t)\|}$$

To see roughly the task of finding curvature we consider the rate of change of the unit tangent vector (Figure 11.7.4). As a rough guide, we can say that the closer curves bend from points  $A$  to  $B$  (Figure 11.7.4), the larger the curvature.



Figure 1



Figure 2

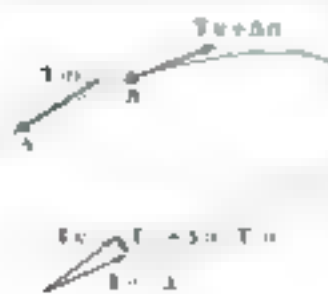


Figure 3

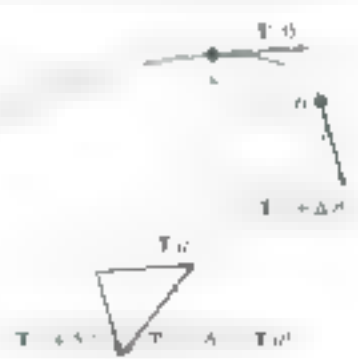


Figure 4

changed very little; in other words, the magnitude of  $\mathbf{T}(t + \Delta t) - \mathbf{T}(t)$  is small. On the other hand, as the object moves from point  $C$  to  $D$  (Figure 4), the time  $\Delta t$  the unit tangent vector changes quite a bit. In other words, the magnitude of  $\mathbf{T}(t + \Delta t) - \mathbf{T}(t)$  is large. Our definition of curvature  $\kappa$  is therefore the magnitude of the rate of change of the unit tangent vector with respect to arc length  $s$ ; that is,

$$\kappa = \left| \frac{d\mathbf{T}}{ds} \right|$$

We differentiate with respect to arc length  $s$  rather than with respect to  $t$  because we want our curvature to be an intrinsic property of the curve, not how fast the object moves along the curve (imagine roller coaster for any curve in the circle should not depend on how fast the object travels around the curve).

The definition of curvature given above does not help us to actually calculate the curvature of particular curves. To find workable formulas, we proceed as follows. In Section 6.5 we saw that the speed of an object could be expressed as

$$\text{speed} = v(t) = \frac{ds}{dt}$$

Since  $v$  increases as  $t$  increases, we can apply the Inverse Function Theorem (Theorem 6.7B) to conclude that the inverse of  $v(t)$  exists and

$$\frac{dt}{ds} = \frac{1}{\frac{ds}{dt}} = \frac{1}{v}$$

This allows us to write

$$\kappa = \left| \frac{d\mathbf{T}}{ds} \right| = \left| \frac{d\mathbf{T}}{ds} \frac{dt}{dt} \right| = \left| \frac{dt}{ds} \right| \left| \frac{d\mathbf{T}}{dt} \right| = \frac{1}{v} \|\mathbf{T}'(t)\| = \frac{\|\mathbf{T}'\|}{v}$$

To compute the curvature of a curve, we need to know  $\|\mathbf{T}'\|$  and  $v$ . To do this, we deal with some familiar curves.

**EXAMPLE 1** Show that the curvature of a circle of radius  $a$  is  $1/a$ .

**SOLUTION** Let  $\mathbf{r}(t)$  be the vector equation of a circle with radius  $a$  for all  $t$ . By the usual vector methods, we give an algebraic demonstration. If instead we apply the one whose parametric equations are given by

$$\begin{aligned}x &= a \cos t \\y &= a \sin t \\z &= 0\end{aligned}$$

then the position vector can be written as

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = (a \cos t, a \sin t, 0)$$

Thus

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{v} &= \mathbf{r}'(t) = \langle -a \sin t, a \cos t, 0 \rangle \\ \|\mathbf{v}\| &= \sqrt{a^2 \sin^2 t + a^2 \cos^2 t} = a \\ \mathbf{T}(t) &= \frac{\mathbf{v}}{\|\mathbf{v}\|} = \frac{\langle -a \sin t, a \cos t, 0 \rangle}{a} = \langle -\sin t, \cos t, 0 \rangle \\ \mathbf{T}'(t) &= \langle -\cos t, -\sin t, 0 \rangle \\ \|\mathbf{T}'(t)\| &= \sqrt{\cos^2 t + \sin^2 t} = 1\end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 2** Find the curvature of a circle of radius  $a$ .

**SOLUTION** We assume that the circle lies in the  $xy$ -plane and is centered at the origin so that the position vector is

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = (a \cos t, a \sin t, 0)$$

If you do not wish to apply the vector method, the computations required for computing the curvature are often long and messy.



Figure 5

Check again. It is instructive to check extreme cases. If  $e = 0$ , then motion is in a circle with radius  $a$  and the curvature is  $a/(a^2) = 1/a$ , which is the curvature of a circle with radius  $a$ . If  $e = a$ , then we're describing a straight line with a constant speed,

$$\lim_{a \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a}{a^2 + e^2} = 0$$

which is the curvature of a line. Both results are as expected.

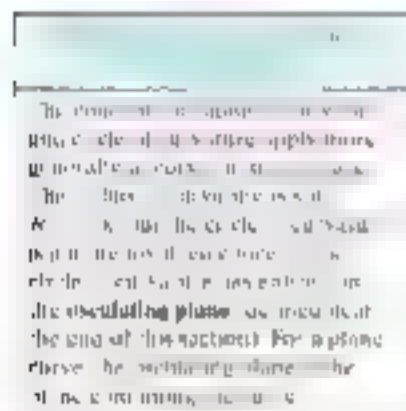


Figure 6

Thus

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathbf{r}(t) &= a \cos t \mathbf{i} + a \sin t \mathbf{j} \\
 \mathbf{v}(t) &= -a \sin t \mathbf{i} + a \cos t \mathbf{j} = a \mathbf{j} \\
 \mathbf{T}(t) &= \frac{\mathbf{v}(t)}{|\mathbf{v}(t)|} = \frac{-a \sin t \mathbf{i} + a \cos t \mathbf{j}}{a} = -\sin t \mathbf{i} + \cos t \mathbf{j} \\
 \kappa &= \frac{|\mathbf{T}'(t)|}{|\mathbf{v}(t)|} = \frac{|-\cos t \mathbf{i} - \sin t \mathbf{j}|}{a} = \frac{1}{a}
 \end{aligned}$$

Since  $\kappa$  is the reciprocal of the radius, small circles have large curvature, and large circles have small curvature. See Figure 5.

**EXAMPLE 1** Find the curvature for the helix  $\mathbf{r}(t) = a \cos t \mathbf{i} + a \sin t \mathbf{j} + ct \mathbf{k}$ .

**SOLUTION**

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathbf{r}(t) &= a \cos t \mathbf{i} + a \sin t \mathbf{j} + ct \mathbf{k} \\
 \mathbf{v}(t) &= \sqrt{a^2 \sin^2 t + a^2 \cos^2 t + c^2} = \sqrt{a^2 + c^2} \\
 \mathbf{T}(t) &= \frac{\mathbf{v}(t)}{|\mathbf{v}(t)|} = \frac{-a \sin t \mathbf{i} + a \cos t \mathbf{j} + c \mathbf{k}}{\sqrt{a^2 + c^2}} \\
 \mathbf{T}'(t) &= \frac{-a \cos t \mathbf{i} - a \sin t \mathbf{j}}{\sqrt{a^2 + c^2}} \\
 \kappa &= \frac{|\mathbf{T}'(t)|}{|\mathbf{v}(t)|} = \frac{\sqrt{a^2 \cos^2 t + a^2 \sin^2 t} / \sqrt{a^2 + c^2}}{\sqrt{a^2 + c^2}} = \frac{a}{a^2 + c^2}
 \end{aligned}$$

For the three curves discussed so far, the curvature and hence the curvature  $\kappa$  is a constant. This phenomenon occurs only for special curves. Normally, the curvature is a function of  $t$ .

Suppose a curve is given by  $\mathbf{r}(t) = x(t)\mathbf{i} + y(t)\mathbf{j} + z(t)\mathbf{k}$ . Let  $P$  be a point on a graph, and let  $\mathbf{v}$  be a velocity vector at  $P$ . Suppose we could draw a circle with a center  $C$  and radius  $R$  such that the circle is tangent to the curve at  $P$  (which it is, by the same argument as before). If  $C$  is not within the curve, a unique circle can be drawn. This circle is called the **circle of curvature** or **osculating circle**. If  $R$  is the radius of curvature and its center is the **center of curvature**. See Figure 6. These notions are illustrated in the next example.

**EXAMPLE 2** Find the curvature and the radius of curvature for the curve  $\mathbf{r}(t) = t^2 \mathbf{i} + t^3 \mathbf{j}$ .

at the points  $(0, 0)$  and  $(2, 1)$ .

**SOLUTION**

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathbf{r}(t) &= t^2 \mathbf{i} + t^3 \mathbf{j} \\
 \mathbf{v}(t) &= 2t \mathbf{i} + 3t^2 \mathbf{j} \\
 \mathbf{T}(t) &= \frac{\mathbf{v}(t)}{|\mathbf{v}(t)|} = \frac{2t \mathbf{i} + 3t^2 \mathbf{j}}{\sqrt{4t^2 + 9t^4}} = \frac{2 \mathbf{i} + 3t^2 \mathbf{j}}{\sqrt{4 + 9t^2}} \\
 \mathbf{T}'(t) &= \frac{-6t \mathbf{j}}{(4 + 9t^2)^{3/2}} \\
 \kappa(t) &= \frac{|\mathbf{T}'(t)|}{|\mathbf{v}(t)|} = \frac{\sqrt{36t^2} / (4 + 9t^2)^{3/2}}{2\sqrt{4 + 9t^2}} = \frac{3}{2(4 + 9t^2)^{3/2}}
 \end{aligned}$$

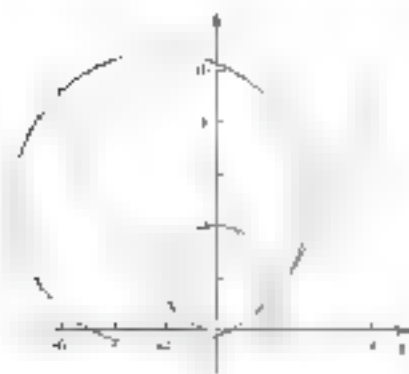


FIGURE 7

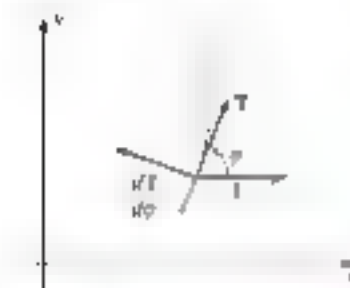


FIGURE 8

The points  $(-1, 0)$  and  $(1, 2)$  occur when  $t = 0$  and  $t = \pi$  respectively. Thus the values of the curvature at these points are

$$\kappa(0) = \frac{1}{2(1 + 0^2)^{3/2}} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\kappa(\pi) = \frac{1}{2(1 + 1^2)^{3/2}} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{8}$$

The two values for the radius of curvature are thus  $1/\kappa(0) = 2$  and  $1/\kappa(\pi) = 8/\sqrt{2} = 4\sqrt{2}$ . The circles of curvature are shown in Figure 7. ■

**Other formulas for Curvature of a Plane Curve** Let  $\phi$  denote the angle measured counterclockwise from  $\mathbf{i}$  to  $\mathbf{T}$  (Figure 8). Then

$$\mathbf{T} = \cos \phi \mathbf{i} + \sin \phi \mathbf{j}$$

and so

$$\frac{d\mathbf{T}}{ds} = -\sin \phi \frac{d\phi}{ds} \mathbf{i} + \cos \phi \frac{d\phi}{ds} \mathbf{j}$$

Now  $d\mathbf{T}/ds$  is a unit vector (length 1) and  $\mathbf{T} \cdot d\mathbf{T}/ds = 0$ . Moreover,

$$\kappa = \left| \frac{d\mathbf{T}}{ds} \right| = \left| \frac{d\mathbf{T}}{ds} \frac{ds}{dt} \right| = \left| \frac{d\mathbf{T}}{dt} \right| \left| \frac{ds}{dt} \right| = \frac{ds}{dt} \frac{d\phi}{dt}$$

This formula for  $\kappa$  helps our understanding of curvature. It measures the rate of change of  $\phi$  with respect to arc length, so we can give it the simple proof of the following important theorem.

### THEOREM 3

Consider a curve with vector equation  $\mathbf{r}(t) = f(t)\mathbf{i} + g(t)\mathbf{j}$ , that is, with parametric equations  $x = f(t)$  and  $y = g(t)$ . Then

$$\kappa = \frac{|f'(t)g''(t) - f''(t)g'(t)|}{[f'(t)^2 + g'(t)^2]^{3/2}}$$

In particular, if the curve is the graph of  $y = g(x)$ , then

$$\kappa = \frac{|g''(x)|}{[1 + g'(x)^2]^{3/2}}$$

Prove this by calculating with respect to  $x$  and  $t$  as usual and with  $s$  specified in the second formula.

**Proof** We might calculate  $\kappa$  directly from the formula  $\kappa = |\mathbf{T}'(t)|/|\mathbf{r}'(t)|$ , as we propose in Problem 55. It is a good thing that we can differentiate and algebraic manipulations. Either we choose to use the formula  $\kappa = |d\mathbf{T}/ds|$  derived above (later in Theorem 3) from which we see that

$$\tan \phi = \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{g'(t)}{f'(t)}$$

Differentiate both sides of the equation with respect to  $x$  to obtain

$$\sec^2 \phi \frac{d\phi}{dx} = \frac{g''(t)}{f'(t)}$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d\theta}{ds} &= \frac{1}{r} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(x')^2 + (y')^2} \frac{dt}{ds}} \\&= \frac{1}{(x')^2 + (y')^2} \frac{ds}{dt} = \frac{x'y'' - y'x''}{(x')^2 + (y')^2}\end{aligned}$$

But

$$\kappa = \left| \frac{d\theta}{ds} \right| = \left| \frac{d\theta/dt}{ds/dt} \right| = \frac{|d\theta/dt|}{|ds/dt|} = \frac{|d\theta/dt|}{v}.$$

When we put these two results together we obtain

$$\kappa = \frac{|x'y'' - y'x''|}{v^3},$$

which is the first assertion of the theorem.

To obtain the second assertion, we start by recalling that  $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{p} + r\mathbf{u}$  for some unit vector  $\mathbf{u}$ . The parametric equations  $x = x(t)$ ,  $y = y(t)$ ,  $z = z(t)$  and  $x = x(s)$ ,  $y = y(s)$ ,  $z = z(s)$  are the same, so the curve follows.

### EXAMPLE 5 Find the curvature of the ellipse

$$x = 5 \cos t, \quad y = 3 \sin t$$

at the points corresponding to  $t = 0$  and  $t = \pi/2$ . In a way, in Figure 2, sketch the ellipse showing the corresponding circles of curvature.

**SOLUTION** From the given equations,

$$\begin{aligned}x' &= -5 \sin t, & x'' &= -5 \cos t \\y' &= 3 \cos t, & y'' &= -3 \sin t.\end{aligned}$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned}\kappa &= \frac{|x'y'' - y'x''|}{v^3} = \frac{5 \sin^2 t + 3 \cos^2 t}{(25 \sin^2 t + 9 \cos^2 t)^{3/2}} \\&= \frac{5 \sin^2 t + 3 \cos^2 t}{(25 \sin^2 t + 9 \cos^2 t)^{3/2}}.\end{aligned}$$

Therefore, at

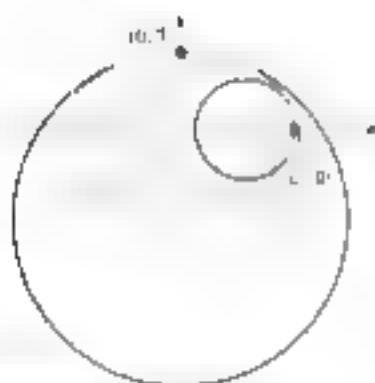
$$\begin{aligned}t = 0 & \quad \kappa = \frac{3}{9^{3/2}} = \frac{1}{27} \\t = \pi/2 & \quad \kappa = \frac{5}{125} = \frac{1}{25}.\end{aligned}$$

Note that  $\kappa$  is larger than  $\kappa = 1/25$  at  $t = 0$  should be. Figure 2 shows the circle of curvature at  $t = 0$ , which has radius  $27$ , and the one at  $t = \pi/2$ , which has radius  $25$ .

### EXAMPLE 6 Find the curvatures of $\mathbf{r} = \cos t \mathbf{i} + \sin t \mathbf{j}$ at $t = \pi/4$ .

**SOL. IT IS** We compute the second derivative. The only  $\mathbf{A}$  is  $\mathbf{j}$  and the principal normal is  $-\mathbf{j}$ , so differentiation with respect to  $s$  gives  $\mathbf{A} = -\mathbf{j}$  and  $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{r}' = -\sec t$ .

$$\kappa = \frac{|\sec t|}{(1 + \tan^2 t)^{3/2}} = \frac{\sec^2 t}{(\sec^2 t)^{3/2}} = |\cos t|$$

At  $t = \pi/4$ ,  $\kappa = 1$ .



Let  $\mathbf{r}(t) = x(t)\mathbf{i} + y(t)\mathbf{j} + z(t)\mathbf{k}$ . For motion along the curve with position vector  $\mathbf{r}(t)$ , the unit tangent vector is  $\mathbf{T}(t) = \mathbf{r}'(t)/|\mathbf{r}'(t)|$ . The vector satisfies

$$\mathbf{T}(t) \cdot \mathbf{T}(t) = 1$$

for all  $t$ . Differentiating both sides with respect to  $t$  and using the Product Rule on the left side gives

$$\mathbf{T}(t) \cdot \mathbf{T}'(t) + \mathbf{T}'(t) \cdot \mathbf{T}(t) = 0$$

This reduces to  $\mathbf{T}'(t) \cdot \mathbf{T}(t) = 0$ , showing us that  $\mathbf{T}'$  and  $\mathbf{T}$  are perpendicular. In general,  $\mathbf{T}'$  is not a unit vector, so we define the **principal unit normal vector** to be

$$\mathbf{N}(t) = \frac{\mathbf{T}'(t)}{|\mathbf{T}'(t)|}$$

Now imagine that you are riding in a car on a winding road. As the car accelerates you feel pushed in the opposite direction. If the car speeds up you feel a push backward and when you slow down you feel a push to the right. These two kinds of acceleration are called the **tangential** and **normal components of acceleration**, respectively. What we would like to do is to express the acceleration vector at  $t = t_0$  in terms of these two components. Let  $a_t$  denote the tangential component of  $\mathbf{T}'(t_0)$  and the unit normal vector  $\mathbf{N}(t_0)$ . Then we would like to find scalars  $a_t$  and  $a_N$  so that

$$\mathbf{a} = a_t \mathbf{T} + a_N \mathbf{N}$$

To accomplish this we note that

$$\mathbf{T} = \frac{\mathbf{v}}{|\mathbf{v}|} = \frac{\mathbf{v}}{ds/dt}$$

so

$$\mathbf{v} = \frac{ds}{dt} \mathbf{T}$$

Differentiating both sides with respect to time and, the Product Rule gives

$$\mathbf{a} = \frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{ds}{dt} \mathbf{T} \right) = \left( \frac{ds}{dt} \right)' \mathbf{T} + \frac{ds}{dt} \mathbf{T}'$$

Using the fact that  $\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{v}' = \left( \frac{ds}{dt} \right)' \mathbf{T} + \frac{ds}{dt} \mathbf{T}'$  and  $\mathbf{T}' = \left( \frac{ds}{dt} \right)' \mathbf{N}$  we have

$$\mathbf{a} = \left( \frac{ds}{dt} \right)' \mathbf{T} + \frac{ds}{dt} \mathbf{T}' = \left( \frac{ds}{dt} \right)' \mathbf{T} + \left( \frac{ds}{dt} \right)' \frac{ds}{dt} \mathbf{N}$$

The tangential and normal components of acceleration are

$$a_t = \left( \frac{ds}{dt} \right)'$$

and

$$a_N = \left( \frac{ds}{dt} \right)^2 \kappa$$

These results make sense from a physical point of view. If you are speeding up on a straight road, then  $a_t = \left( \frac{ds}{dt} \right)' > 0$  and  $a_N = 0$  so  $a_N = 0$ . Thus, if this car were to slow down you would feel a push backward and no push to either side. On the other hand, if you are going around a curve at a constant speed (i.e.,  $ds/dt$  is constant) then

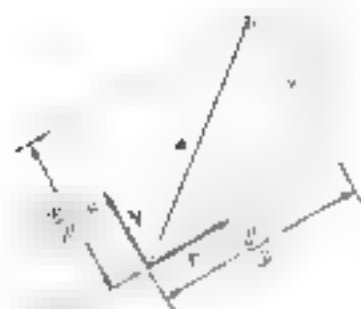


Figure 10

4.  $\frac{d\phi}{dt} = \dot{\phi}$  and  $\dot{\phi} > 0$  making  $a_N$  positive. Finally, imagine going around a curve while speeding up. In this case both  $v$  and  $a_N$  will be positive and  $\mathbf{a}$  will point toward the forward as shown in Figure 11. You would feel thrown back and to the right.

To calculate  $a_N$  it appears that we must calculate the curvature  $\kappa$ . However, this can be avoided by noting that since  $\mathbf{T}$  and  $\mathbf{N}$  are orthogonal,

$$|\mathbf{a}|^2 = a_T^2 + a_N^2$$

so we can compute

$$a_N = \sqrt{|\mathbf{a}|^2 - a_T^2}.$$

The vector  $\mathbf{N}$  can be computed directly from

$$\mathbf{N} = \frac{1}{a_N} \frac{d\mathbf{T}}{dt}.$$

Let's find a formula for  $\mathbf{N}$  in terms of  $\mathbf{r}$  and  $\mathbf{r}'$ . We can write the formulas for the components of acceleration in terms of the position vector  $\mathbf{r}$ . We begin with

$$\mathbf{a} = a_T \mathbf{T} + a_N \mathbf{N}$$

and dot both sides by  $\mathbf{T}$  to get

$$\mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{a} = \mathbf{T} \cdot (a_T \mathbf{T} + a_N \mathbf{N}) = a_T \mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{T} + a_N \mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{N} = a_T (1) + a_N (0) = a_T.$$

Here we have used the facts that  $\mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{T} = 1$  and  $\mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{N} = 0$  (since  $\mathbf{T}$  and  $\mathbf{N}$  are orthogonal). Thus,

$$a_T = \mathbf{T} \cdot \mathbf{a} = \frac{\mathbf{r}' \cdot \mathbf{r}''}{|\mathbf{r}'| |\mathbf{r}''|}.$$

We can find a similar formula for  $a_N$  by crossing both sides by  $\mathbf{T}$ :

$$\mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{a} = a_T \mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{T} + a_N \mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{N} = a_N \mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{N} = a_N (\mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{N}).$$

Taking the magnitude of both sides gives

$$|\mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{a}| = |a_N| |\mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{N}| = |a_N| |\mathbf{T}| |\mathbf{N}| \sin \frac{\pi}{2} = a_N (1)(1)(1) = a_N.$$

Notice that  $a_N = |\mathbf{a}| \sin \phi \geq 0$ , so the absolute value bars are not needed for  $a_N$ . Thus,

$$a_N = |\mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{a}| = \frac{|\mathbf{r}' \times \mathbf{r}''|}{|\mathbf{r}'| |\mathbf{r}''|} = \frac{|\mathbf{r}' \times \mathbf{r}''|}{|\mathbf{r}'|^2}.$$

Finally, we can find a formula for the curvature  $\kappa$ :

$$\kappa = \frac{a_N}{(v)^2} = \frac{|\mathbf{r}' \times \mathbf{r}''|}{|\mathbf{r}'|^2 |\mathbf{r}'|^2} = \frac{|\mathbf{r}' \times \mathbf{r}''|}{|\mathbf{r}'|^3}.$$

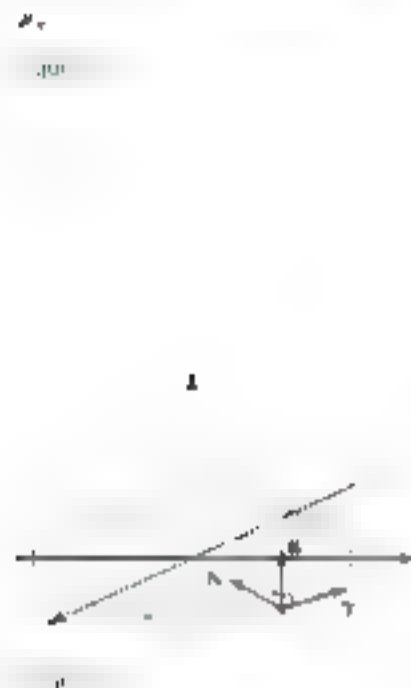
**DEFINITION** Given a curve  $\mathbf{c}$  and the unit tangent vector  $\mathbf{T}$  at  $P$ , there are at least as many (and usually many more) vectors perpendicular to  $\mathbf{T}$  at  $P$  (Figure 12). We picked one of them,  $\mathbf{N} = \mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{T}'$ , and called it the principal normal. The vector

$$\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{N}$$





The moving triad



is called the **binormal**. If  $\mathbf{r}(t)$  is a unit vector and  $\mathbf{n}$  is perpendicular to both  $\mathbf{T}$  and  $\mathbf{N}$ , (Why?)

If the unit tangent vector  $\mathbf{T}$ , the principal normal  $\mathbf{N}$ , and the binormal  $\mathbf{B}$  have their heads drawn at  $P$ , they form a right-handed, mutually perpendicular triple of unit vectors known as the **moving triad** at  $P$  (Figure 11.10). This moving triad plays a central role in a subject called differential geometry. The plane of  $\mathbf{T}$  and  $\mathbf{N}$  is called the **osculating plane** at  $P$ .

**EXAMPLE 11.1.1** Find  $\mathbf{T}$ ,  $\mathbf{N}$ , and  $\mathbf{B}$  and the tangential and normal components of acceleration for uniform circular motion  $\mathbf{r}(t) = a \cos \omega t \mathbf{i} + a \sin \omega t \mathbf{j}$ .

#### NOUATION

$$\mathbf{T} = \frac{\mathbf{r}'(t)}{|\mathbf{r}'(t)|} = \frac{a\omega[-\sin \omega t \mathbf{i} + \cos \omega t \mathbf{j}]}{a\omega} = -\sin \omega t \mathbf{i} + \cos \omega t \mathbf{j}$$

$$\mathbf{N} = \frac{\mathbf{T}'(t)}{|\mathbf{T}'(t)|} = \frac{-a\omega[\cos \omega t \mathbf{i} + \sin \omega t \mathbf{j}]}{a\omega} = -\cos \omega t \mathbf{i} - \sin \omega t \mathbf{j}$$

$$\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{N} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ -\sin \omega t & \cos \omega t & 0 \\ -\cos \omega t & -\sin \omega t & 0 \end{vmatrix} = \mathbf{k}$$

$$\mathbf{a} = \frac{d\mathbf{v}}{dt} = \frac{d}{dt}(-a\omega \sin \omega t \mathbf{i} + a\omega \cos \omega t \mathbf{j}) = (-a\omega^2 \cos \omega t \mathbf{i} - a\omega^2 \sin \omega t \mathbf{j})$$

$$\mathbf{a}' \cdot \mathbf{a} = \frac{d}{dt}(-a\omega^2 \cos \omega t \mathbf{i} - a\omega^2 \sin \omega t \mathbf{j}) \cdot (-a\omega^2 \cos \omega t \mathbf{i} - a\omega^2 \sin \omega t \mathbf{j}) = a^2 \omega^4$$

$$|\mathbf{a}| = \frac{|\mathbf{a}' \cdot \mathbf{a}|}{|\mathbf{a}|} = \frac{a^2 \omega^4}{a\omega^2} = a\omega^2$$

The tangential component of acceleration is zero. The speed is increasing at a constant rate  $a\omega$ . The normal component of acceleration equals the magnitude of the acceleration vector. (Figure 11.11 shows the vectors  $\mathbf{T}$ ,  $\mathbf{N}$ , and  $\mathbf{B}$ .)

**EXAMPLE 11.1.2** At the point  $(1, 1, \frac{1}{2})$ , find  $\mathbf{T}$ ,  $\mathbf{N}$ ,  $\mathbf{B}$ ,  $a_T$ ,  $a_N$ , and  $\kappa$  for the curve  $\mathbf{r}(t) = t^2 \mathbf{i} + t^2 \mathbf{j} + t^2 \mathbf{k}$ .

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = t^2 \mathbf{i} + t^2 \mathbf{j} + t^2 \mathbf{k}$$

#### NOUATION

$$\mathbf{r}'(t) = 2t \mathbf{i} + 2t \mathbf{j} + 2t \mathbf{k}$$

$$|\mathbf{r}'(t)| = 2\sqrt{3}t$$

At  $t = 1$  which gives the point  $(1, 1, \frac{1}{2})$ , we have

$$\mathbf{r}' = 2\mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j} + 2\mathbf{k}$$

$$|\mathbf{r}'| = 2\sqrt{3}$$

$$\mathbf{T} = \frac{\mathbf{r}'}{|\mathbf{r}'|} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}(\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k})$$

$$\mathbf{a} = \frac{d\mathbf{v}}{dt} = \frac{d}{dt}(2t \mathbf{i} + 2t \mathbf{j} + 2t \mathbf{k}) = 2\mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j} + 2\mathbf{k}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{u} &= \frac{\mathbf{r}' \times \mathbf{r}''}{\|\mathbf{r}' \times \mathbf{r}''\|} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 3 & 2 \end{vmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \{5\mathbf{i} - 2\mathbf{j} - 3\mathbf{k}\} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \{5\mathbf{i} - 2\mathbf{j} - 3\mathbf{k}\} \\ \mathbf{N} &= \frac{\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{T}}{\|\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{T}\|} = \frac{5\mathbf{j} + 3\mathbf{k}}{\sqrt{34}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{17}} \{5\mathbf{j} + 3\mathbf{k}\} \\ \mathbf{B} &= \mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{N} \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 3 & 2 \end{vmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 5 & 3 & 2 \end{vmatrix} \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \{2\mathbf{i} - 3\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}\} \\ \kappa &= \frac{\|\mathbf{r}' \times \mathbf{r}''\|}{\|\mathbf{r}'\|^3} = \frac{\sqrt{6}}{(\sqrt{5})^3} = \frac{\sqrt{6}}{5\sqrt{5}} \end{aligned}$$

## Concepts Review

1. Curvature is defined to be the magnitude of the vector  $\frac{d\mathbf{T}}{ds}$ .
2. The curvature of a circle of radius  $a$  is constant:  $\kappa = \frac{1}{a}$ . The radius of curvature of a circle is  $a$ .
3. The acceleration vector  $\mathbf{a}$  can be written as  $\mathbf{a} = \frac{dv}{dt}\mathbf{T} + a_n\mathbf{N}$ .
4. For uniform circular motion in the plane, the magnitude of acceleration is  $\frac{v^2}{r}$ .

## Problem Set 11.7

In Problems 1–4, sketch the curve, give the unit tangent vector  $\mathbf{T}$ , and  $\mathbf{N}$  at the point where  $t = t_0$ .

1.  $\mathbf{r}(t) = (t^2 - 1)\mathbf{i} + (t^2 + 1)\mathbf{j}$
2.  $\mathbf{r}(t) = (t^2 - 1)\mathbf{i} + (t^2 + 1)\mathbf{j}$ ,  $t_0 = 2$
3.  $\mathbf{r}(t) = (t^2 + 2)\cos t\mathbf{i} + 2\sin t\mathbf{j}$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq 4\pi$ ,  $t_0 = \pi$
4.  $\mathbf{r}(t) = \cos t\mathbf{i} + \sin t\mathbf{j} + \sin t\mathbf{k}$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$ ,  $t_0 = \pi$
5.  $\mathbf{r}(t) = \frac{1}{4}t^2\cos t\mathbf{i} + \frac{1}{4}t^2\sin t\mathbf{j} + \frac{1}{4}t^2\mathbf{k}$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$ ,  $t_0 = \pi$
6.  $\mathbf{r}(t) = \frac{1}{4}t^2\mathbf{i} + 2\cos t\mathbf{j} + 2\sin t\mathbf{k}$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq 4\pi$ ,  $t_0 = \pi$

In Problems 7–14, find the unit tangent vector  $\mathbf{T}(t)$  and the principal normal vector  $\mathbf{N}(t)$  at the point where  $t = t_0$ . For calculating  $\mathbf{N}$ , we suggest using Theorem 4, as in Example 6.

7.  $\mathbf{r}(t) = 4t^2\mathbf{i} + 4t^2\mathbf{j}$ ,  $t_0 = 1$
8.  $\mathbf{r}(t) = t^2\mathbf{i} + t^2\mathbf{j}$ ,  $t_0 = 1$
9.  $\mathbf{r}(t) = 3\cos t\mathbf{i} + 4\sin t\mathbf{j}$ ,  $t_0 = \pi/4$
10.  $\mathbf{r}(t) = e^t\mathbf{i} + e^t\mathbf{j}$ ,  $t_0 = \ln 2$
11.  $\mathbf{r}(t) = e^t\mathbf{i} + e^t\mathbf{j}$ ,  $t_0 = \ln 2$
12.  $\mathbf{r}(t) = \sin t\mathbf{i}$ ,  $\mathbf{r}(t) = \cos t\mathbf{j}$ ,  $t_0 = \pi$
13.  $\mathbf{r}(t) = e^t\cos t\mathbf{i}$ ,  $\mathbf{r}(t) = e^t\sin t\mathbf{j}$ ,  $t_0 = 0$
14.  $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\cos t\mathbf{i} + t\sin t\mathbf{j}$ ,  $t_0 = 1$

In Problems 15–26, sketch the curve in the  $xy$ -plane. Then, for the given point, find the curvature and the radius of curvature. Finally,

find the circle of curvature at the point. Give the equation of the circle. You will use the second formula in Theorem 4, as in Example 6.

27.  $y = x^2$ ,  $(1, 1)$
28.  $y = x^2$ ,  $(-1, 1)$
29.  $y = x^2$ ,  $(0, 0)$
30.  $y^2 = 4x$ ,  $(1, 2)$
31.  $y = \cos x$ ,  $(\pi, -1)$
32.  $y = \sin x$ ,  $(\pi, 0)$
33.  $y = \cos x$ ,  $(0, 1)$
34.  $y = \sqrt{x}$ ,  $(1, 1)$
35.  $y = \cosh x$ ,  $(0, 1)$
36.  $y = \sinh x$ ,  $(0, 0)$

In Problems 27–36, find the curvature  $\kappa$ , the unit tangent vector  $\mathbf{T}$ , the unit normal vector  $\mathbf{N}$ , and the binormal vector  $\mathbf{B}$  at  $t = t_0$ .

37.  $\mathbf{r}(t) = \frac{1}{2}t^2\mathbf{i} + t\mathbf{j} + \frac{1}{2}t^2\mathbf{k}$ ,  $t_0 = 2$
38.  $\mathbf{r}(t) = \cos t\mathbf{i} + \sin t\mathbf{j}$ ,  $t_0 = \pi/4$
39.  $x = 7\sin 4t$ ,  $y = 7\cos 4t$ ,  $z = 14t$ ,  $t_0 = \pi/4$
40.  $\mathbf{r}(t) = \cos^2 t\mathbf{i} + \sin^2 t\mathbf{j}$ ,  $t_0 = \pi/2$
41.  $\mathbf{r}(t) = 3\cos t\mathbf{i} + 3\sin t\mathbf{j} + t\mathbf{k}$ ,  $t_0 = 1$
42.  $\mathbf{r}(t) = e^t\cos 2t\mathbf{i} + e^t\sin 2t\mathbf{j} + e^t\mathbf{k}$ ,  $t_0 = \pi/3$
43.  $\mathbf{r}(t) = e^t\cos t\mathbf{i} + e^t\sin t\mathbf{j} + e^t\mathbf{k}$ ,  $t_0 = \pi/2$
44.  $\mathbf{r}(t) = \ln t\mathbf{i} + t\mathbf{j}$ ,  $t_0 = 1$

In Problems 45–54, find the curvature of the curve at the point where  $t = t_0$ .

45.  $\mathbf{r}(t) = t^2\mathbf{i}$ ,  $t_0 = 1$
46.  $\mathbf{r}(t) = t^2\mathbf{j}$ ,  $t_0 = 1$
47.  $\mathbf{r}(t) = t^2\mathbf{k}$ ,  $t_0 = 1$
48.  $\mathbf{r}(t) = t^2\mathbf{i} + t^2\mathbf{j}$ ,  $t_0 = 1$
49.  $\mathbf{r}(t) = t^2\mathbf{i} + t^2\mathbf{j} + t^2\mathbf{k}$ ,  $t_0 = 1$
50.  $\mathbf{r}(t) = t^2\mathbf{i} + t^2\mathbf{j} + t^2\mathbf{k}$ ,  $t_0 = 1$

39.  $y = v$

40.  $y = \ln \cos x$  (for  $-\pi/2 < x < \pi/2$ )

41. Problems 41–52 find the tangential and normal components ( $a_T$  and  $a_N$ ) of the acceleration vector at  $t$ . Then evaluate at  $t = t_1$ . See Examples 7 and 8.

41.  $\mathbf{r}(t) = 3t\mathbf{i} + 3t^2\mathbf{j}$ ;  $t_1 = 1$

42.  $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\mathbf{i} + t\mathbf{j}$ ;  $t_1 = 1$

43.  $\mathbf{r}(t) = (2t + 1)\mathbf{i} + (t^2 - 2)\mathbf{j}$ ;  $t_1 = 1$

44.  $\mathbf{r}(t) = a \cos t\mathbf{i} + a \sin t\mathbf{j}$ ;  $t_1 = \pi/6$

45.  $\mathbf{r}(t) = a \cosh t\mathbf{i} + a \sinh t\mathbf{j}$ ;  $t_1 = \ln 2$

46.  $\mathbf{x}(t) = t^2\mathbf{i} + 3t^2\mathbf{j}$ ;  $t = 2$ ;  $6t = 2$

47.  $\mathbf{r}(t) = t^2\mathbf{i} + (t + 1)\mathbf{j} + 3t\mathbf{k}$ ;  $t = 2$

48.  $\mathbf{x} = t^2\mathbf{i} + t^2\mathbf{j} + t^2\mathbf{k}$ ;  $t = 1$

49.  $\mathbf{x} = t^2\mathbf{i} + t^2\mathbf{j} + t^2\mathbf{k}$ ;  $t = 1$

50.  $\mathbf{r}(t) = (t^2 - 1)\mathbf{i} + (t^2 + 1)\mathbf{j} + t^2\mathbf{k}$ ;  $t = 2$

51.  $\mathbf{x}(t) = (t^2 - 1)\mathbf{i} + (t^2 + 1)\mathbf{j} + t^2\mathbf{k}$ ;  $t = 2$

52.  $\mathbf{r}(t) = t^2\mathbf{i} + t^2\mathbf{j} + t^2\mathbf{k}$ ;  $t = 1$

53. Sketch the path for a particle if its position vector is  $\mathbf{r} = (\cos t)\mathbf{i} + (\sin 2t)\mathbf{j}$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$  (you should get a figure eight). Where is the acceleration zero? Where does the acceleration vector point to the origin?

54. The position vector of a particle at time  $t$  is

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = (\cos t + t \sin t)\mathbf{i} + (\sin t - t \cos t)\mathbf{j}$$

(a) Show that the speed  $ds/dt = t$ .

(b) Show that  $a_T = 1$  and  $a_N = t$ .

55. If, for a particle,  $a_T = 0$  for all  $t$ , what can you conclude about its speed? If  $a_N = 0$  for all  $t$ , what can you conclude about its curvature?

56. Find  $\mathbf{N}$  for the ellipse

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = a \cos \omega t \mathbf{i} + b \sin \omega t \mathbf{j}$$

57. Consider the motion of a particle along a helix given by  $\mathbf{r}(t) = \sin t\mathbf{i} + \cos t\mathbf{j} + t^2\mathbf{k}$ , where the  $k$  component measures the height in meters above the ground and  $t \geq 0$ . If the particle leaves the helix and moves along the line tangent to the helix when it is 12 meters above the ground, give the direction vector for the line.

58. An object moves along the curve  $y = \sin^2 x$ . Without doing any calculating, decide where  $a_N = 0$ .

59. A dog is running counterclockwise around the circle  $x^2 + y^2 = 400$  (distances in feet). At the point  $(-20, 60)$ , it is running at 10 feet per second and is speeding up at 5 feet per second per second. Express its acceleration  $\mathbf{a}$  at the point first in terms of  $\mathbf{T}$  and  $\mathbf{N}$ , and then in terms of  $\mathbf{i}$  and  $\mathbf{j}$ .

60. An object moves along the parabola  $y = x^2$  with constant speed of 4. Express  $\mathbf{a}$  at the point  $(x, x^2)$  in terms of  $\mathbf{T}$  and  $\mathbf{N}$ .

61. A car traveling at constant speed  $v$  rounds a level curve which we take to be a circle of radius  $R$ . If the car is to avoid sliding outward, the horizontal frictional force  $F$  exerted by the road on the tires must at least balance the centrifugal force pulling outward. The force  $F$  satisfies  $F = \mu mg$ , where  $\mu$  is the

coefficient of friction,  $m$  is the mass of the car, and  $g$  is the acceleration of gravity. Thus,  $\mu mg \geq mv^2/R$ . Show that  $v_R$ , the speed beyond which sliding will occur, satisfies

$$v_R = \mu g R$$

and use this to determine  $v_R$  for a curve with  $R = 400$  feet and  $\mu = 0.4$ . Use  $g = 32$  feet per second per second.

62. Consider again the car of Problem 61. Suppose that the curve is icy at its worst spot ( $\mu = 0$ ), but is banked at an angle  $\theta$  from the horizontal (Figure 14). Let  $\mathbf{F}$  be the force exerted by the road on the car. Then, at the critical speed  $v_R$ ,  $mg = |\mathbf{F}| \cos \theta$  and  $mv_R^2/R = |\mathbf{F}| \sin \theta$ .

(a) Show that  $v_R = \sqrt{Rg \tan \theta}$ .

(b) Find  $v_R$  for a curve with  $R = 400$  feet and  $\theta = 10^\circ$ .

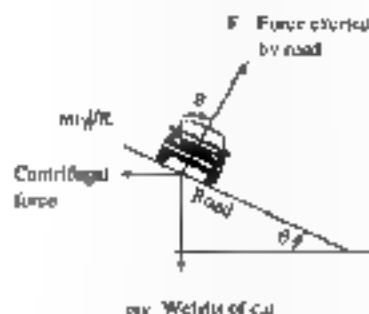


Figure 14

63. Demonstrate that the second formula in Theorem 4 can also be written as  $\kappa = |y''| \cos^3 \phi$ , where  $\phi$  is the angle of inclination of the tangent line to the graph of  $y = f(x)$ .

64. Show that for a plane curve  $\mathbf{N}$  points to the concave side of the curve. Hint: One method is to show that

$$\mathbf{N} = (-\sin \phi \mathbf{i} + \cos \phi \mathbf{j}) \frac{d\phi/ds}{|d\phi/ds|}$$

Then consider the cases  $d\phi/ds > 0$  (curve bends to the left) and  $d\phi/ds < 0$  (curve bends to the right).

65. Prove that  $\mathbf{N} = \mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{T}$ . Derive a similar result for  $\mathbf{T}$  in terms of  $\mathbf{N}$  and  $\mathbf{B}$ .

66. Show that the curve

$$\mathbf{r} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \leq 0 \\ \frac{1}{x^2} & \text{if } x > 0 \end{cases}$$

has continuous first derivatives and curvature at all points.

**EXP.** 67. Find a curve given by a polynomial  $P_5(x)$  that provides a smooth transition between two horizontal lines. That is, assume a function of the form  $P_5(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + a_3x^3 + a_4x^4 + a_5x^5$  which provides a smooth transition between  $y = 0$  for  $x \leq 0$  and  $y = 1$  for  $x \geq 1$  in such a way that the function, its derivative, and curvature are all continuous for all values of  $x$ .

$$\mathbf{r} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \leq 0 \\ P_5(x) & \text{if } 0 < x < 1 \\ 1 & \text{if } x \geq 1 \end{cases}$$

Hint:  $P_5(x)$  must satisfy the six conditions  $P_5(0) = 0$ ,  $P_5'(0) = 0$ ,  $P_5''(0) = 0$ ,  $P_5(1) = 1$ ,  $P_5'(1) = 0$ , and  $P_5''(1) = 0$ . Use these

the conditions to determine  $a_1, \dots, a_5$  uniquely and then find  $P(x)$ .

68. Find a curve given by a polynomial  $P(x)$  that provides a smooth transition between  $(0, 0, 0)$  and  $(x, y, z) = (1, 1, 1)$ .

69. Derive the polar coordinate curvature formula

$$\kappa = \frac{r^2 + 2(r'')^2 - r(r''')}{r^3 \sqrt{1 + (r')^2}}$$

where the derivatives are with respect to  $\theta$ .

In Problems 70–75, use the formula in Problem 69 to find the curvature  $\kappa$  of the following.

70. Circle:  $r = 1$ ,  $\theta = t$

71. Conical:  $r = \cos \theta$ ,  $\theta = t$

72. Arch:  $r = 1$ ,  $\theta = t^2$

73.  $r = 4(1 - \cos \theta)$ ,  $\theta = t$

74.  $r = 1$ ,  $\theta = t^2$

75.  $r = 4(1 - \sin \theta)$ ,  $\theta = t$

76. Show that the curvature of the polar curve  $r = e^{\theta}$  is proportional to  $1/r$ .

77. Show that the curvature of the polar curve  $r^2 = \cos 3\theta$  is directly proportional to  $r$  for  $r > 0$ .

78. Derive the first curvature formula in Theorem 4 by working directly with  $\kappa = \|\mathbf{T}'\|/\|\mathbf{r}'\|^3$ .

79. Draw the graph of  $x = 4 \cos t$ ,  $y = 3 \sin t$ ,  $z = 0.5$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$ . Estimate its maximum and minimum curvatures by looking at the graph (curvature is the reciprocal of the radius of curvature). In this case, the principal normal is  $\pm \mathbf{i}$  or  $\pm \mathbf{j}$  at every point, so the principal normal is constant along the plane.

80. Show that the unit binormal vector  $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{N}$  has the property that  $\frac{d\mathbf{B}}{ds}$  is perpendicular to  $\mathbf{D}$ .

81. Show that the unit binormal vector  $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{T} \times \mathbf{N}$  has the property that  $\frac{d\mathbf{B}}{ds}$  is perpendicular to  $\mathbf{T}$ .

82. Using the results obtained in Problems 80 and 81, show that  $\frac{d\mathbf{B}}{ds}$  must be parallel to  $\mathbf{N}$  and, consequently, there must be a number  $\tau$  (depending on  $s$ ) such that  $\frac{d\mathbf{B}}{ds} = -\tau \mathbf{N}$ . The function  $\tau(s)$  is called the torsion of the curve and measures the twist of the curve from the plane determined by  $\mathbf{T}$  and  $\mathbf{N}$ .

83. Show that an  $xy$ -plane curve has torsion 0.

84. Show that for a straight line  $\mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{r}_0 + \mathbf{d}_1 t + \mathbf{d}_2 t^2$ ,  $\mathbf{d}_1$  and  $\mathbf{d}_2$  both lie in the  $xy$ -plane.

85. A fly is crawling along a wire, held so that its position vector is  $\mathbf{r}(t) = (1 - \cos t)\mathbf{i} + (\sin t)\mathbf{j} + t\mathbf{k}$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$ . How fast will the fly be traveling when  $t = \pi$ ? How far will it travel in getting there (assuming that it started when  $t = 0$ )?

86. The DNA molecule in humans is a double helix, such with about  $10^8$  complete turns. Each helix has radius about 10 angstroms and each about 34 angstroms on each complete turn (one angstrom is  $10^{-10}$  meter). What is the diameter of such a helix?

$$\begin{aligned} & \mathbf{r}(t) = (1 - \cos t)\mathbf{i} + (\sin t)\mathbf{j} + t\mathbf{k} \\ & \mathbf{r}'(t) = \sin t \mathbf{i} + \cos t \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k} \\ & \|\mathbf{r}'(t)\| = \sqrt{\sin^2 t + \cos^2 t + 1} = \sqrt{2} \end{aligned}$$

## 11.8 Surfaces in Three-Space

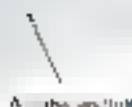


Figure 1

The graph of a vector equation involves three variables. We have seen two examples already. The graph of  $Ax + By + Cz = D$  is a plane; the graph of  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = R^2$  is a sphere. Graphing surfaces is best accomplished by finding the cross sections of the surface as we draw it along. These cross sections are called **cross sections**. Figure 1 shows the cross-section planes are also called **traces**.

### EXAMPLE 1 Sketch the graph of

$$x^2 + 2y^2 + 9z^2 = 1$$

**SOLUTION** To find the trace in the  $xy$ -plane, we set  $z = 0$  in the given equation. The graph of the resulting equation

$$\frac{x^2}{1} + \frac{y^2}{1/2} = 1$$

is an ellipse. The traces in the  $xy$ -plane and the  $xz$ -plane (obtained by setting  $y = 0$  and  $z = 0$ , respectively) are also ellipses. These three traces are shown in Figure 2 and help to provide a good visual image of the required surface (called its **traces**).



Figure 3

If the surface is very complicated it may be wise to show the cross-sections with many more points. If the surface is very complex, it may be wise to show the cross-sections with many more points. In Figure 3 we show a surface in the  $xyz$ -space. The graph of the function  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 - 1$  is shown. We will discuss more about computer-generated graphs in the next chapter.

**Example 1** You should be familiar with right circular cylinders from high school geometry. The circular cylinder with diameter 2 units in the  $xy$ -plane is shown in Figure 4.

Let  $C$  be the plane curve and  $C(t)$  a list of the coordinates of a point on the plane of  $C$ . The set of all points on the cylinder is the set of all points  $C(t) + z\mathbf{k}$ , where  $z$  is any real number. This is the cylinder (Figure 4).

Cylinders occur naturally when we graph an equation in three space. Many involve just two variables. Consider as a first example

$$z = \frac{y}{x} \quad (1)$$

in which the variable  $z$  is missing. The equation of (1) defines a curve in the  $xy$ -plane: a hyperbola. Moreover, if  $(x, y)$  satisfies the equation in (1), then

As  $z$  varies, the point  $(x, y, z)$  moves along the line  $x = x_0, y = y_0$  in all directions. We conclude that the graph of the zeroth equation is a cylinder: a hyperbolic cylinder (Figure 5).

A second example is the graph of  $z = \sin y$  (Figure 6).

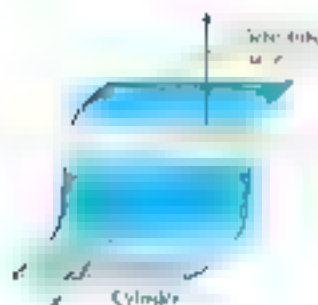


Figure 4

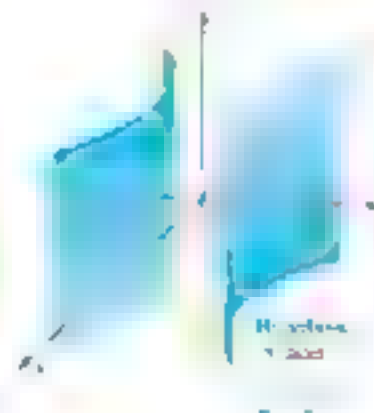


Figure 5



Figure 6

$ax^2 + by^2 + cz^2 = 1$ . If a surface is the graph in three-space of an equation of second degree in  $x$ ,  $y$ , and  $z$ , it is called a **quadratic surface**. Three sections of a quadratic surface are called

The general second-degree equation has the form

$$Ax^2 + By^2 + Cz^2 + Dxy + Exz + Fyz + Gx + Hy + Iz + J = 0$$

It can be shown that any such equation can be reduced by a translation and rotation of coordinate axes, to one of the two forms

$$\lambda x^2 + B y^2 + C z^2 + J = 0$$

or

$$\lambda x^2 - B y^2 + I z = 0$$

The quadratic surfaces represented by the first of these equations are called ellipsoids with respect to the coordinate planes and designated they are called **central quadrics**.

In Figures 7 through 12 we show six general types of quadratic surfaces. Study them carefully. The graphs were drawn by computer. We do not expect that most students will be able to draw such graphs by hand. We are including them here as a guide to making the new graphs to make it like the one that is shown in Figure 13 with our next example.

### Figure 11.8.1 Ellipsoids

ELLIPSOIDS:  $\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} + \frac{z^2}{c^2} = 1$

| Plane                  | Cross Section                 |
|------------------------|-------------------------------|
| $x$ -plane             | Ellipse                       |
| $y$ -plane             | Ellipse                       |
| $z$ -plane             | Ellipse                       |
| Parallel to $x$ -plane | Ellipse (point of elongation) |
| Parallel to $y$ -plane | Ellipse (point of elongation) |
| Parallel to $z$ -plane | Ellipse (point of elongation) |



### HYPERBOLOID OF ONE SHEET

| Plane                  | Cross Section |
|------------------------|---------------|
| $x$ -plane             | Ellipse       |
| $y$ -plane             | Hyperbola     |
| $z$ -plane             | Hyperbola     |
| Parallel to $x$ -plane | Ellipse       |
| Parallel to $y$ -plane | Hyperbola     |
| Parallel to $z$ -plane | Hyperbola     |



Figure 11.8.1



## QUADRIC SURFACES (continued)

HYPERBOLOID OF TWO SHEETS:  $\frac{x^2}{a^2} - \frac{y^2}{b^2} - \frac{z^2}{c^2} = 1$ 

| Plane                   | Curve Section          |
|-------------------------|------------------------|
| $xy$ -plane             | Hyperbola              |
| $xz$ -plane             | Hyperbola              |
| $yz$ -plane             | Empty set              |
| Parallel to $xy$ -plane | Hyperbola              |
| Parallel to $xz$ -plane | Hyperbola              |
| Parallel to $yz$ -plane | Empty set or empty set |

ELLIPTIC PARABOLOID:  $\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 2cz$ 

| Plane                   | Curve Section                |
|-------------------------|------------------------------|
| $xy$ -plane             | Point                        |
| $xz$ -plane             | Parabola                     |
| $yz$ -plane             | Parabola                     |
| Parallel to $xy$ -plane | Ellipse (empty if empty set) |
| Parallel to $xz$ -plane | Parabola                     |
| Parallel to $yz$ -plane | Parabola                     |

HYPERBOLIC PARABOLOID:  $z = \frac{y^2}{b^2} - \frac{x^2}{a^2}$ 

| Plane                   | Curve Section                            |
|-------------------------|--|
| $xy$ -plane             | Intersecting straight lines              |
| $xz$ -plane             | Parabola                                 |
| $yz$ -plane             | Parabola                                 |
| Parallel to $xy$ -plane | Hyperbola or intersecting straight lines |
| Parallel to $xz$ -plane | Parabola                                 |
| Parallel to $yz$ -plane | Parabola                                 |

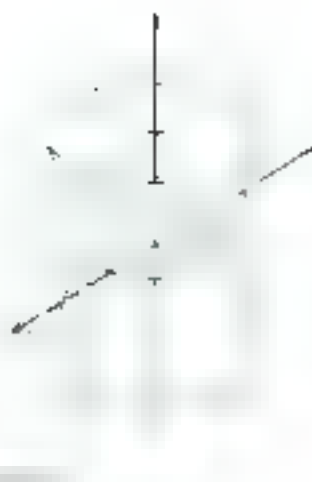


Figure 12

ELLIPTIC CONE:  $\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = cz^2$ 

| Plane                   | Curve Section                            |
|-------------------------|--|
| $xy$ -plane             | Point                                    |
| $xz$ -plane             | Intersecting straight lines              |
| $yz$ -plane             | Intersecting straight lines              |
| Parallel to $xy$ -plane | Ellipse or point                         |
| Parallel to $xz$ -plane | Hyperbola or intersecting straight lines |
| Parallel to $yz$ -plane | Hyperbola or intersecting straight lines |



**EXAMPLE 2** Analyze the equation

$$\frac{x^2}{4} + \frac{y^2}{9} = 16$$

and sketch its graph.

**SOLUTION** The traces in the three coordinate planes are obtained by setting  $0, 0, 0$  and  $x, y, z = 0$ , respectively.

|             |                                     |             |
|-------------|-------------------------------------|-------------|
| $xy$ -plane | $\frac{x^2}{4} + \frac{y^2}{9} = 1$ | an ellipse  |
| $xz$ -plane | $\frac{x^2}{4} = 16$                | a hyperbola |
| $yz$ -plane | $\frac{y^2}{9} = 16$                | a hyperbola |

These traces are graphed in Figure 11.8.2. We have also shown the cross sections in the planes  $x = 2$  and  $x = -2$ . Note that when we substitute  $\pm 2$  in the original equation we get

$$\frac{2^2}{4} + \frac{y^2}{9} = 16 \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{y^2}{9} = 15$$

which is equivalent to

$$\frac{y^2}{15} = 1$$

an ellipse.

**EXERCISES** Sketch the graph of each of the following equations.

- (a)  $x^2 + 4y^2 + 5z^2 = 100$       (b)  $x^2 + y^2 = 16$   
 (c)  $x^2 - z^2 = 0$       (d)  $9x^2 + 4x - 36y = 0$

**SOLUTIONS**

(a) Dividing both sides of this equation by  $100$  gives the form

$$\frac{x^2}{100} + \frac{y^2}{25} + \frac{z^2}{20} = 1$$

The graph is a hyperboloid of two sheets. It does not intersect the  $xy$ -plane, but cross sections in planes parallel to this plane (and at least 2 units away) are ellipses.

(b) The variable  $z$  does not appear, so the graph is a cylinder parallel to the  $z$ -axis. Since the equation can be written in the form  $(y + 4)^2 + z^2 = 16$ , its graph is a circular cylinder.

(c) Since the variable  $y$  is missing, the graph is a cylinder. The given equation can be written  $(x + z)(x - z) = 0$ , so its graph consists of the two planes  $x = z$  and  $x = -z$ .

(d) The equation can be rewritten as

$$9x^2 + 4x - 36y = 0$$

which has an elliptic paraboloid as its graph. It is symmetric with respect to the  $xz$ -axis.



## 11.9 Cylindrical and Spherical Coordinates

Given the Cartesian rectangular coordinates  $(x, y, z)$ , we can find many ways of specifying the position of a point in three space. Two of the kinds of coordinates that point to significant role in calculus are the **cylindrical coordinates**  $(r, \theta, z)$  and the **spherical coordinates**  $(\rho, \theta, \phi)$ . The meaning of the three kinds of coordinates is illustrated for the same point  $P$  in Figure 1.

The **cylindrical coordinate system** uses the polar coordinates  $r$  and  $\theta$  (Section 10.5) in place of Cartesian coordinates  $x$  and  $y$  in the plane. The  $z$  coordinate is the same as its Cartesian coordinate  $z$ . We will usually require that  $r \geq 0$  and we will require that  $0 \leq \theta < 2\pi$ .



A point  $P$  has **spherical coordinates**  $(\rho, \theta, \phi)$  if  $\rho$  is the distance  $|OP|$  from the origin to  $P$ ,  $\theta$  is the polar angle between the positive  $x$ -axis and the line segment  $OP$ , and  $\phi$  is the angle between the positive  $z$ -axis and the line segment  $OP$ . We require that

$$\rho \geq 0, \quad 0 \leq \theta < 2\pi, \quad 0 \leq \phi \leq \pi.$$

For a surface  $S$  in space, if  $S$  is a surface of symmetry about the  $z$ -axis, then we will require that the equations for  $S$  in cylindrical coordinates  $(r, \theta, z)$  be particularly the equations of  $S$  in cylindrical coordinates with  $\theta$  in symmetry (Figure 2) and also of a plane containing the  $z$ -axis (Figure 3). In Figure 3, we have allowed  $r < 0$ .

Cylindrical and spherical coordinates are related by the following equations:

$$\begin{aligned} x &= r \cos \theta & x &= \rho \sin \phi \cos \theta & \text{Figure 2} \\ y &= r \sin \theta & y &= \rho \sin \phi \sin \theta \\ z &= z & z &= \rho \cos \phi \end{aligned}$$

With these relationships, we can go back and forth between the two coordinate systems.

### EXAMPLE 1 Find:

- the Cartesian coordinates of the point with cylindrical coordinates  $(4, 2\pi/3, 5)$
- the cylindrical coordinates of the point with Cartesian coordinates  $(-5, 5, 2)$

### SOLUTION

$$\text{a) } x = 4 \cos \frac{2\pi}{3} = 4 \left(-\frac{1}{2}\right) = -2$$

$$y = 4 \sin \frac{2\pi}{3} = 4 \left(\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}\right) = 2\sqrt{3}$$

$$z = 5$$

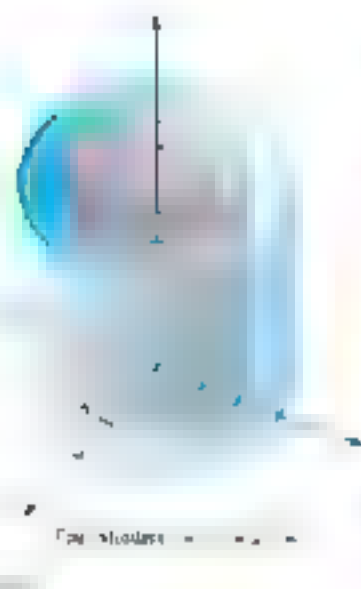


Figure 3

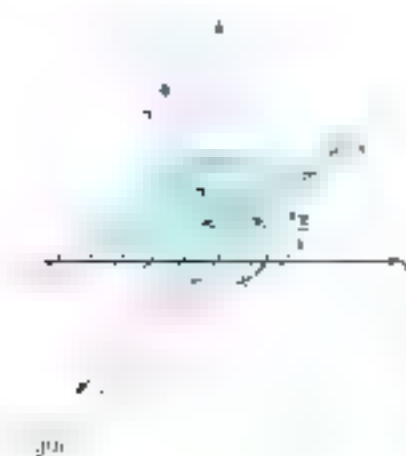


FIGURE 4

Thus, the Cartesian coordinates of  $(4, 2\pi/3, 5)$  are  $(-2, 2\sqrt{3}, 5)$ .

$$(b) \quad r = \sqrt{(-3)^2 + (-3)^2} = 5\sqrt{2}$$

$$\tan \theta = \frac{-3}{-3} = 1$$

Figure 4 indicates that  $\theta$  is between  $\pi/2$  and  $\pi$ . Since  $\tan \theta = 1$ , we must have  $\theta = 3\pi/4$ . The cylindrical coordinates of  $(-3, -3, 0)$  are  $(5\sqrt{2}, 3\pi/4, 0)$ . ■

**EXAMPLE 4** Find the equations in cylindrical coordinates of the paraboloid and cylinder whose Cartesian equations are  $x^2 + y^2 = 4 - z^2$  and  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$ .

#### SOLUTION

**Paraboloid**  $x^2 + y^2 = 4 - z^2$

**Cylinder**  $x^2 + y^2 = 4 \Leftrightarrow r^2 \cos^2 \theta + r^2 \sin^2 \theta = 4$  or (equivalently)  $r = 2 \cos \theta$

Division of an equation by a variable hides the point(s) for which the denominator is 0. For example, dividing  $x^2 + y^2 = 4 - z^2$  by  $x^2 + y^2$  and then  $r$  by  $r \cos \theta$  yields the solution  $z = 0$ . Substituting  $z = 0$  into  $x^2 + y^2 = 4 - z^2$  gives  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$ , and appears to give the solution  $r = 2 \cos \theta$ . However, the original equation is equal to 0 at  $r = 0$  as well as at  $z = 0$ . Thus  $r = 0$  is a solution and  $r = 0$  could have identical point graphs (see Figure 10 in the margin of Section 10.3). ■

**EXAMPLE 5** Find the Cartesian equations of the surfaces whose equations in cylindrical coordinates are  $r = 4 - z$  and  $r^2 \cos^2 \theta = 16$ .

**SOLUTION** Since  $r = 4 - z$ , the surface  $r = 4 - z$  has the Cartesian equation  $z^2 + x^2 + y^2 = 16$  or  $x^2/16 + y^2/16 + z^2/16 = 1$ . Its graph is an ellipsoid.

Since  $r^2 \cos^2 \theta = x^2$ , the second equation can be written  $x^2 = y^2 + z^2$ . In Cartesian coordinates it becomes  $x^2 - y^2 - z^2 = 0$ , the graph of which is a hyperbolic paraboloid. ■

**EXAMPLE 6** When a solid is a surface symmetric to a vertical axis, point-spherical coordinates are handy to play a simplifying role. For example, a sphere centered at the origin (Figure 11) has the simple equation  $\rho = a$ . Also note that the equation of a cone with axis along the  $z$ -axis and vertex at the origin (Figure 12) is  $\phi = \phi_0$ .

Let us now examine the relationships between spherical and Cartesian coordinates, and between spherical and cylindrical coordinates. The following table shows some of these relationships.

#### Spherical to Cartesian

$x = \rho \sin \phi \cos \theta$

$y = \rho \sin \phi \sin \theta$

$z = \rho \cos \phi$

#### $x, y, z$ to Spherical

$\rho = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$

$\tan \theta = y/x$

$\cos \phi = \frac{z}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}}$

FIGURE 11

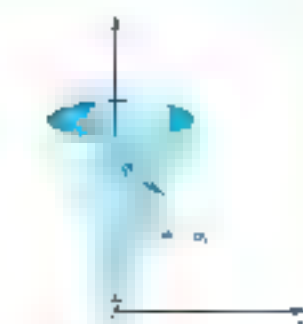
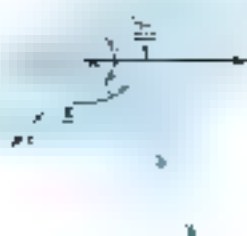


FIGURE 12

**EXAMPLE 7** Find the Cartesian coordinates of the point  $P$  with spherical coordinates  $(8, \pi/3, 2\pi/3)$ .



**SOLUTION** We have plotted the point  $P$  in Figure 7.

$$8 \sin^2 \frac{\pi}{3} \cos \frac{\pi}{3} = 8 \left( \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \right)^2 \left( \frac{1}{2} \right) = 2\sqrt{3}$$

$$r = 8 \sin \frac{\pi}{3} \cos \frac{\pi}{3} = 8 \left( \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \right) \left( \frac{1}{2} \right) = 6$$

$$8 \cos^2 \frac{\pi}{3} = 8 \left( \frac{1}{2} \right)^2 = 2$$

Thus,  $P$  has Cartesian coordinates  $(2\sqrt{3}, 6, -4)$ .

**EXAMPLE 5** Describe the graph of  $\rho = 2 \cos \phi$ .

**SOLUTION** We change to Cartesian coordinates. Multiply both sides by  $\rho$  to obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \rho^2 &= \rho^2 \cos \phi \\ x^2 + y^2 &= z^2 \end{aligned}$$

or

The graph is a sphere of radius 1 centered at the point with Cartesian coordinates  $(0, 0, 1)$ .

**EXAMPLE 6** Find the equation of the paraboloid  $z = x^2 + y^2$  in spherical coordinates.

**SOLUTION** Substituting for  $x$ ,  $y$ , and  $z$  yields

$$\rho \cos \phi = \rho^2 \sin^2 \phi \cos^2 \theta + \rho^2 \sin^2 \phi \sin^2 \theta$$

$$\rho \cos \phi = \rho^2 \sin^2 \phi (\cos^2 \theta + \sin^2 \theta)$$

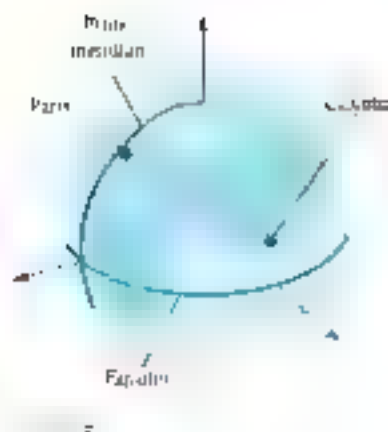
$$\rho \cos \phi = \rho^2 \sin^2 \phi$$

$$\cos \phi = \rho \sin^2 \phi$$

$$\rho = \frac{\cos \phi}{\sin^2 \phi}$$

Note that  $\phi = \pi$  yields  $\rho = 0$ , which shows that we do not have the origin when we converted  $\rho$  to the four-letter  $\rho$ .

**EXAMPLE 7** Cartographers use navigational coordinates (longitude and latitude) to specify locations on a globe (Figure 8). Suppose that the earth is a sphere with center at the origin and the positive  $x$ -axis passes through the North Pole and the positive  $y$ -axis passes through the prime meridian (Figure 8). By convention, longitude is specified in degrees east or west of the prime meridian and latitude is expressed in degrees north or south of the equator. It is a simple matter to determine spherical coordinates from longitude and



**EXAMPLE 8** Assuming the earth to be a sphere of radius 3960 miles, find the great circle distance from Paris (longitude  $2.2^\circ$ , latitude  $48.4^\circ$ ) to Calcutta (longitude  $72.9^\circ$ , latitude  $18.5^\circ$ ).

**SOLUTION** We first calculate the spherical angles from  $\phi$  in the two cities.

Paris:  $\phi = 2.2^\circ \approx 0.0384$  radian

$$\phi = 90^\circ - 48.4^\circ = 41.6^\circ \approx 0.7261$$
 radian

Calcutta:  $\phi = 72.9^\circ \approx 1.2714$  radians

$$\phi = 90^\circ - 18.5^\circ = 71.5^\circ \approx 1.2476$$
 radians



Figure 9

From these data and  $\rho = 3960$  miles we determine the Cartesian coordinates, as illustrated in Example 4.

|        |                              |
|--------|------------------------------|
| Para.  | $P_1(2627.2, 1004.2961, 3)$  |
| Cokoro | $P_2(115.1, 3662.0, 1507.6)$ |

Next, referring to Figure 9 we determine the angle between  $\vec{OP}$  and  $\vec{OP}_2$ .

$$\cos \gamma = \frac{(\vec{OP} \cdot \vec{OP}_2)}{|\vec{OP}| |\vec{OP}_2|} \approx \frac{3627.2(115.1) + 5(3662) + 3(1507.6)}{(3960)(3960)} \approx 0.3366$$

Thus  $\gamma \approx 1.1041$  radians and the great-circle distance  $d$  is

$$d = \rho\gamma = (3960)(1.1041) \approx 4372 \text{ miles}$$

## Concepts Review

- In cylindrical coordinates, the graph of  $r = b$  is and \_\_\_\_\_ in spherical coordinates, the graph of  $\rho = b$  is and \_\_\_\_\_.
- In cylindrical coordinates, the graph of  $\theta = \pi/4$  is and \_\_\_\_\_ in spherical coordinates, the graph of  $\phi = \pi/4$  is and \_\_\_\_\_.
- The equation \_\_\_\_\_ connects  $\rho$  with  $r$  and  $z$ .
- The equation  $\rho^2 = 4\rho \cos \phi$  in spherical coordinates becomes the equation \_\_\_\_\_ when written in rectangular form.

## Problem Set 11.9

1. Make a table like the one you have in Example 4 that gives the relationships between cylindrical and spherical coordinates.

2. Change the following from cylindrical to spherical coordinates.

- a.  $(4, \pi/2, 4)$                       b.  $(-2, \pi/4, 2)$

3. Change the following from cylindrical to Cartesian (rectangular) coordinates.

- a.  $(6, \pi/6, -2)$                       b.  $(4, 4\pi/3, -6)$

4. Change the following from spherical to Cartesian coordinates.

- a.  $(6, \pi/4, \pi/6)$                       b.  $(4, \pi/3, 2\pi/3)$

5. Change the following from Cartesian to spherical coordinates.

- a.  $(-1, 2, 4)$                       b.  $(-2, -2, 2)$

6. Change the following from Cartesian to cylindrical coordinates.

- a.  $(2, 2, 3)$                       b.  $(4, 3, -6, 6)$

In Problems 7–10, sketch the graph of the given cylindrical or spherical equation.

7.  $\rho = 3$                       8.  $\rho = 5$   
 9.  $\phi = \pi/4$                       10.  $\theta = \pi/4$   
 11.  $r = \cos \theta$                       12.  $r = \sin 2\theta$

13.  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$                       14.  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$   
 15.  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$                       16.  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$

In Problems 17–20, describe the graph of the given equation in the given coordinate system.

17.  $x^2 + y^2 = 9$  in cylindrical coordinates  
 18.  $x^2 + y^2 = 7^2$  in cylindrical coordinates  
 19.  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 10$  in cylindrical coordinates  
 20.  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$ ,  $z = 4$  in cylindrical coordinates  
 21.  $x^2 + y^2 = 4z^2$  in spherical coordinates  
 22.  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$  in spherical coordinates  
 23.  $\rho^2 + 2\rho^2 = 4$  in spherical coordinates  
 24.  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$  in spherical coordinates  
 25.  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$  in cylindrical coordinates  
 26.  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$  in spherical coordinates  
 27.  $x^2 + y^2 = 9$  in spherical coordinates  
 28.  $\rho = 2 \sin \theta$  in Cartesian coordinates  
 29.  $x^2 + y^2 = z$  in Cartesian coordinates  
 30.  $\rho = 2 \sin \theta$  in Cartesian coordinates

31. The parabola  $x = 2x^2$  in the  $xz$ -plane is revolved about the  $z$ -axis. Write the equation of the resulting surface in cylindrical coordinates.

32. The hyperboloid  $2x^2 - z^2 = 2$  in the  $xy$ -plane is revolved about the  $z$ -axis. Write the equation of the resulting surface in cylindrical coordinates.

33. Find the great-circle distance from St. Paul (longitude  $93^\circ$  W, latitude  $43^\circ$  N) to Cape Town (longitude  $18^\circ$  E, latitude  $33^\circ$  S). See Example 7.

34. Find the great-circle distance from New York (longitude  $74^\circ$  W, latitude  $40.4^\circ$  N) to Greenwich (longitude  $0^\circ$ , latitude  $51^\circ$  N).

35. Find the great-circle distance from St. Paul (longitude  $93^\circ$  W, latitude  $43^\circ$  N) to Turin, Italy (longitude  $7.4^\circ$  E, latitude  $45^\circ$  N).

36. What is the distance along the  $45^\circ$  parallel between St. Paul and Turin? See Problem 35.

37. How close does the great-circle route from St. Paul to Turin get to the North Pole? See Problem 35.

38. Let  $p, \theta_1, \alpha_1$  and  $p_2, \theta_2, \alpha_2$  be the spherical coordinates of two points, and let  $d$  be the straight-line distance between them. Show that

$$d^2 = (p_1 \cos \theta_1 - p_2 \cos \theta_2)^2 + (p_1 \sin \theta_1 \cos \alpha_1 - p_2 \sin \theta_2 \cos \alpha_2)^2 + (p_1 \sin \theta_1 \sin \alpha_1 - p_2 \sin \theta_2 \sin \alpha_2)^2$$

39. Let  $p, \theta_1, \alpha_1$  and  $p_2, \theta_2, \alpha_2$  be two points on the sphere  $p = a$ . Show, using Problem 38, that the great-circle distance between these points is  $ap$ , where  $\theta$  is  $\gamma$  and

$$\cos \gamma = \cos(\theta_1 - \theta_2) \cos \alpha_1 \cos \alpha_2 + \sin \theta_1 \sin \theta_2 \sin \alpha_1 \sin \alpha_2$$

40. As you may have guessed, there is a simple formula for computing great-circle distance directly in terms of longitude and latitude. Let  $(\alpha_1, \beta_1)$  and  $(\alpha_2, \beta_2)$  be the longitude-latitude coordinates of two points on the surface of the earth, where we interpret N and E as positive and S and W as negative. Show that the great-circle distance between these points is  $3960 \sin \phi$ , where

$$\sin \phi = \cos(\alpha_1 - \alpha_2) \cos \beta_1 \cos \beta_2 + \sin \beta_1 \sin \beta_2$$

41. Use Problem 40 to find the great-circle distance between each pair of places.

(a) New York and Greenwich (see Problem 34)

(b) St. Paul and Turin (see Problem 35)

(c) Turin and the South Pole, use  $\alpha_2 = \pi$

(d) New York and Cape Town, use  $\alpha_2 = 33.9^\circ$

(e) Two points on the equator with longitudes  $100^\circ$  E and  $164^\circ$  W, use  $\beta_1 = \beta_2 = 0$

42. It is easy to see that the graph of  $p = 2a \cos \phi$  is a sphere of radius  $a$  sitting on the  $xy$ -plane at the origin. But what is the graph of  $p = 2a \sin \phi$ ?

43. The graph of  $p = 2a \cos \phi$  is a sphere of radius  $a$  sitting on the  $xy$ -plane at the origin. The graph of  $p = 2a \sin \phi$  is a sphere of radius  $a$  sitting on the  $xy$ -plane at the origin. The graph of  $p = 2a \sin \phi$  is a sphere of radius  $a$  sitting on the  $xy$ -plane at the origin. The graph of  $p = 2a \sin \phi$  is a sphere of radius  $a$  sitting on the  $xy$ -plane at the origin.

## 11.10 Chapter Review

### Concepts Test

Respond with true or false to each of the following statements. Be prepared to justify your answer.

1. Each point in three-space has a unique set of Cartesian coordinates.

2. The equation  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 - 4x + 6 = 0$  represents a sphere.

3. The linear equation  $Ax + By + Cz = D$  represents a plane in three-space provided that  $A$ ,  $B$ , and  $C$  are not all zero.

4. In three-space the equation  $Ax + By + Cz = 0$  represents a line.

5. The planes  $3x - 2y + 4z = 12$  and  $3x - 2y + 4z = -12$  are parallel and 24 units apart.

6. The vector  $(1, -2, 3)$  is parallel to the plane  $x - 2y + 3z = 0$ .

7. The line  $x = 2t - 1$ ,  $y = 4t + 3$ ,  $z = 6t + 5$  goes through the point  $(5, 4, 2)$ .

8. If  $\mathbf{u} = a\mathbf{i} + b\mathbf{j} + c\mathbf{k}$  is a unit vector, then  $a$ ,  $b$ , and  $c$  are direction cosines for  $\mathbf{u}$ .

9. The vectors  $\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j}$  and  $\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j}$  are perpendicular.

10. If  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  are unit vectors, then the angle  $\theta$  between them satisfies  $\cos \theta = \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}$ .

11. The dot product for vectors satisfies the associative law.

12. If  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  are any two vectors, then  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = (\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}) \mathbf{i}$ .

13. If  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = 0$ , then  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  are perpendicular. If  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  are perpendicular, then  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = 0$ .

14. If  $\mathbf{u} = 3\mathbf{i} - 4\mathbf{j}$  and  $\mathbf{v} = 4\mathbf{i} + 3\mathbf{j}$ , then  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = 0$ .

15. If  $\mathbf{u} = 3\mathbf{i} + 4\mathbf{j}$  and  $\mathbf{v} = 4\mathbf{i} - 3\mathbf{j}$  are perpendicular, then  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = 0$ .

16. For any two vectors  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$ ,

$$(\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v})^2 = (\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u})(\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v}) = 2\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}$$

17. The vector-valued function  $f(t) = g(t)\mathbf{i} + h(t)\mathbf{j}$  is continuous at  $t = a$  if and only if  $g$  and  $h$  are continuous at  $t = a$ .

18. If  $f(t) = 3t - 2$  and  $g(t) = 4t + 1$ , then  $f(1) = 1$  and  $g(1) = 5$ .

19. For every vector  $\mathbf{u}$ ,  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u} = \|\mathbf{u}\|^2$ .

20. For every vector  $\mathbf{u}$ ,  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u} = \|\mathbf{u}\|^2$ .

21. For all vectors  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$ ,  $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v} = -\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{u}$ .

22. If  $\mathbf{u}$  is a scalar multiple of  $\mathbf{v}$ , then  $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$ .

23. The cross product of two unit vectors is a unit vector.

24. Multiplying each component of a vector  $\mathbf{v}$  by the scalar  $a$  multiplies the length of  $\mathbf{v}$  by  $|a|$ .

25. For any nonzero and nonperpendicular vectors  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  with angle  $\theta$  between them,  $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v} = \|\mathbf{u}\| \|\mathbf{v}\| \sin \theta$ .

26. If  $\mathbf{u} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$  and  $\mathbf{v} = a\mathbf{i} + b\mathbf{j} + c\mathbf{k}$ , then  $\mathbf{u} \times \mathbf{v} = (y\mathbf{i} - z\mathbf{j} + (z\mathbf{i} - y\mathbf{j}) \times \mathbf{k})$ .

27. The volume of the parallelepiped determined by  $\mathbf{u}$ ,  $\mathbf{v}$ , and  $\mathbf{w}$  is  $|\mathbf{u} \cdot (\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{w})|$ .



28. For all vectors  $u$ ,  $v$ , and  $w$

$$u \times (v \times w) \neq (u \times v) \times w$$

29. If  $u\mathbf{i} + v\mathbf{j} + w\mathbf{k}$  is a vector in the plane  $bx + cy + dz = 0$ , then  $u(b\mathbf{i} + c\mathbf{j} + d\mathbf{k}) + v(b\mathbf{j} + c\mathbf{i} + d\mathbf{k}) + w(b\mathbf{k} + c\mathbf{j} + d\mathbf{i}) = 0$ .

30. Any line can be represented by both parametric equations and symmetric equations.

31. When  $\phi = 0$  for all  $t$ , the path is a straight line.

32. An ellipse has its maximum curvature at points on the minor axis.

33. The curvature depends on the shape of the curve and the speed with which you move along the curve.

34. The curvature of the curve determined by  $x = 3t - 1$  and  $y = 4t^2$  is  $\frac{2}{3}$ .

35. The curvature of the curve determined by  $x = 2 \cos t$  and  $y = 2 \sin t$  is  $\frac{1}{2}$ .

36. If  $\mathbf{T} = \mathbf{T}(t)$  is a unit vector tangent to a smooth curve, then  $\mathbf{T}$  and  $\mathbf{T}'$  are perpendicular.

37. If  $\phi = |\mathbf{v}|$  is the speed of a particle moving along a smooth curve, then  $\phi \frac{d\mathbf{v}}{dt}$  is the magnitude of the acceleration.

38. If  $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}(t)$  and  $\mathbf{v}' = \mathbf{v}'(t)$  everywhere, then the curvature of the curve is  $\frac{|\mathbf{v}'|}{|\mathbf{v}|^2}$ .

39. If  $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}(t)$  and  $\mathbf{v}'$  is a constant, then the curvature of the curve is a constant.

40. If  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = 0$ , then either  $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{0}$  or  $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$  or both  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  are  $\mathbf{0}$ .

41. If  $\mathbf{r}'(t) = \mathbf{0}$  for all  $t$ , then  $\|\mathbf{r}'(t)\| = \text{constant}$ .

42. If  $\mathbf{v}(t) = \mathbf{v}(t)$  is constant, then  $\mathbf{v}(t) \cdot \mathbf{v}(t) = 0$ .

43. For motion along a helix,  $\mathbf{N}$  always points toward the  $z$ -axis.

44. If the velocity of the motion along the curve is of constant magnitude, then there can be no acceleration.

45.  $\mathbf{T}$ ,  $\mathbf{N}$ , and  $\mathbf{B}$  depend only on the shape of the curve and not on the speed of motion along the curve.

46. If  $\mathbf{v}$  is perpendicular to  $\mathbf{u}$ , then the speed of motion along the curve must be a constant.

47. If  $\mathbf{v}$  is perpendicular to  $\mathbf{u}$ , then the path of motion must be a circle.

48. The only curves with constant curvature are straight lines and circles.

49. The curves given by  $\mathbf{r} = \sin t \mathbf{i} + \cos t \mathbf{j} + t \mathbf{k}$  and  $\mathbf{r} = (1 + \cos t) \mathbf{j} + t \mathbf{k}$  for  $-\infty < t < \infty$  are identical.

50. The motions along the curves given by  $\mathbf{r}_1(t) = \sin t \mathbf{i} + \cos t \mathbf{j} + t \mathbf{k}$  and  $\mathbf{r}_2(t) = \sin t^2 \mathbf{i} + \cos t^2 \mathbf{j} + t^2 \mathbf{k}$  for  $0 \leq t \leq 1$  are identical.

51. The length of a given curve is independent of the parameter used to describe the curve.

52. If a curve lies in a plane then the binormal vector  $\mathbf{B}$  must be a constant.

53. If  $\mathbf{a}(t) = \mathbf{0}$  constant, then  $\mathbf{r}'(t) = \mathbf{0}$ .

54. The curve that is the intersection of the sphere  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$  and the plane  $ax + by + cz = 0$  has constant curvature.

55. The graph of the equation  $\phi = 0$  is the  $xy$ -axis; here  $\phi$  is a spherical coordinate.

56. The graph of  $y = x^2$  in three-space is a paraboloid.

57. If we restrict  $\mu$ ,  $\theta$ , and  $\phi$  by  $\mu \geq 0$ ,  $0 \leq \theta < \pi$ , and  $0 \leq \phi < 2\pi$ , then each point in three-space has a unique set of spherical coordinates.

## Sample Test Problems

1. Find the equation of the sphere that has  $(-2, -3, 4)$  and  $(4, 1, 5)$  as endpoints of a diameter.

2. Find the center and radius of the sphere with equation  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 - 6x + 2y - 4z = 0$ .

3. Let  $\mathbf{a} = 2\mathbf{i} + 3\mathbf{j}$  and  $\mathbf{b} = 4\mathbf{i} + 5\mathbf{j}$ . Find each of the following:

- |                                     |  |
|-------------------------------------|--|
| (a) $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}$   | (b) $\ \mathbf{a}\ $   |
| (c) $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$  | (d) $\ \mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}\ $                         |
| (e) $\ \mathbf{a}\  \ \mathbf{b}\ $ | (f) $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{c}$ if $\mathbf{c} = \mathbf{b}$ |

4. Find the cosine of the angle between  $\mathbf{a}$  and  $\mathbf{b}$  and make a sketch.

- |  |
|--|
| (a) $\mathbf{a} = 3\mathbf{i} + 4\mathbf{j}$ , $\mathbf{b} = 4\mathbf{i} + 3\mathbf{j}$  |
| (b) $\mathbf{a} = -3\mathbf{i} + 4\mathbf{j}$ , $\mathbf{b} = 3\mathbf{i} - 4\mathbf{j}$ |
| (c) $\mathbf{a} = 3\mathbf{i} + 4\mathbf{j}$ , $\mathbf{b} = 4\mathbf{i} + 3\mathbf{j}$  |

5. Let  $\mathbf{a} = 3\mathbf{i} + 4\mathbf{j}$ ,  $\mathbf{b} = 4\mathbf{i} + 3\mathbf{j}$ , and  $\mathbf{c} = 3\mathbf{i} + 4\mathbf{j}$ . Find each of the following if they are defined.

- |   |  |
|---|--|
| (a) $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} + \mathbf{c}$        | (b) $\mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{c}$                      |
| (c) $\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c})$ | (d) $\mathbf{a} \times (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c})$ |
| (e) $\ \mathbf{a}\  \ \mathbf{b}\ $                   | (f) $\ \mathbf{b}\  \ \mathbf{c}\ $                    |

6. Find the angle between each pair of vectors.

- |   |
|---|
| (a) $\mathbf{a} = 3\mathbf{i} + 4\mathbf{j}$ , $\mathbf{b} = 4\mathbf{i} + 3\mathbf{j}$ |
| (b) $\mathbf{a} = 3\mathbf{i} + 4\mathbf{j}$ , $\mathbf{b} = 4\mathbf{i} + 3\mathbf{j}$ |

7. Sketch the two position vectors  $\mathbf{a} = 3\mathbf{i} + 4\mathbf{j}$  and  $\mathbf{b} = 4\mathbf{i} + 3\mathbf{j}$ . Then find each of the following:

- |  |
|--|
| (a) their lengths  |
| (b) their direction cosines                                  |
| (c) the unit vector with the same direction as $\mathbf{a}$  |
| (d) the angle $\theta$ between $\mathbf{a}$ and $\mathbf{b}$ |

8. Let  $\mathbf{a} = 3\mathbf{i} + 4\mathbf{j}$ ,  $\mathbf{b} = 4\mathbf{i} + 3\mathbf{j}$ , and  $\mathbf{c} = 3\mathbf{i} + 4\mathbf{j}$ . Find each of the following:

- |  |   |
|--|---|
| (a) $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$             | (b) $\mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{c}$                    |
| (c) $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} + \mathbf{c}$ | (d) $\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{c})$ |

9. Find all vectors that are perpendicular to both of the vectors  $\mathbf{u} = 3\mathbf{i} + 4\mathbf{j}$  and  $\mathbf{v} = 4\mathbf{i} + 3\mathbf{j}$ .

10. Find the two vectors that are perpendicular to the plane determined by the three points  $(1, -6, 4)$ ,  $(2, -1, 3)$ , and  $(4, 0, 2)$ .

11. Write the equation of the plane through the point  $(-5, 2, -3)$  that satisfies each condition.

- |  |
|--|
| (a) Parallel to the $xy$ -plane              |
| (b) Perpendicular to the $x$ -axis           |
| (c) Parallel to both the $x$ - and $y$ -axes |
| (d) Parallel to the plane $3x - 4y + z = 0$  |

12. A plane through the point  $(2, -4, -5)$  is perpendicular to the line joining the points  $(-1, 5, 7)$  and  $(4, -2, 1)$ .

- |   |
|---|
| (a) Write a vector equation of the plane. |
|---|

- (b) Find a Cartesian equation of the plane.  
 (c) Sketch the plane by drawing its traces.

13. Find the value of  $C$  if the plane  $x + 5y + Cz + 6 = 0$  is perpendicular to the plane  $4x - y + z - 7 = 0$ .

14. Find a Cartesian equation of the plane through the three points  $(2, 3, 1)$ ,  $(1, 5, 2)$ , and  $(4, 2, 2)$ .

15. Find parametric equations for the line through  $(-7, 5)$  and  $(6, 2 - 3)$ .

16. Find the points where the line of intersection of the planes  $x - 7y + 4z - 14 = 0$  and  $x + 7y - 5z + 30 = 0$  pierces the  $yz$ - and  $xz$ -planes.

17. Write the equation of the line in Problem 16 in parametric form.

18. Find symmetric equations of the line through  $(4, 5, 8)$  and perpendicular to the plane  $3x + 5y + 2z = 30$ . Sketch the plane and the line.

19. Write a vector equation of the line through  $(2, -2)$  and  $(-3, 2, 4)$ .

20. Sketch the curve whose vector equation is  $\mathbf{r}(t) = (1 + \frac{1}{2}t)\mathbf{i} + t\mathbf{j} + t^2\mathbf{k}$ ,  $-2 \leq t \leq 2$ .

21. Find the symmetric equations for the tangent line to the curve of Problem 20 at the point where  $t = 2$ . Also find the equation of the normal plane at this point.

22. Find  $\mathbf{r}'(\pi/2)$ ,  $T(\pi/2)$ , and  $\mathbf{r}''(\pi/2)$  if

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = (1 + \cos t)\mathbf{i} + \sin t\mathbf{j}.$$

23. Find the length of the curve

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = e^t \sin t \mathbf{i} + e^t \cos t \mathbf{j} + e^t \mathbf{k}, \quad -1 \leq t \leq 5$$

24. Two forces  $\mathbf{F}_1 = 2\mathbf{i} - 3\mathbf{j}$  and  $\mathbf{F}_2 = 3\mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j}$  are applied at a point. What force  $\mathbf{F}$  must be applied at the point to counteract the resultant of these two forces?

25. What heading and airspeed are required for an airplane to fly 450 miles per hour due north if a wind of 100 miles per hour is blowing in the direction  $N 60^\circ E$ ?

26. If  $\mathbf{r}(t) = (e^{2t}, e^{-t})$  find each of the following:

(a)  $\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \mathbf{r}(t)$  (b)  $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\mathbf{r}(0+h) - \mathbf{r}(0)}{h}$

(c)  $\int_0^{\pi/2} \mathbf{r} \, dt$  (d)  $D_t(\mathbf{r}(t))$

(e)  $D_t(\mathbf{r}(3) + \mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j})$  (f)  $D_t(\mathbf{r}(t) \cdot \mathbf{r}(t))$

27. Find  $\mathbf{r}'(t)$  and  $\mathbf{r}''(t)$  for each of the following.

(a)  $\mathbf{r}(t) = (\ln t)\mathbf{i} - 3t^2\mathbf{j}$  (b)  $\mathbf{r}(t) = \sin t \mathbf{i} + \cos 2t \mathbf{j}$

(c)  $\mathbf{r}(t) = \tan t \mathbf{i} - t^2 \mathbf{j}$

28. Suppose that an object is moving so that its position vector at time  $t$  is

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = e^t \mathbf{i} + e^{-t} \mathbf{j} + 2t \mathbf{k}$$

Find  $\mathbf{v}(t)$ ,  $\mathbf{a}(t)$ , and  $\kappa(t)$  at  $t = \pi/2$ .

29. If  $\mathbf{r}(t) = t\mathbf{i} + t^2\mathbf{j} + t^3\mathbf{k}$  is the position vector for a moving particle at time  $t$ , find the tangential and normal components,  $a_T$  and  $a_N$ , of the acceleration vector at  $t = 1$ .

For each equation in Problems 30–38, name and sketch the graph in three-space.

30.  $x^2 + y^2 = 8$

31.  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 8$

32.  $z = 4y$

33.  $x + z = 4y$

34.  $3x - 6z - 2 = 0$

35.  $3x + y - 6z - 2 = 0$

36.  $x + y^2 - z^2 = 0$

37.  $3x^2 + 4y^2 + 9z^2 - 4y = 0$

38.  $3x + 4y^2 + 9z + 36 = 0$

39. Write the following Cartesian equations in cylindrical coordinate form.

(a)  $x + y^2 = 9$

(b)  $r^2 + 4y = 16$

(c)  $x^2 + y^2 = 9z$

(d)  $x^2 + y^2 + 4z^2 = 10$

40. Find the Cartesian equation corresponding to each of the following cylindrical coordinate equations.

(a)  $r^2 + z^2 = 9$

(b)  $r^2 \cos \theta + z^2 = 4$

(c)  $r^2 \cos 2\theta + z^2 = 1$

41. Write the following equations in spherical coordinate form.

(a)  $x + y^2 + z^2 = 4$

(b)  $2x + 2y - 7z = 1$

(c)  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$

(d)  $x^2 + y^2 = z$

42. Find the (straight-line) distance between the points whose spherical coordinates are  $(8, \pi/4, \pi/6)$  and  $(4, \pi/3, 3\pi/4)$ .

43. Find the distance between the parallel planes  $2x - 3y + \sqrt{3}z = 4$  and  $2x - 3y + \sqrt{3}z = 9$ .

44. Find the acute angle between the planes  $2x - 4y + z = 7$  and  $5x + 2y - 5z = 0$ .

45. Show that if the speed of a moving particle is constant then its velocity and acceleration vectors are orthogonal.



1. Functions of Two or More Variables
- 1.1 Partial Derivatives
- 1.2 Limits and Continuity
- 1.3 Differentiability
- 1.4 Directional Derivatives and Gradients
- 1.5 The Chain Rule
- 1.6 Tangent Planes and Approximations
- 1.7 Maxima and Minima
- 1.8 The Method of Lagrange Multipliers

## 12.1

## Functions of Two or More Variables

Two kinds of functions have been emphasized so far. The first, typified by  $f(x) = x^2$ , associates with the real number  $x$  another real number. We call a real-valued function of a real variable. The second type of function, typified by  $f(x) = x^2 + 1$ , associates with the real number  $x$  a vector  $\mathbf{v}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . We call a vector-valued function of a real variable.

Our interest now is in a **real-valued function of two real variables**, that is, a function  $f$  (Figure 1) that assigns each ordered pair  $(x, y)$  in a subset  $D$  of the plane a unique real number  $f(x, y)$ . Examples are

$$(1) \quad f(x, y) = x^2 + 3y$$

$$(2) \quad g(x, y) = 2x\sqrt{y}$$

Note that  $f(-1, 4) = (-1)^2 + 3(4) = 49$  and  $g(-1, 4) = -2\sqrt{4} = -4$ .

The set  $D$  is called the **domain** of the function. (In this respect, we take  $D$  to be the natural domain, that is, the set of all points  $(x, y)$  in the plane for which the function rule makes sense and gives a real number value.) For example, in (2)  $x$  can be any real number, but  $y$  must be nonnegative, that is,  $y \in [0, \infty)$ . The **range** of a function is the set of all values  $z = f(x, y)$  that occur. If  $x$  and  $y$  are real numbers, we call  $x$  and  $y$  the **independent variables** and  $z$  the **dependent variable**.

Although we have introduced a special way to represent quantities of three real variables (or even  $n$  real variables), we will feel free to use such functions without further comment.

**EXAMPLE 1** In the  $xy$ -plane sketch the natural domain for

$$f(x, y) = \frac{\sqrt{y - x^2}}{x^2 + (y - 1)^2}$$

**SOLUTION** For this rule to make sense, we must exclude  $x = 0$  and the point  $(0, 1)$ . The resulting domain is shown in Figure 2.

If the graph of a function of two variables were to be plotted, the equation  $z = f(x, y)$  would represent a surface. Figure 3 illustrates that each  $(x, y)$  in the domain of  $f$  corresponds to a unique vector (perpendicular to the  $xy$ -plane) intersecting the surface in at most one point.



Figure 1

Figure 2



Figure 3

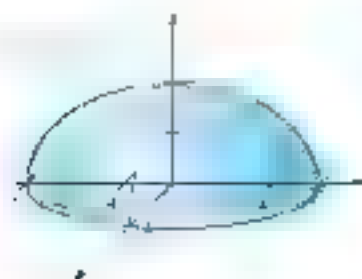


FIGURE 1

**EXAMPLE 2** Sketch the graph of  $f(x, y) = \sqrt{36 - 9x^2 - 4y^2}$ .

**SOLUTION** Let  $z = \sqrt{36 - 9x^2 - 4y^2}$  and note that  $z \geq 0$ . If we square both sides and simplify, we obtain the equation

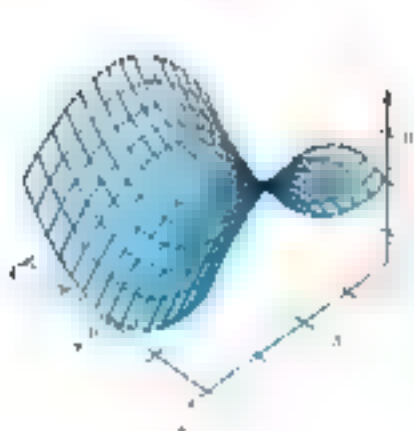
$$9x^2 + 4y^2 + 9z^2 = 36$$

which we recognize as the equation of an ellipsoid (see Section 11.4). The graph of the given function is the upper half of this ellipsoid. It is shown in Figure 2.

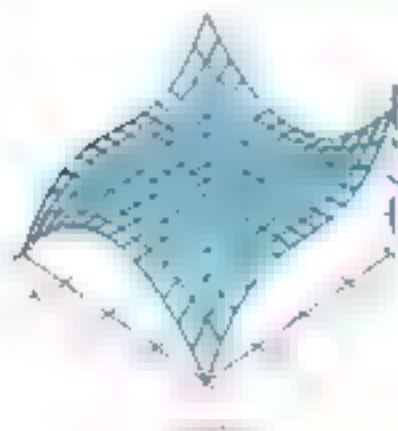
**EXAMPLE 3** Sketch the graph of  $f(x, y) = y^2 - x^2$ .

**SOLUTION** The graph is a hyperbolic paraboloid (see Section 11.2); it is graphed in Figure 3.

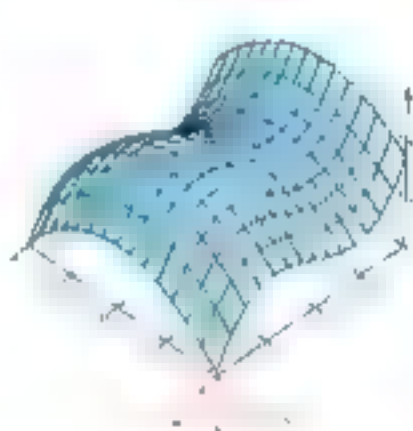
**FIGURE 3** A number of real-world packages, including Mathematica, can produce complicated three-dimensional graphs, such as those in Figure 4. Although it is slow, the  $xy$ - $yz$  and  $xz$ - $yz$  planes are useful in sketching the surface. To sketch the graph with the  $xy$ - $yz$  axes, project the surface onto the  $xy$ -plane, sketch the projection in the plane of the paper, and, with the aid of the axes in a  $xy$ - $yz$  coordinate system, sketch the graph. To sketch the graph with the  $xz$ - $yz$  axes, project the surface onto the  $xz$ -plane, sketch the projection in the plane of the paper, and, with the aid of the axes in a  $xz$ - $yz$  coordinate system, sketch the graph. The axes are labeled with tick marks near the center of the axis that it represents.



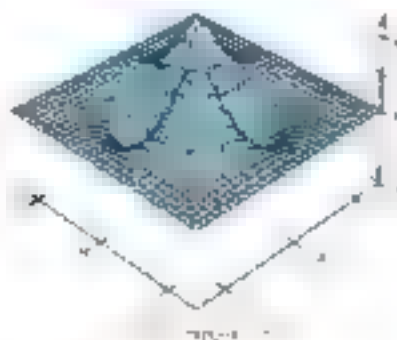
(a)



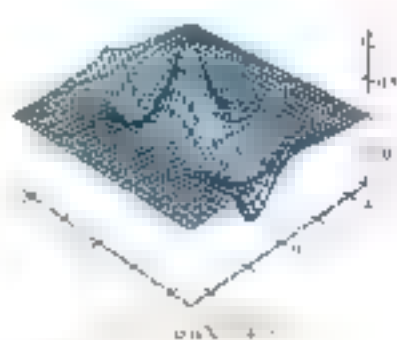
(b)



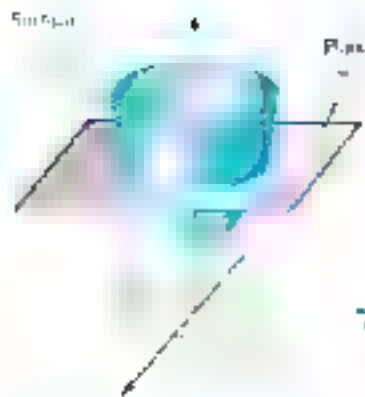
(c)



(d)



(e)



To sketch the surface corresponding to the graph of a function  $z = f(x, y)$  of two variables is often very difficult. Map makers have given us another and usually simpler way to picture a surface: the contour map. Each horizontal plane  $z = c$  intersects the surface in a curve. The projection of this curve on the  $xy$ -plane is called a **level curve** (Figure 12) and a line joining such curves is a **contour plot** or a **contour map**. We show a contour map for a hill-shaped surface in Figure 13.

We will often draw contours on the three-dimensional graph itself, as is done in the top diagram in Figure 14. When this is done we will usually make the  $z$ -axis go away from the viewer and the  $x$ -axis go to the right. This will help us to see the connection between the three-dimensional plot and the contour plot.

**EXAMPLE 4** Draw contour maps for the surfaces corresponding to  $z = 4 - 9x^2 - y^2$  and  $z = y^2 + x^2$  (see Examples 2 and 3, and Figures 1 and 5).

**SOLUTION** The level curves of  $z = 4 - 9x^2 - y^2 = 4 - u^2$  corresponding to  $z = 0, 1, 1.5, 1.75, 2$  are shown in Figure 12. They are ellipses. Similarly, in  $z = y^2 + x^2$  we show the level curves of  $z = x^2 + y^2$  for  $z = .5, 1, 2, 3, 4$ . These curves are hyperbolas unless  $z = 0$ . The level curve for  $z = 0$  is a pair of intersecting lines. ■

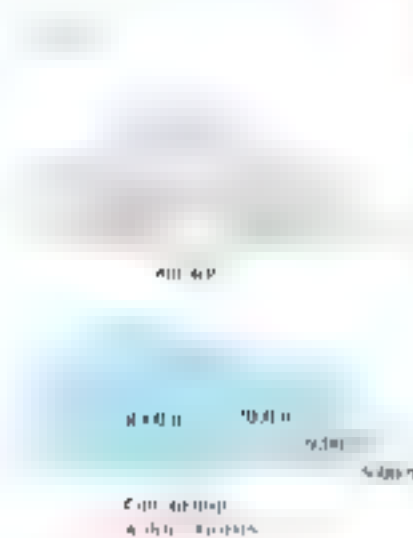


Figure 12

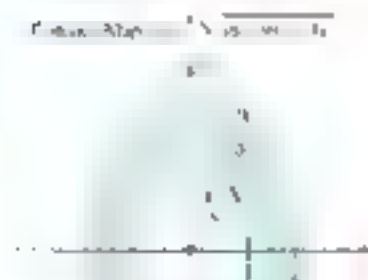


Figure 12

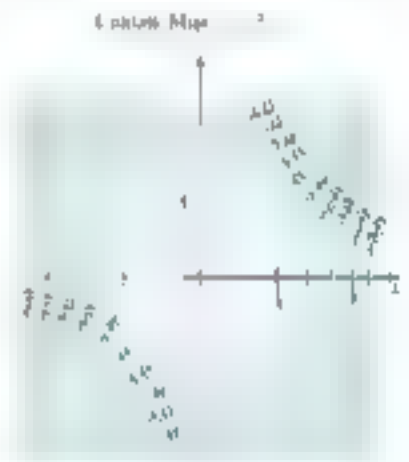


Figure 13

**EXAMPLE 5** Sketch a contour map for  $z = f(x, y) = xy$ .

**SOLUTION** The level curves corresponding to  $z = 4$  and  $z = -4$  are shown in Figure 14. It can be shown that the level curves for  $z = c$  consist of hyperbolas (see the contour map of Figure 14 with that of Figure 2). This suggests that the graph of  $z = xy$  might be a hyperbolic paraboloid but with axes rotated through  $45^\circ$ . We suggest in Figure 15

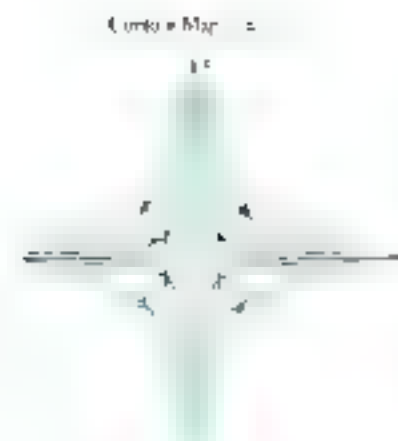


Figure 14

**Computer Graphs and Level Curves** In Figures 14 through 19, we have drawn the main surfaces but we have also shown the corresponding level curves. A third plot is a three-dimensional plot with level curves on the surface. In Figure 16 we have plotted the  $xy$ -plane as well as the  $z$ -axis and  $x$ -axis to make it easier to relate the surface and the level curves.

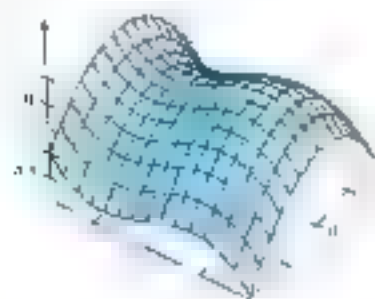


Figure 12.10.1

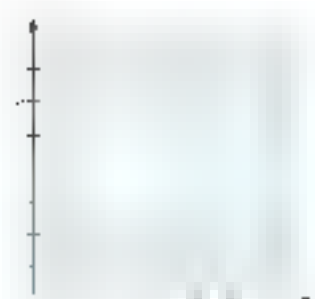
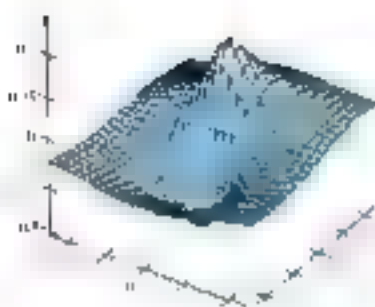
Figure 12.10.2  $f(x, y) = x^2 - y^2$   
 $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} x > 0, y > 0 \\ x < 0, y < 0 \end{array} \right.$ Figure 12.10.3  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$   
 $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} x > 0, y > 0 \\ x < 0, y < 0 \end{array} \right.$ 

Figure 12.10.4

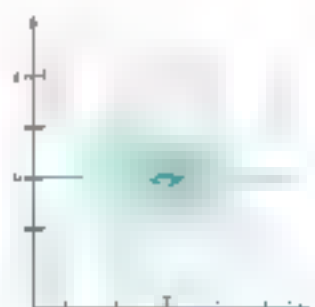
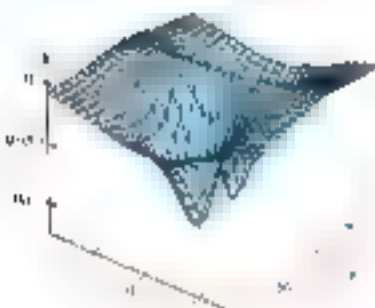
Figure 12.10.5  $f(x, y) = x^2 - y^2 + 1$   
 $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} x > 0, y > 0 \\ x < 0, y < 0 \end{array} \right.$ Figure 12.10.6  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 + 1$   
 $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} x > 0, y > 0 \\ x < 0, y < 0 \end{array} \right.$ 

Figure 12.10.7

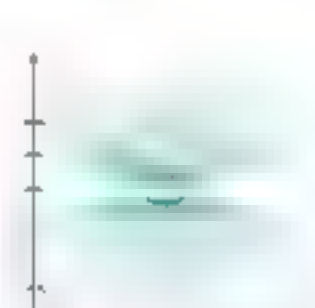
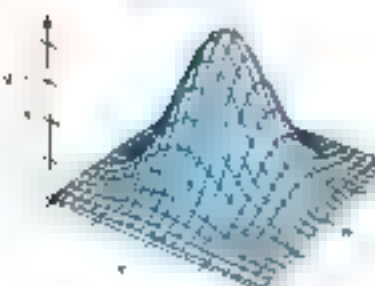
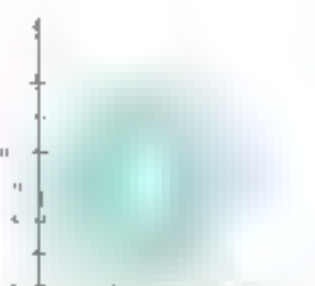
Figure 12.10.8  $f(x, y) = x^2 - y^2 - 1$   
 $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} x > 0, y > 0 \\ x < 0, y < 0 \end{array} \right.$ Figure 12.10.9  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 - 1$   
 $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} x > 0, y > 0 \\ x < 0, y < 0 \end{array} \right.$ 

Figure 12.10.10

Figure 12.10.11  $f(x, y) = x^2 - y^2 + 2$   
 $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} x > 0, y > 0 \\ x < 0, y < 0 \end{array} \right.$ Figure 12.10.12  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 + 2$   
 $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} x > 0, y > 0 \\ x < 0, y < 0 \end{array} \right.$





Let  $z = f(x, y, t)$ . A number of quantities depend on three or more variables. For example, the temperature in a large auditorium may depend on the location  $(x, y, t)$ . This leads to the function  $T(x, y, t)$ . The value of a fund may depend on the location  $(x, y, t)$ , or we can assume that it leads to the function  $V(x, y, t, r)$ . Finally the average exam score in a class of 50 students depends on the 50 exam scores  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{50}$ , thus leads to the function  $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{50})$ .

We can visualize functions of three variables by plotting **level surfaces**, that is, surfaces in three-dimensional space that lead to a constant value for the function. Functions of four or more variables are much more difficult to visualize. The natural domain of a function of three or more variables is the set of all ordered triples (quadruples, etc.) in which the projection makes sense and gives a real number.

**EXAMPLE 1.1** Find the domain of each function and describe its level surfaces for  $f$ .

- (a)  $f(x, y, z) = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2} - 1$   
 (b)  $g(x, y, z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{4 - x^2 - y^2 - z^2}}$

**SOLUTION**

- (a) To avoid taking a negative number, the radicand of the square root must satisfy  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 - 1 \geq 0$ . Thus, the domain for  $f$  consists of all points  $(x, y, z)$  that are on or outside the unit sphere. Level surfaces for  $f$  are surfaces in which  $\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2} - 1 = c$  for where  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2} - 1 + c = c$ . As long as  $c \geq 0$ , this equation leads to  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = c^2$ , a sphere centered at the origin. Level surfaces are therefore concentric spheres centered at the origin.  
 (b) The ordered quadruple  $(x, y, z, t)$  must satisfy  $4 - x^2 - y^2 - z^2 > 0$ , since we must avoid roots of negative numbers and division by 0.

**EXAMPLE 1.2** Let  $F(x, y, z) = z - x^2 - y^2$ . Describe the level surfaces of  $F$  and plot level surfaces for  $-1 \leq z \leq 2$ .

**SOLUTION** The relationship  $F(x, y, z) = z - x^2 - y^2 = c$  leads to  $z = x^2 + y^2 + c$ . This is a paraboloid opening upward, having its vertex at  $(0, 0, c)$ . The level surfaces are shown in Figure 22.

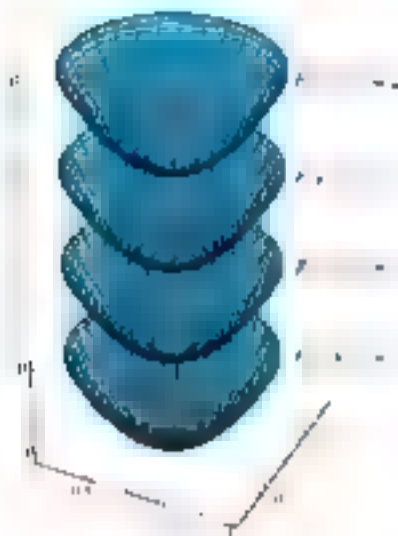


Figure 23

## Concepts Review

A function is determined by \_\_\_\_\_, \_\_\_\_\_, and \_\_\_\_\_.

1. The projection of the curve  $z = f(x, y) = c$  to the  $xy$ -plane is called an \_\_\_\_\_, and a collection of such curves is called a(n) \_\_\_\_\_.

3. The contour map for  $z = x^2 + y^2$  consists of \_\_\_\_\_.

4. The contour map for  $z = x^2$  consists of \_\_\_\_\_.

## Problem Set 12.1

1. Let  $f(x, y) = x^2y + \sqrt{y}$ . Find each value.  
 (a)  $f(2, 1)$  (b)  $f(7, 0)$   
 (c)  $f(-4)$  (d)  $f(a, a^2)$   
 (e)  $f(-1, 3 + \sqrt{3})$  (f)  $f(2, -4)$

What is the natural domain for this function?

2. Let  $g(x, y) = \sqrt{y}, x + \sqrt{y}$ . Find each value.

- (a)  $f(1, 2)$  (b)  $f_{xy}(4)$   
 (c)  $f(2, \frac{1}{4})$  (d)  $f(a, a)$   
 (e)  $f(1, x, x^2)$  (f)  $f(a, 0)$

What is the natural domain for this function?

3. Let  $g(x, y) = x + \sqrt{y}$ . Find each value.  
 (a)  $g(1, -2)$  (b)  $g(2, 1 + \sqrt{6})$

(c)  $g(4, 2, \pi, 4)$       (d)  $g(\pi, \pi, \pi)$   
 4. Let  $g(x, y, z) = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$ . Find each value.

(a)  $g(4, 0, 3)$       (b)  $g^2(0, \pi, 3)$   
 (c)  $g(2, \pi, 3, -4)$       (d)  $g(3, 0, 1, 2)$

5. Find  $F(f(t), g(t))$  if  $F(x, y) = x^2 + y$  and  $f(t) = 3 \cos t$ ,  $g(t) = \frac{1}{\sin^2 t}$ .

6. Find  $F(f(t), g(t))$  if  $F(x, y) = e^x + y^2$  and  $f(t) = \ln x^2$ ,  $g(t) = t^3$ .

In Problems 7–16, sketch the graph of

7.  $f(x, y) = 6$       8.  $f(x, y) = x + y$

9.  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$       10.  $f(x, y) = 0$

11.  $f(x, y) = \sqrt{16 - x^2 - y^2}$

12.  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 - 4$

13.  $f(x, y) = 3 - x^2 - y^2$       14.  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$

15.  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 + 1$       16.  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 - 1$

In Problems 17–23, sketch the level curve  $z = k$  for the indicated value of  $k$ .

17.  $z = 9(x^2 + y^2)$ ,  $k = 0, 1, 4, 9$

18.  $z = x^2 + y^2$ ,  $k = 0, 1, 4, 9$

19.  $z = \frac{A}{y}$ ,  $A = -4, -1, 0, 1$

20.  $z = x^2 + y^2$ ,  $k = 0, 1, 4, 9$

21.  $z = \frac{x^2}{4} + \frac{y^2}{9}$ ,  $k = 1, 2, 4$

22.  $z = x^2 + y^2 + 1$ ,  $k = 0, 1, 4, 9$

23. Let  $T(x, y)$  be the temperature at a point  $(x, y)$  in the plane. Draw the level curves corresponding to  $T = \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, 0$ .

$$T = \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2}$$

24. If  $V(x, y)$  is the voltage at a point  $(x, y)$  in the plane, the level curves of  $V$  are called **equipotential curves**. Draw the equipotential curves corresponding to  $V = 1, 2, 4$  for

$$V = \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2}$$

25. Figure 20 shows isotherms for the United States.

- (a) Which of San Francisco, Denver, and New York had approximately the same temperature as St. Louis?  
 (b) If you were in Kansas City and wanted to drive toward cool or warmer as quickly as possible, in which direction would you go? What if you were in St. Louis? What if you were in Denver?

26. You are a citizen of Kansas City in which direction could you go and not be approximately the same temperature?

27. Figure 21 shows isotherms in the high mountain pressure in midlevel clouds in the convection mesocyclone called **isolines**.

- (a) What part of the country has the lowest barometric pressure? The highest?  
 (b) If you were in St. Louis, in which direction would you have to travel to move as fast as possible toward lower barometric pressure? Higher barometric pressure?

28. If you were leaving St. Louis in which direction could you go or could you remain at approximately the same barometric pressure?



In Problems 29–33, describe geometrically the domain of each of the indicated functions of three variables.

29.  $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$

30.  $z = \sqrt{1 - x^2 - y^2}$

31.  $z = \sqrt{16 - x^2 - y^2}$

32.  $z = \sqrt{1 - x^2 - y^2}$

33.  $z = \sqrt{1 - x^2 - y^2}$

34.  $z = \sqrt{1 - x^2 - y^2}$

35.  $z = \sqrt{1 - x^2 - y^2}$

In Problems 36–40, describe geometrically the domain of each of the indicated functions of three variables.

36.  $z = \sqrt{1 - x^2 - y^2}$

37.  $z = \sqrt{1 - x^2 - y^2}$

38.  $z = \sqrt{1 - x^2 - y^2}$

39.  $z = \sqrt{1 - x^2 - y^2}$

40.  $z = \sqrt{1 - x^2 - y^2}$

41.  $z = \sqrt{1 - x^2 - y^2}$

42.  $z = \sqrt{1 - x^2 - y^2}$

43.  $f(x, y, z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}}$

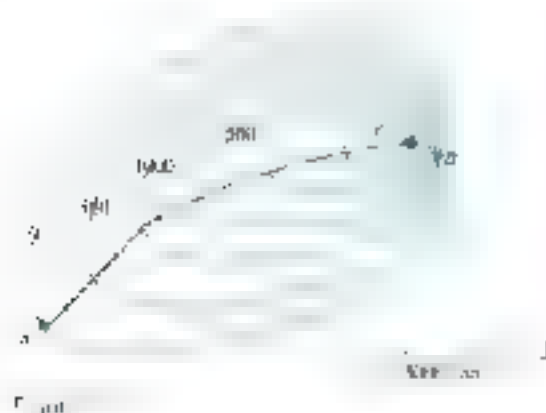
44.  $f(x, y, z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}}$

45.  $f(x, y, z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}}$

46. Sketch (as best you can) the graph of the monkey saddle  $z = x^3 - 3xy^2$ . Begin by noting where  $z = 0$ .

47. The contour map in Figure 24 shows level curves for a mountain 3000 feet high.

- (a) What is special about the path to the top labeled AC? What is special about BC?  
 (b) Make good estimates of the total lengths of path AC and path BC.



42. Identify the graph of  $f(x, y) = x^2 + x + 3y^2 + 4y + 13$ . State whether it attains an optimum value, and find the minimum value.

43. For each of the functions in Problems 43–45, draw the graph and the corresponding domain.

43.  $f(x, y) = \sin \sqrt{2x^2 + y^2}$ ,  $1 \leq x \leq 2$ ,  $0 \leq y \leq 1$

44.  $f(x, y) = \sin \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ ,  $0 \leq x \leq 2$ ,  $0 \leq y \leq 2$

45.  $f(x, y) = \sin \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ ,  $x^2 + y^2 \leq 1$ ,  $x^2 + y^2 \leq 2$

46.  $f(x, y) = \sin x \sin y / (1 + x^2 + y^2)$ ,  $1 \leq x \leq 2$ ,  $0 \leq y \leq 1$

47. For each of the functions in Problems 47–50, evaluate the function at its extreme values. Is there a local extreme? Is there a global extreme? Are there any saddle points? Are there any lines of local extrema?

## 12.2 Partial Derivatives

Suppose that  $f$  is a function of two variables  $x$  and  $y$ . If  $y$  is held constant (say  $y = y_0$ ), then  $f(x, y_0)$  is a function of the single variable  $x$ . Let us denote it by  $f_1(x, y_0)$  and call the partial derivative of  $f$  with respect to  $x$  at  $(x_0, y_0)$  the  $x$ -derivative  $f'_1(x_0, y_0)$ . Thus,

$$f'_1(x_0, y_0) = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x_0 + \Delta x, y_0) - f(x_0, y_0)}{\Delta x}.$$

Similarly, the partial derivative of  $f$  with respect to  $y$  at  $(x_0, y_0)$  is denoted by  $f'_2(x_0, y_0)$  and is given by

$$f'_2(x_0, y_0) = \lim_{\Delta y \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x_0, y_0 + \Delta y) - f(x_0, y_0)}{\Delta y}.$$

Rather than calculate  $f'_1$  and  $f'_2$  directly from the limit definition, we find  $f'_1$  and  $f'_2$  by using the standard rules of differentiation, then we substitute  $x = x_0$  and  $y = y_0$ . The key point here is that the rules for differentiating a function of one variable (Chapter 2) work for finding partial derivatives, as long as we hold one variable fixed.

**EXAMPLE 1** Find  $f'_1(1, 2)$  and  $f'_2(1, 2)$  if  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y + 3y^3$ .

**SOLUTION** To find  $f'_1(x, y)$ , we treat  $y$  as a constant and differentiate with respect to  $x$ , obtaining

$$f'_1(x, y) = 2xy = 0.$$

Thus,

$$f'_1(1, 2) = 2 \cdot 1 \cdot 2 = 4.$$

Similarly, we treat  $x$  as a constant and differentiate with respect to  $y$ , obtaining

$$f'_2(x, y) = 1 + 9y^2 = 9.$$

and so

$$f'_2(1, 2) = 1 + 9 \cdot 2^2 = 37. \quad \blacksquare$$

If  $z = f(x, y)$ , we use the following alternative notations:

$$\begin{array}{lcl} z = f(x, y) & \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x, y) & f_x(x, y) \\ & \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}(x, y) & f_y(x, y) \\ & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}(x, y) & f_{xx}(x, y) \\ & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}(x, y) & f_{xy}(x, y) \end{array}$$

The symbol  $\partial$  is special to mathematics and is called the partial derivative sign. The symbols  $\frac{\partial}{\partial x}$  and  $\frac{\partial}{\partial y}$  represent partial operators, much like the other operators  $D$  and  $\frac{d}{dx}$  that we encountered in Chapter 2.

**EXAMPLE 1** Find  $f_x$  and  $f_y$  for  $f(x, y) = \sin(xy^2)$  and  $z = \sin t$ .

**SOLUTION**

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} &= \sin(xy^2) \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(xy^2) = y^2 \sin(xy^2) \\ \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} &= \cos(xy^2) \cdot \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(xy^2) = 2xy \cos(xy^2) \\ \frac{\partial z}{\partial t} &= \cos t \cdot \frac{\partial}{\partial t} t = \cos t \end{aligned}$$

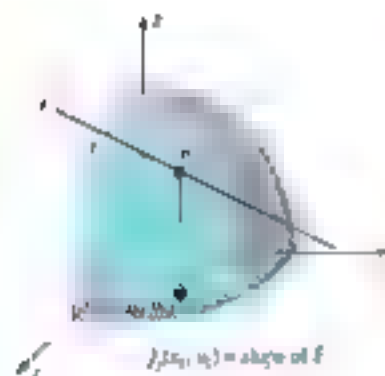
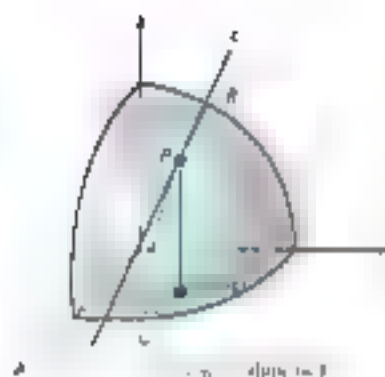


Figure 2



Figure 1 shows a surface  $z = f(x, y)$  in the  $xyz$ -space. The point  $P$  is on the surface. The vertical line segment connects  $P$  to the  $xy$ -plane. The height of the surface at the point  $P$  is  $z = f(x, y)$ . The partial derivative  $f_x(x, y)$  is the slope of the tangent line to the surface at the point  $P$  in the direction of the  $x$ -axis.

Figure 2 shows the same surface  $z = f(x, y)$  in the  $xyz$ -space. The point  $P$  is on the surface. The vertical line segment connects  $P$  to the  $xy$ -plane. The height of the surface at the point  $P$  is  $z = f(x, y)$ . The partial derivative  $f_y(x, y)$  is the slope of the tangent line to the surface at the point  $P$  in the direction of the  $y$ -axis.

**EXAMPLE 2** Find the partial derivatives of  $f(x, y) = \sqrt{2x^2 + y^2}$  at the point  $(1, 1)$ .

**SOLUTION**

$$f(x, y) = \sqrt{2x^2 + y^2} = (2x^2 + y^2)^{1/2}$$

and so  $f_x(x, y) = \frac{1}{2}(2x^2 + y^2)^{-1/2} \cdot 4x = \frac{2x}{\sqrt{2x^2 + y^2}}$ . This number is the slope of the tangent line to the curve at  $(1, 1)$ . The partial derivative  $f_y(x, y)$  is the slope of the tangent line to the curve at  $(1, 1)$ . The partial derivative  $f_y(x, y)$  is the slope of the tangent line to the curve at  $(1, 1)$ .

$$f_y(x, y) = \frac{1}{2}(2x^2 + y^2)^{-1/2} \cdot 2y = \frac{y}{\sqrt{2x^2 + y^2}}$$

provide the required parametric equations.

**EXAMPLE 4** The volume of a certain gas is related to its temperature  $T$  and its pressure  $P$  by the gas law  $PT = 0.7$ , where  $V$  is measured in cubic inches,  $P$  in pounds per square inch, and  $T$  in degrees Kelvin. If  $V$  is kept constant, what is the rate of change of pressure with respect to temperature when  $T = 200^\circ$ ?

**SOLUTION** Since  $P = 0.7/V$

$$\frac{\partial P}{\partial T} = 0$$

Thus

$$\left. \frac{\partial P}{\partial T} \right|_{T=200, V=0.0035} = \frac{10}{80} = \frac{1}{8}$$

Thus the pressure is increasing at the rate of  $\frac{1}{8}$  pound per square inch per degree Kelvin.

**THEOREM 12.1** If  $f$  is a function of two variables, then the partial derivatives of  $f$  with respect to  $x$  and  $y$  are given by the following formulas. (Note that the order of differentiation does not matter.)

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right) &= \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right) &= \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} \right) &= \frac{\partial^3 f}{\partial x^2 \partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left( \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} \right) &= \frac{\partial^3 f}{\partial x \partial y^2} \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 5** Find the third-order partial derivatives of

$$f(x, y) = xy^2 + \sin x + x^2y^3$$

**SOLUTION**

$$f_x(x, y) = y^2 + \cos x + 2xy^3$$

$$f_{xx}(x, y) = -\sin x + 2y^3$$

$$f_{xxx}(x, y) = -\cos x$$

$$f_{xy}(x, y) = 2y + 6x^2y^2$$

$$f_{xyx}(x, y) = 2 + 12xy^2$$

$$f_{xyy}(x, y) = 2 + 12xy^2$$

Notice that in Example 5  $f_{xy} = f_{yx}$ , which is usually the case for the functions of two variables encountered in a first course. A criterion for this equality will be given in Section 12.3 (Theorem C).

Partial derivatives of the third and higher orders are defined analogously, and the notation for them is similar. Thus if  $f$  is a function of the two variables  $x$  and  $y$ , the third-order derivative obtained by differentiating  $f$  three times with respect to  $x$  and then twice with respect to  $y$  will be indicated by

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left\{ \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x \partial y} \left( \frac{\partial^3 f}{\partial x^2 \partial y} \right) \right\} = \frac{\partial^5 f}{\partial x^3 \partial y^2}$$

Altogether there are eight third partial derivatives.

Let  $f$  be a function of three variables,  $x$ ,  $y$ , and  $z$ . The **partial derivative of  $f$  with respect to  $x$**  at  $(x_0, y_0, z_0)$  is denoted by  $f_x(x_0, y_0, z_0)$  or  $f_x(x_0, y_0, z_0)$  and is defined by

$$f_x(x_0, y_0, z_0) = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x_0 + \Delta x, y_0, z_0) - f(x_0, y_0, z_0)}{\Delta x}$$

Thus  $f_x(x_0, y_0, z_0)$  may be obtained by treating  $y$  and  $z$  as constants and differentiating with respect to  $x$ .

The partial derivatives with respect to  $y$  and  $z$  are defined in an analogous way. Partial derivatives of functions of two or more variables are defined similarly (see Problem 49). Partial derivatives such as  $f_{xy}$  and  $f_{yx}$  are called **mixed partial derivatives**.

**EXAMPLE 4** If  $f(x, y, z) = xy + 2yz + 3xz$  find  $f_x$ ,  $f_y$ , and  $f_z$ .

**SOLUTION** To get  $f_x$ , we think of  $y$  and  $z$  as constants and differentiate with respect to the variable  $x$ . Thus,

$$f_x = y + 2z + 3z = y + 5z$$

To find  $f_y$ , we treat  $x$  and  $z$  as constants and differentiate with respect to  $y$ .

$$f_y = x + 2z$$

Similarly,

$$f_z = 2y + 3x$$

**EXAMPLE 5** If  $T(u, x, y, z) = 20e^{u^2 + y^2 + z^2}$  find all four partial derivatives and  $\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial u \partial y}$ ,  $\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial x \partial u}$ , and  $\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial y \partial z}$ .

**SOLUTION** The four first partials are

$$\begin{aligned} T_u &= 40ue^{u^2 + y^2 + z^2} = 20e^{u^2 + y^2 + z^2} \cdot 2u \\ T_x &= 0 \\ T_y &= 40ye^{u^2 + y^2 + z^2} = 20e^{u^2 + y^2 + z^2} \cdot 2y \\ T_z &= 40ze^{u^2 + y^2 + z^2} = 20e^{u^2 + y^2 + z^2} \cdot 2z \end{aligned}$$

The other partial derivatives are

$$\begin{aligned} T_{uy} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (40ue^{u^2 + y^2 + z^2}) = 40ue^{u^2 + y^2 + z^2} \cdot 2y = 80yue^{u^2 + y^2 + z^2} \\ T_{yx} &= 0 \\ T_{xu} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial u} (0) = 0 \\ T_{ux} &= 0 \\ T_{yz} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial z} (40ye^{u^2 + y^2 + z^2}) = 40ye^{u^2 + y^2 + z^2} \cdot 2z = 80yze^{u^2 + y^2 + z^2} \\ T_{zy} &= 80yze^{u^2 + y^2 + z^2} \\ T_{zu} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial u} (40ze^{u^2 + y^2 + z^2}) = 40ze^{u^2 + y^2 + z^2} \cdot 2u = 80uze^{u^2 + y^2 + z^2} \\ T_{uz} &= 80uze^{u^2 + y^2 + z^2} \end{aligned}$$

## Concepts Review

- As a limit,  $f_x(x_0, y_0, z_0)$  is defined by \_\_\_\_\_ and is called the \_\_\_\_\_.
- If  $f(x, y) = e^x + y^2$ , then  $f_x(1, 2) = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$  and  $f_y(1, 2) = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$ .
- Another notation for  $f_{xy}(x, y)$  is \_\_\_\_\_.
- If  $f(x, y) = g(x) + h(y)$ , then  $f_{xy}(x, y) = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$ .

## Problem Set 12.2

In Problems 1–10, find all first partial derivatives of each function.

- $z = x^2 + y^2 - 2x + y$
- $z = x^2 + y^2 + xz$
- $z = x^2 + y^2 + \frac{1}{xy}$
- $z = x^2 + y^2 + e^{\cos x}$
- $f(x, y) = \sin^{-1} y$
- $f(x, y) = \ln(x + y)$
- $z = x^2 + y^2 + \ln x$
- $u(x, y, z) = e^x$
- $z(x, y) = \sin^{-1} x$
- $u(x, y, z) = \ln(x + y)$
- $f(x, y) = y \cos x$
- $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 + \ln x$
- $F(x, y) = \sin x + \cos y$
- $f(x, y) = \sin x$

In Problems 11–20, verify that

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x}$$

- $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 + x^2 y$
- $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 + x^2 y^2$
- $f(x, y) = 3e^{xy} \cos y$
- $f(x, y) = 3e^{xy} \sin y$
- If  $F(x, y) = \frac{xy}{x^2 + y^2}$ , find  $F_x(3, -2)$  and  $F_y(3, -2)$ .
- If  $F(x, y) = \ln(x^2 + y^2 + 1)$ , find  $F_x(1, 4)$  and  $F_y(1, 4)$ .
- If  $f(x, y) = \sin(x + y)$ , find  $f_x(0, 0)$  and  $f_y(0, 0)$ .
- If  $f(x, y) = \sin(x + y)$ , find  $f_x(0, 0)$  and  $f_y(0, 0)$ .
- If  $f(x, y) = e^x$  with  $x = y$ , find  $f_x(1, 1)$  and  $f_y(1, 1)$ .
- Find the slope of the tangent to the curve of intersection of the surface  $30x = 4x^2 + 9y^2$  and the plane  $x = 3$  at the point  $(3, 2, 3)$ .
- Find the slope of the tangent to the curve of intersection of the surface  $3z = \sqrt{4x^2 + 9y^2 + 9}$  and the plane  $z = 1$  at the point  $(2, 1, 1)$ .
- Find the slope of the tangent to the curve of intersection of the cylinder  $4x^2 + 9y^2 + z^2 = 4$  and the plane  $z = 1$  at the point  $(2, 1, 1)$ .
- The volume  $V$  of a right circular cylinder is given by  $V = \pi r^2 h$ , where  $r$  is the radius and  $h$  is the height. If  $h$  is held fixed at  $h = 1$  inches, find the rate of change of  $V$  with respect to  $r$  when  $r = 4$  inches.
- The temperature in degrees Celsius on a metal plate in the domain given by  $x^2 + y^2 \leq 4$  is  $W(x, y) = 4x^2 + 3y^2$ . Find the change of temperature with respect to distance in the  $xy$ -plane if we start moving from  $(1, 2)$  in the direction of the positive  $y$ -axis.
- According to the ideal gas law, the pressure, temperature, and volume of a gas are related by  $PV = kT$ , where  $k$  is a

constant. Find the rate of change of pressure (pounds per square inch) with respect to temperature when the temperature is  $40^\circ \text{K}$  and the volume is kept fixed at 11 cubic inches.

32. Show that the partials of Problem

$$f(x, y) = \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2} \quad \text{and} \quad f(x, y) = \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2}$$

33 are solutions of Laplace's Equation.

$$\nabla^2 u = 0$$

is said to be harmonic. Show that the functions defined in Problems 34 and 35 are harmonic functions.

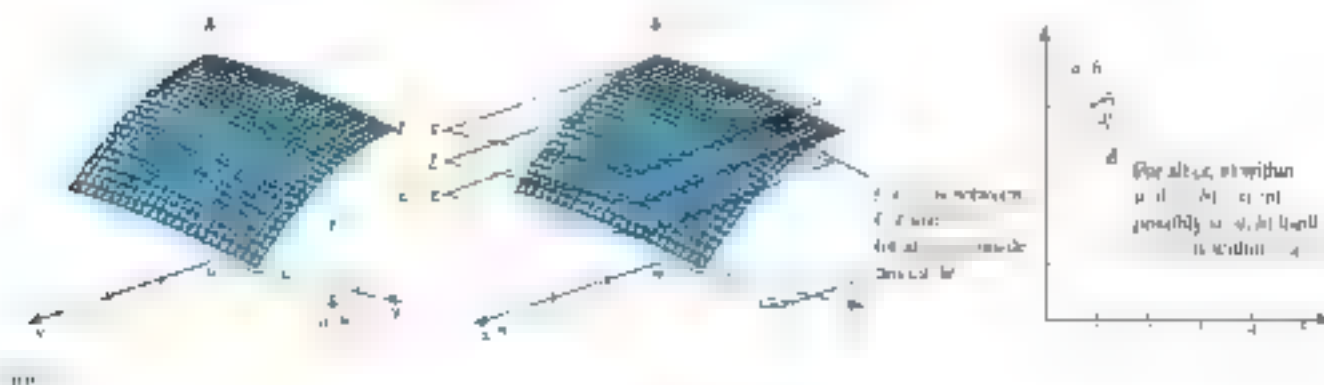
- $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 + 1$
- $f(x, y) = \ln(4x^2 + 9y^2)$
- If  $F(x, y) = 3x^2 y^2 + 2x + y^2$  find  $F_x(x, y)$  and  $F_y(x, y)$ .
- If  $f(x, y) = \cos(2x^2 + y^2)$ , find  $f_x(x, y)$  and  $f_y(x, y)$ .
- Express the following in rectangular coordinates:
  - $f_{xy}$
  - $f_{xy}$
  - $f_{xy}$
- Express the following in cylindrical coordinates:
  - $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2 + \partial y^2}$
  - $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2 + \partial y^2}$
  - $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2 + \partial y^2}$
- If  $f(x, y, z) = (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^2$  find each of the following:
  - $f_x(1, 1, 1)$
  - $f_y(1, 1, 1)$
  - $f_z(1, 1, 1)$
- If  $f(x, y, z) = e^{-x^2 - y^2 - z^2}$ , find  $f_x(x, y, z)$ .
- If  $f(x, y, z) = (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^2$  find each of the following:
  - $f_x(1, 1, 1)$
  - $f_y(1, 1, 1)$
  - $f_z(1, 1, 1)$

- If  $f(x, y, z) = e^{-x^2 - y^2 - z^2}$ , find  $f_x(x, y, z)$ .
- If  $f(x, y, z) = (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^2$  find each of the following:
  - $f_x(1, 1, 1)$
  - $f_y(1, 1, 1)$
  - $f_z(1, 1, 1)$
- A bee was flying straight along the curve that is the intersection of  $z = x^2 + y^2 + 12$  with the plane  $z = 1$ . At the point  $(1, 2, 5)$ , it went off on the tangent line. Where did the bee hit the  $xy$ -plane? (See Example 3.)
- Let  $A(x, y)$  be the area of a nondegenerate rectangle of dimensions  $x$  and  $y$  (the rectangle being inside a circle of radius 10). Determine the domain and range for this function.
- The interval  $(0, \pi)$  is to be separated into three pieces by making cuts at  $a$  and  $c$ . Let  $A(c, a)$  be the area of any nondegenerate triangle that can be formed from these three pieces. Determine the domain and range for this function.
- The wave equation  $c^2 \nabla^2 u / \Delta t^2 = \partial^2 u / \partial t^2$  and the heat equation  $c \nabla^2 u / \Delta x^2 = \partial u / \partial t$  are two of the three important equations in physics ( $c$  is a constant). These are called partial differential equations. Show each of the following:
  - $u = \sin x \cos y$  and  $u = \cos x \sin y$  satisfy the wave equation.
  - $u = e^{-x^2 - y^2}$  and  $u = e^{-x^2 - y^2}$  satisfy the heat equation.





(within  $\delta$  with a distance being measured by  $\sqrt{(x-a)^2 + (y-b)^2}$ ). Compare this definition with the definition of limit given in Chapter 1 and the definition of a vector-valued function given in Chapter 11; the similarities will be obvious.



Note several aspects of this definition:

1. The path of approach to  $(a, b)$  is irrelevant. This means that if different paths of approach lead to different  $L$ -values then the limit does not exist.
2. The  $L$ -value of  $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (a,b)} f(x,y)$  is irrelevant, so  $L$  does not even have to be defined at  $(a, b)$ . This follows from the restriction  $0 < \|(x, y) - (a, b)\|$ . The definition is phrased so that it automatically excludes  $(a, b)$  from the  $\delta$ -disk. **Example:** Suppose  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$  and  $(a, b) = (0, 0)$ . Then  $L = 0$  whenever they exist.

We might expect this definition to apply to many functions and be limited by solving it. This was true for many (but certainly not all) functions of two variables. For example, we note a function that satisfies every condition of the definition, we prove a few theorems. A **polynomial** in the variables  $x$  and  $y$  is a function of the form

$$f(x, y) = \sum_{i=0}^n \sum_{j=0}^m c_{ij} x^i y^j$$

and a **rational function** in the variables  $x$  and  $y$  is a function of the form

$$f(x, y) = \frac{p(x, y)}{q(x, y)}$$

where  $p$  and  $q$  are polynomials in  $x$  and  $y$  (assuming  $q$  is not identically zero). The following theorem is analogous to Theorem 1.34.

### Theorem 12.1

If  $f(x, y)$  is a polynomial, then

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (a,b)} f(x, y) = f(a, b),$$

and if  $f(x, y) = p(x, y)/q(x, y)$ , where  $p$  and  $q$  are polynomials, then

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (a,b)} f(x, y) = \frac{p(a, b)}{q(a, b)}$$

provided  $q(a, b) \neq 0$ . Furthermore if

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (a,b)} p(x, y) = L \neq 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (a,b)} q(x, y) = 0$$

then

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (a,b)} f(x, y)$$

does not exist.

**EXAMPLE 1** Evaluate the following limits if they exist.

(a)  $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} (x + 3y)$  and (b)  $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{x^2 - y^2 + 1}{x^2 + y^2 + 1}$

**SOLUTION**

(a) The function whose limit we seek is a polynomial, so by Theorem A

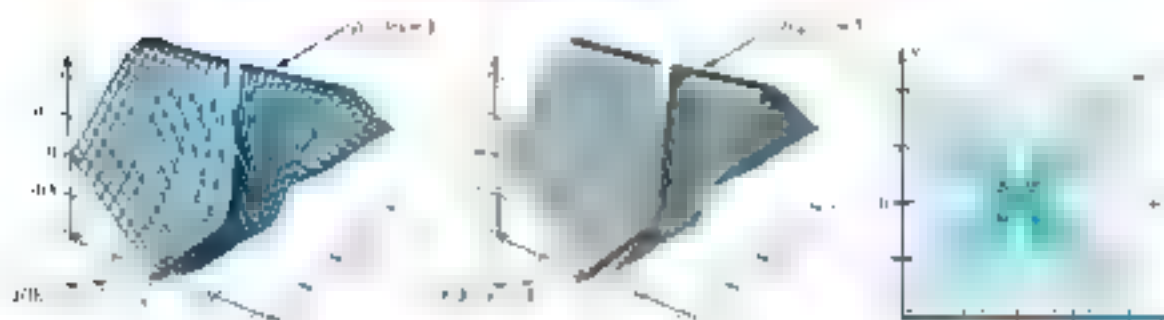
$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} (x + 3y) = 0 + 3(0) = 0.$$

(b) The second function is a rational function, but the limit of the denominator is equal to 0 when  $(x, y)$  is the origin, so the limit does not exist. Thus, by Theorem A, the limit does not exist.  $\blacksquare$

**EXAMPLE 2** Show that the function defined by

$$f(x, y) = \frac{xy}{x^2 + y^2}$$

has no limit at the origin (Figure 1).



**SOLUTION** The function  $f(x, y) = \frac{xy}{x^2 + y^2}$  is continuous everywhere except at the origin. As all points on the  $x$ -axis do, let  $(x, y)$  approach the origin along the  $x$ -axis:

$$f(x, 0) = \frac{x \cdot 0}{x^2 + 0} = 0$$

Thus, the limit of  $f(x, y)$  as  $(x, y)$  approaches  $(0, 0)$  along the  $x$ -axis is

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} f(x, y) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} 0 = 0.$$

Similarly, the limit of  $f(x, y)$  as  $(x, y)$  approaches  $(0, 0)$  along the  $y$ -axis is

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} f(0, y) = \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \frac{0 \cdot y}{0 + y^2} = 0.$$

Thus, we get different values depending on how  $(x, y) \rightarrow (0, 0)$ . In fact, there are points arbitrarily close to  $(0, 0)$  at which the value of  $f$  is as close to 0 as we like, equally close at which the value of  $f$  is 1. Therefore, the limit cannot exist at  $(0, 0)$ .  $\blacksquare$

It is often easier to analyze limits of functions of two variables, especially limits at the origin, by changing to polar coordinates. The reason for this is that  $(x, y) \rightarrow (0, 0)$  if and only if  $r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \rightarrow 0$ . Thus, limits for functions of two variables can sometimes be expressed as limits involving only the variable  $r$ .

**EXAMPLE 3** Evaluate the following limits if they exist.

(a)  $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{\sin(x^2 + y^2) + r}{x^2 + y^2}$  and (b)  $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{x^2}{x^2 + y^2}$

#### Polar Coordinates for Example 2

We use polar coordinates to show that the limit in Example 2 does not exist.

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{xy}{x^2 + y^2} = \lim_{r \rightarrow 0} \frac{r^2 \cos \theta \sin \theta}{r^2}$$

$$= \lim_{r \rightarrow 0} \cos \theta \sin \theta$$

$$= \cos \theta \sin \theta$$

which takes on  $\infty$  values near  $\theta = 0$  and in every neighborhood of  $(0, 0)$ . We conclude that the limit does not exist.

**SOLUTION**

(a) Changing to polar coordinates and using l'Hôpital's Rule, we have

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{\sin(x^2 + y^2)}{x^2 + y^2} = \lim_{\theta \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin \theta}{\theta} = \frac{1}{1} = 1 \quad \text{by l'Hôpital's Rule}$$

(b) Again changing to polar coordinates yields

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{x}{x^2 + y^2} = \lim_{\theta \rightarrow 0} \frac{r \cos \theta}{r^2} = \lim_{\theta \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos \theta}{r} \quad \text{as } r \sin \theta \rightarrow 0$$

Since this limit depends on  $\theta$ , various line paths to the origin will lead to different limits. Thus, the limit does not exist. ■

**Definition 1** Let  $f(x, y)$  be a function of two variables. We say that  $f$  is **continuous** at  $(a, b)$  if  $f$  has a value at  $(a, b)$  and, for all  $(x, y)$ , the value of  $f$  at  $(x, y)$  is equal to the limit of  $f$  as  $(x, y)$  approaches  $(a, b)$ . We require that

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (a,b)} f(x, y) = f(a, b).$$

This is exactly the same requirement for continuity of a function of one variable. In fact, this again means that  $f$  has no jumps, holes, or unbounded behavior at  $(a, b)$ .

The next theorem can be used to say that  $f$  is continuous at a point  $(a, b)$  if  $f$  is a function that is formed from other functions everywhere except where the denominator is equal to 0. For the most serious difficulties, we discuss functions that are continuous but whose denominators are equal to 0 at some points. We finish this section by giving these results along with theorems that can be used to establish the continuity of many functions of two variables.

**Theorem B Composition of Functions**

If  $f$  is a function of two variables that is continuous at  $(a, b)$  and if  $g$  is a function of one variable that is continuous at  $g(a, b)$ , then  $f \circ g$  is a function of two variables that is continuous at  $(a, b)$ . (If  $f \circ g(x, y) = f(g(x, y))$  is continuous at  $(a, b)$ .)

The proof of this theorem is similar to the proof of Theorem 14.1.

**Example 1** Describe the points  $(x, y)$  for which the following functions are continuous.

(a)  $H(x, y) = \frac{x^2 + y^2}{y - 4x^2}$

(b)  $F(x, y) = \cos(x - 4xy + y^2)$

**SOLUTION**

(a) If  $f(x, y)$  is a rational function, it is continuous everywhere where the denominator is not 0. The denominator,  $y - 4x^2$ , is equal to zero along the parabola  $y = 4x^2$ . Thus,  $H(x, y)$  is continuous for all  $(x, y)$  except those along the parabola  $y = 4x^2$ .

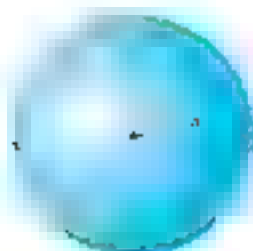
(b) The function  $f(t) = \cos t$  is a basic function, being continuous everywhere. All  $(x, y)$ . Also,  $f(t) = \cos t$  is continuous for every real number  $t$ . We conclude from Theorem B that  $F(x, y)$  is continuous for all  $(x, y)$ . ■

**Continuous on a Set** To say that  $f(x, y)$  is continuous on a set  $S$  might mean that  $f(x, y)$  is continuous at every point of the set. It does in our definition, but here are some subtleties connected with this definition that need to be cleared up.

First, we need to introduce some terminology. In  $n$ -space, the neighborhood of a point  $P$  is the set of all points  $Q$  such that  $|PQ| < \delta$ . In two-space a neighborhood is the "inside" of a circle; in three space, it is the inside of a sphere (Figure 4). A point  $P$

$\delta$

A neighborhood of three-space



A neighborhood in three-space

Figure 4



is an **interior point** of a set  $S$  if there is a neighborhood of  $P$  contained in  $S$ . The set of all interior points of  $S$  is the **interior** of  $S$ . On the other hand,  $P$  is a **boundary point** of  $S$  if every neighborhood of  $P$  contains points that are in  $S$  and points that are not in  $S$ . The set of all boundary points of  $S$  is called the **boundary** of  $S$ . In Figure 9,  $A$  is an interior point and  $B$  is a boundary point. A set is **open** if all its points are interior points, and it is **closed** if it contains all its boundary points. This is possible for a set to be neither open nor closed. This incidentally explains the use of open intervals and closed intervals in one-dimensional space. Finally, if  $S$  is **bounded** if there exists an  $R > 0$  such that all  $(x, y) \in S$  are within a circle of radius  $R$  centered at the origin.

If  $S$  is an open set, to say that  $f$  is continuous on  $S$  means precisely that  $f$  is continuous at every point of  $S$ . On the other hand, if  $S$  contains some of all its boundary points, we must be careful to give  $S$  the full point-set topology. In such points recall that in one space we had to talk about left and right neighborhoods of the end points of an interval  $f$  so that  $f$  is continuous at a boundary point  $P$  of  $S$  means that  $f(P)$  must approach  $f(P)$  as  $(x, y)$  approaches  $P$  through points of  $S$ .

Here is an example that will be particularly useful when we have more to say in Chapter 12. Let

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x^2 + y^2 < 1 \\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

If  $S$  is the set  $\{(x, y) : x^2 + y^2 < 1\}$  it is correct to say that  $f(x, y)$  is continuous on  $S$ . On the other hand it would be incorrect to say that  $f(x, y)$  is continuous on the whole plane.

We said in Section 12.2 that for most functions of two variables studied in a first course,  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2 \partial y^2}$  (that is, the order of differentiation) makes no difference. Now this statement is proved, and this result can be simply stated.

### THEOREM 12.3 Equality of Mixed Partial

If  $f_x$  and  $f_y$  are continuous on an open set  $S$ , then  $f_{xy} = f_{yx}$  at each point of  $S$ .

A proof of this theorem is given in books on advanced calculus. A counterexample for which continuity of  $f_{xy}$  is lacking is given in Problem 42.

Our discussion of continuity has dealt mainly with functions of two variables. We have seen that making the simple changes that are required to describe continuity for functions of three or more variables.

## Concepts Review

1. In intuitive language, to say that  $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (a,b)} f(x, y)$  means that  $f(x, y)$  gets close to \_\_\_\_\_ when \_\_\_\_\_.
2. For  $f(x, y)$  to be continuous at  $(c, d)$  means that \_\_\_\_\_.
3. The point  $P$  is an interior point of set  $S$  if there is a neighborhood of  $P$  that is \_\_\_\_\_.
4. The set  $S$  is open if every point of  $S$  is \_\_\_\_\_;  $S$  is closed if \_\_\_\_\_.

## Problem Set 12.1

In Problems 1–16, find the indicated limit or state that it does not exist.

1.  $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{x^2 + y^2}{x^2 + y^2 + 1}$

2.  $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{x^2 + y^2}{x^2 + y^2 + 1}$

3.  $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \left[ \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2} \sin(xy) \right]$

4.  $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{x^2 + 3xy + 2y^2}{x^2 + y^2}$

5.  $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{x^2 + y^2}{x^2 + y^2 + 1}$

6.  $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{x^2 + y^2}{x^2 + y^2 + 1}$

7.  $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{x^2 + y^2}{x^2 + y^2 + 1}$

8.  $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{x^2 + y^2}{x^2 + y^2 + 1}$

9.  $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{x^2 + y^2}{x^2 + y^2 + 1}$

10.  $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{x^2 + y^2}{x^2 + y^2 + 1}$

11.  $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{x^2 + y^2}{x^2 + y^2 + 1}$

12.  $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{x^2 + y^2}{x^2 + y^2 + 1}$

13.  $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{x^2 + y^2}{x^2 + y^2 + 1}$

14.  $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{x^2 + y^2}{x^2 + y^2 + 1}$

15.  $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{x^2 + y^2}{x^2 + y^2 + 1}$

16.  $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{x^2 + y^2}{x^2 + y^2 + 1}$

In Problems 17–19, describe the largest set  $S$  in which  $f$  is continuous or any other  $f$  is continuous.

17.  $f(x, y) = \frac{x^2 + y^2}{x^2 + y^2 + 1}$

18.  $f(x, y) = \frac{x^2 + y^2}{x^2 + y^2 + 1}$

19.  $f(x, y) = \frac{x^2 + y^2}{x^2 + y^2 + 1}$

20.  $f(x, y) = \frac{x^2 + y^2}{x^2 + y^2 + 1}$

21.  $f(x, y) = \frac{x^2 + y^2}{x^2 + y^2 + 1}$

22.  $f(x, y) = \frac{x^2 + y^2}{x^2 + y^2 + 1}$

23.  $f(x, y) = \frac{x^2 + y^2}{x^2 + y^2 + 1}$

24.  $f(x, y) = \frac{x^2 + y^2}{x^2 + y^2 + 1}$

25.  $f(x, y, z) = \frac{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}{x^2 + y^2 + z^2 + 1}$

26.  $f(x, y, z) = \frac{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}{x^2 + y^2 + z^2 + 1}$

In Problems 27–32, sketch the indicated set. Describe the boundary of the set. Finally, state whether the set is open, closed, or neither.

27.  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$

28.  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$

29.  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$

30.  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$

31.  $x, y \geq 0$  and  $x^2 + y^2 \leq 4$

32.  $f(x, y, z) = 0, y \geq 0$ , for positive values

33. Let

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} \frac{4 - x^2 - y^2}{x^2 + y^2} & (x, y) \neq (0, 0) \\ 0 & (x, y) = (0, 0) \end{cases}$$

If  $f$  is continuous in the whole plane, find a formula for  $f(x, y)$ .

34. Find  $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} f(x, y)$ 

$$f(x, y) = \frac{x^2 + y^2}{x^2 + y^2 + 1}$$

$$= \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} f(x, y) + \lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} g(x, y)$$

provided that the latter two limits exist.

35. Show that

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{x^2 + y^2}{x^2 + y^2 + 1}$$

does not exist by considering one path in the origin along the  $x$ -axis and another path along the line  $y = x$ .

36. Show that

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} \frac{x^2 + y^2}{x^2 + y^2 + 1}$$

does not exist.

37. Let  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$ .

(a) Show that  $f(x, y) \rightarrow 0$  as  $(x, y) \rightarrow (0, 0)$  along any straight line  $y = mx$ .

(b) Show that  $f(x, y) \rightarrow 0$  as  $(x, y) \rightarrow (0, 0)$  along the parabolic  $y = x^2$ .

(c) What conclusion do you draw?

38. Let  $f(x, y)$  be the shortest distance that a raindrop falling at latitude  $x$  and longitude  $y$  to the state  $W$ . (Latitude must never be north or south. Where in  $W$  should it be? Justify your conclusion.)

39. Let  $H$  be the hemispherical shell  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$ ,  $0 \leq z \leq 1$  shown in Figure 12.1, and let  $D = \{(x, y, z) : 1 \leq x \leq 2\}$ . For each function defined below, determine the set of discontinuities within  $D$ .

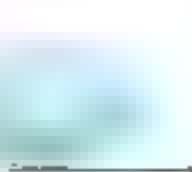
(a)  $f(x, y, z)$  is the time required for a particle dropped from  $(x, y, z)$  to reach the level  $z = 0$ .

(b)  $f(x, y, z)$  is the area of the circle in  $H$  bounded uniquely that can be seen from  $(x, y, z)$ .

(c)  $f(x, y, z)$  is the area of the shadow of  $H$  on the  $xy$ -plane due to a point light source at  $(2, 1, 1)$ .

(d)  $f(x, y, z)$  is the distance along the shortest path from  $(x, y, z)$  to  $(0, 0, 0)$  that does not penetrate  $H$ .

39.



39.

40. Let  $f$  a function of  $n$  variables, be continuous on an open set  $D$ , and suppose that  $P_0$  is in  $D$  with  $f(P_0) > 0$ . Prove that there is a  $\delta > 0$  such that  $f(P) > 0$  in a neighborhood of  $P_0$  with radius  $\delta$ .

41. The French Railroad System, that Paris is located at the origin of the  $xy$ -plane. Rail lines emanate from Paris along all rays, and these are the only rail lines. Determine the set of discontinuities of the following functions.

- (a)  $f(x, y)$  is the distance from  $(x, y)$  to  $(1, 0)$  on the French railroad.  
 (b)  $g(x, y, z, v)$  is the distance from  $(x, y)$  to  $(z, v)$  on the French railroad.

42. Let  $f(x, y, z) = \frac{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}{x^2 + y^2 + z^2 + 1}$  and  $f(0, 0) = 0$ .

Show that  $f$  is not differentiable by considering the following steps:

- (a) Show that  $f_x(0, 0) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(h, 0, 0) - f(0, 0, 0)}{h} = 0$  for all  $h$ .  
 (b) Similarly show that  $f_y(0, 0) = 0$  for all  $h$ .  
 (c) Show that  $f$  has the form  $f(x, y, z) = \frac{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}{x^2 + y^2 + z^2 + 1}$ .  
 (d) Similarly show that  $f_{zz}(0, 0) = 1$ .

43. Plot the graph of the function mentioned in Problem 42. Try to see why this surface is sometimes called the dog saddle?

44. Plot the graphs of each of the following functions on  $-2 \leq x \leq 2$ ,  $-2 \leq y \leq 2$  and determine where do they are discontinuous.

- (a)  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$ ,  $f(0, 0) = 0$   
 (b)  $f(x, y) = \tan(x + y)$ ,  $f(0, 0) = 0$

45. Plot the graph of  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$  in an orientation that illustrates its unusual characteristics (see Problem 3).

46. Use definition 12.4 to show that a point  $(a, b, c)$  is not a limit point of a set  $S$  in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  if and only if there is a neighborhood of  $(a, b, c)$  that contains no points of  $S$ .

47. Show that the function defined by

$$f(x, y, z) = \begin{cases} \frac{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}{x^2 + y^2 + z^2 + 1} & \text{if } (x, y, z) \neq (0, 0, 0) \\ 0 & \text{if } (x, y, z) = (0, 0, 0) \end{cases}$$

and  $f(0, 0, 0) = 0$  is not continuous at  $(0, 0, 0)$ .

48. Show that the function defined by

$$f(x, y, z) = \begin{cases} \frac{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}{x^2 + y^2 + z^2 + 1} & \text{if } (x, y, z) \neq (0, 0, 0) \\ 1 & \text{if } (x, y, z) = (0, 0, 0) \end{cases}$$

is not continuous at  $(0, 0, 0)$ .

49. Use the definition 12.4 to show that a point  $(a, b, c)$  is not a limit point of a set  $S$  in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  if and only if there is a neighborhood of  $(a, b, c)$  that contains no points of  $S$ .

50. Use the definition 12.4 to show that a point  $(a, b, c)$  is not a limit point of a set  $S$  in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  if and only if there is a neighborhood of  $(a, b, c)$  that contains no points of  $S$ .

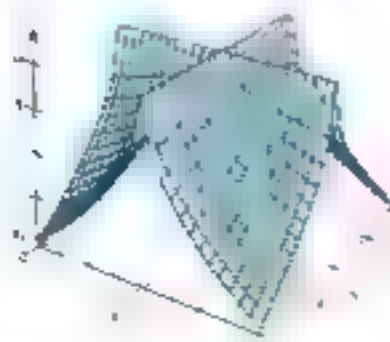
## 12.4 Differentiability

For a function of a single variable differentiability of  $f$  at a point  $a$  is a consequence of the existence of  $f'(a)$ . There is a theorem which states that a function  $f$  has a unique vertical tangent line at  $a$ .

Now we ask: What is the right concept of differentiability for a function of several variables? Since it is not adequate to use the notion of a unique vertical tangent plane and clearly this requires more than one variable, we must consider lines of  $f$  for they reflect the behavior of  $f$  along all directions (in emphasis, this point), therefore

$$f(x, y) = -10\sqrt{1-x^2}$$

which is shown in Figure 12.4. Note that  $f(0, 0) = 0$  and  $f_x(0, 0) = 0$ . Both exist and are finite. So we would expect that the graph has a unique tangent plane at  $(0, 0, 0)$ . The catch is, of course, that the graph of  $f$  is not well approximated there by any plane (in other words, the  $xy$ -plane) except in two directions. As a result, the tangent plane does not make the graph very well in all directions.



Consider a second question: What plays the role of the derivative for a function of two variables? As in the case of derivatives of a function of one variable, there are two answers to this question because there are two of them.

To answer these two questions, we start by downplaying the distinction between the point  $(x, y)$  and the vector  $\mathbf{u} = (u, v)$ . (Thus we write  $\mathbf{p} = (x, y)$  and  $f(\mathbf{p}) = f(x, y)$ .) Recall that

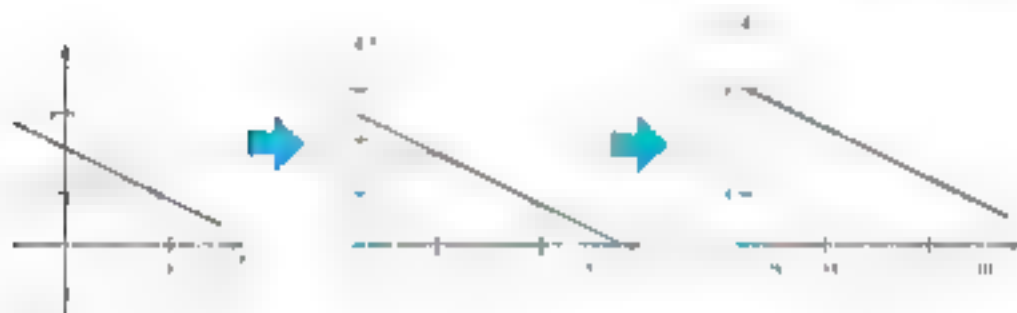
$$(1) \quad f'(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(\mathbf{p} + h\mathbf{i}) - f(\mathbf{p})}{h}$$

The analog would seem to be

$$(2) \quad f'(\mathbf{p}_0) = \lim_{\mathbf{p} \rightarrow \mathbf{p}_0} \frac{f(\mathbf{p}) - f(\mathbf{p}_0)}{\mathbf{p} - \mathbf{p}_0} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(\mathbf{p}_0 + h\mathbf{i}) - f(\mathbf{p}_0)}{h}$$

But, unfortunately, the division by a vector makes no sense.

But let us not give up too quickly. Another way to look at differentiability of a function of one variable is to think of it as follows: If  $f$  is differentiable at  $a$ , then there exists a tangent line to the graph of  $f$  at  $a$  that approximates the function  $f$  (up to a factor). In other words,  $f$  is almost linear near  $a$ . Figure 12.1 illustrates this for a function of one variable as we zoom in on the graph. We see that the tangent line and the function become almost indistinguishable.



To be more precise, we say that a function  $f$  is **locally linear at  $a$**  if there is a constant  $m$  such that

$$f(a+h) - f(a) = mh + \varepsilon(h)$$

where  $\varepsilon(h)$  is a function satisfying  $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \varepsilon(h) = 0$ . See Figure 12.2 for a graph of  $f$  and

$$\varepsilon(h) = \frac{f(a+h) - f(a) - mh}{h}$$

The function  $\varepsilon(h)$  is the difference between the slope of the secant line through the points  $(a, f(a))$  and  $(a+h, f(a+h))$ , and the slope of the tangent line through  $(a, f(a))$ . If  $f$  is locally linear at  $a$ , then

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \varepsilon(h) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \left[ \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h} - m \right] = 0$$

which means that

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h} = m$$

We conclude that  $f$  must be differentiable at  $a$  and this in turn equals  $f'(a)$ .

Conversely, if  $f$  is differentiable at  $a$ , then  $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h} = f'(a) = m$ , hence  $f$  is locally linear. Therefore, in the one-variable case,  $f$  is locally linear at  $a$  if and only if  $f$  is differentiable at  $a$ .

This concept of local linearity does carry over to the situation in which  $f$  is a function of two variables, and we will use this characteristic to define differentiability of a function of two variables. First, we define local linearity.

### Definition Local Linearity for a Function of Two Variables

We say that  $f$  is **locally linear** at  $(a, b)$  if

$$f(a + h, b + k) = f(a, b) + c(h) + d(k) + r(h, k),$$

where  $c(h) = 0$  as  $|h| \rightarrow 0$  and  $d(k) = 0$  as  $|k| \rightarrow 0$  and  $r(h, k) = 0$  as  $\sqrt{h^2 + k^2} \rightarrow 0$ .

Just as  $h$  was a small increment in  $x$  in the one-variable case, we can think of  $h$  and  $k$  as small increments in  $x$  and  $y$ , respectively, for the two-variable case.

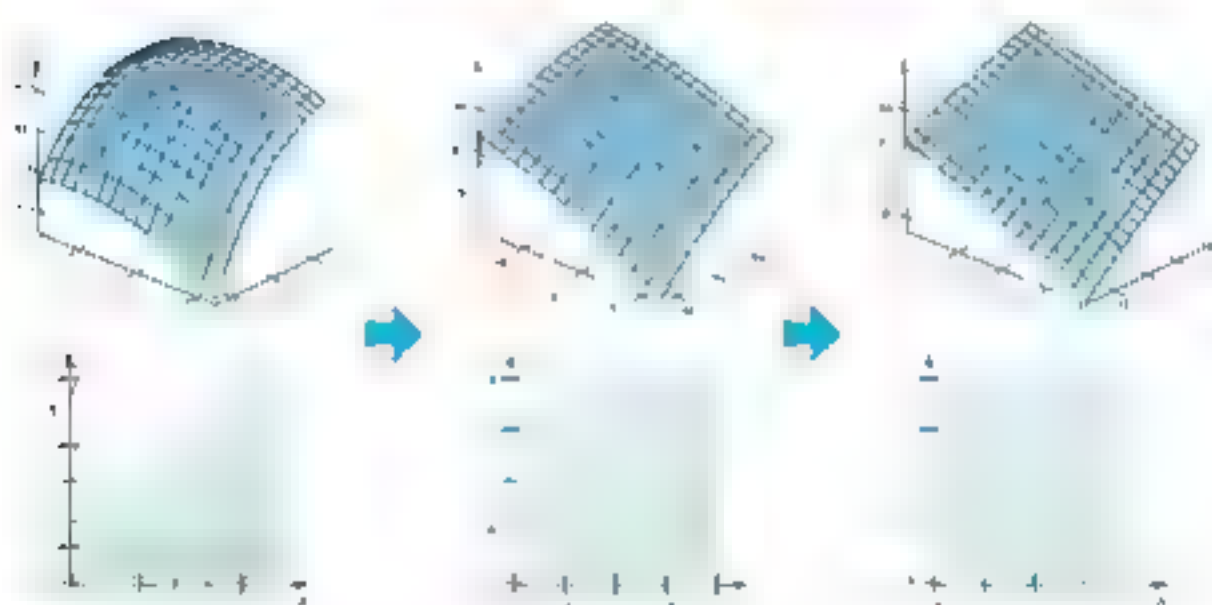


Figure 3 shows what can happen when we zoom in on the graph of a function of two variables. In Figure 3 we zoom in so that  $(a, b)$  is the point  $(0, 0)$ . If we zoom in far enough, the surface resembles a plane and the  $xy$ -plot appears to consist of parallel lines. We assume  $\mathbf{a} = (a, b)$  is a point in the domain,  $\mathbf{p}_0 = (a, b)$ ,  $\mathbf{h} = (h, k)$ , and  $\mathbf{c}(\mathbf{h}) = (c(h), d(k))$ . (The function of  $\mathbf{h}$  is a vector-valued function of a vector variable.) Thus,

$$f(\mathbf{p}_0 + \mathbf{h}) = f(\mathbf{p}_0) + (f_x(\mathbf{p}_0), f_y(\mathbf{p}_0)) \cdot \mathbf{h} + r(\mathbf{h}, \mathbf{h}).$$

This formulation easily carries over to the case where  $f$  is a function of three or more variables. We now define differentiability to be synonymous with local linearity.



**Definition**  $f$  is differentiable at  $\mathbf{p}$  if and only if  $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{p} + \mathbf{h}) = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{p}) + \mathbf{D}\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{p})\mathbf{h} + \mathbf{e}(\mathbf{h})$ .

The function  $f$  is **differentiable** at  $\mathbf{p}$  if it is differentiable at  $\mathbf{p}$ . The function is **differentiable** on an open set  $R$  if it is differentiable at every point in  $R$ .

The vector  $\mathbf{p} \rightarrow \mathbf{p} + \mathbf{D}\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{p})\mathbf{h} = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{p}) + \mathbf{D}\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{p})\mathbf{h}$  is denoted  $\nabla f(\mathbf{p})$  and is called the **gradient** of  $f$ . Thus,  $f$  is differentiable at  $\mathbf{p}$  if and only if

$$f(\mathbf{p} + \mathbf{h}) = f(\mathbf{p}) + \nabla f(\mathbf{p}) \cdot \mathbf{h} + \varepsilon(\mathbf{h}) \cdot \mathbf{h}$$

where  $\varepsilon(\mathbf{h}) \rightarrow 0$  as  $\mathbf{h} \rightarrow 0$ . The operator  $\nabla$  is read “del” and is often called the **del operator**.

Let us now describe above the **gradient** becomes the **direction** of the **derivative**. We point out several aspects of our definitions.

The **derivative** of  $f$  at  $\mathbf{p}$  is a number, while the **gradient**  $\nabla f(\mathbf{p})$  is a vector.

2. The products  $\nabla f(\mathbf{p}) \cdot \mathbf{h}$  and  $\mathbf{h} \cdot \mathbf{h}$  are dot products.

3. The definitions of differentiability and gradient also apply extended to any number of dimensions.

The following theorem gives a condition that guarantees the differentiability of a function at a point.

### Theorem 12.1

If  $f$  has continuous partial derivatives  $f_1, \dots, f_n$  on a disk  $D$  whose interior contains  $(a, b)$ , then  $f(x, y)$  is differentiable at  $(a, b)$ .

**Proof** Let  $h_1$  and  $h_2$  be increments in  $x$  and  $y$ , respectively, large enough so that  $(a + h_1, b + h_2) \in D$ , i.e., in the interior of the disk. For each vector  $\mathbf{h} = (h_1, h_2)$  is a consequence of the fact that the interior of the disk  $D$  is an open set. The difference between  $f(a + h_1, b + h_2) - f(a, b)$  and  $\mathbf{D}\mathbf{f}(a, b) \cdot \mathbf{h}$  is

$$\begin{aligned} (3) \quad & f(a + h_1, b + h_2) - f(a, b) \\ &= [f(a + h_1, b) - f(a, b)] + [f(a + h_1, b + h_2) - f(a + h_1, b)]. \end{aligned}$$

We now apply the Mean Value Theorem for Derivatives (Theorem 9.1A) twice: once to the difference  $f(a + h_1, b) - f(a, b)$ , and once to the difference  $f(a + h_1, b + h_2) - f(a + h_1, b)$ . In the first case we define  $g_1(x) = f(x, b)$  for  $x$  in the interval  $(a, a + h_1)$  and then use the Mean Value Theorem. Consequently we conclude that there exists a value  $c_1$  in  $(a, a + h_1)$  such that

$$g_1(a + h_1) - g_1(a) = (a + h_1, b) - f(a, b) = h_1 g'_1(c_1) = h_1 f_1(c_1, b)$$

For the second case, we define  $g_2(y) = f(a + h_1, y)$  for  $y$  in the interval  $(b, b + h_2)$ . There exists a  $c_2$  in the interval  $(b, b + h_2)$  such that

$$g_2(b + h_2) - g_2(b) = h_2 g'_2(c_2)$$

This gives

$$\begin{aligned} \varepsilon(a, b) &= f(a + h_1, b + h_2) - f(a, b) - \mathbf{D}\mathbf{f}(a, b) \cdot \mathbf{h} \\ &= h_1 g'_1(c_1) + h_2 g'_2(c_2) = h_1 f_1(c_1, b) + h_2 f_2(a, c_2) \end{aligned}$$

### Interval Notation in the Proof

The interval notation used in the proof, such as  $(a, a + h_1)$ , is quite suggestive that  $h_1 > 0$ . This need not be the case, as  $h_1$  and  $h_2$  can be negative. In this proof, we must interpret intervals as union of those points between the two end points, regardless of which is the larger. The interval contains the endpoints in the case of a closed interval and does not contain them in the case of an open interval.

Equation 3 becomes

$$\begin{aligned} f(a + h_1, b + h_2) - f(a, b) &= f'_1(a, b)h_1 + f'_2(a, b)h_2 + \epsilon_1 \\ &= h_1 f'_{11}(a, b) + f'_{12}(a, b)h_2 + f'_{21}(a, b)h_1 \\ &\quad + h_2 f'_{22}(a, b) + f_1(a, b) - f(a, b) \\ &= h_1 f'_{11}(a, b) + h_2 f'_{12}(a, b) \\ &\quad + h_1 f'_{21}(a, b) + h_2 f'_{22}(a, b) + f_1(a, b) - f(a, b) \end{aligned}$$

Now, let  $e_1(h_1, h_2) = f_1(a, b) - f(a, b)$  and  $e_2(h_1, h_2) = f'_{11}(a, b)h_1 + f'_{12}(a, b)h_2 + f'_{21}(a, b)h_1 + f'_{22}(a, b)h_2$ . Since  $e_1 \rightarrow 0$  and  $e_2 \rightarrow 0$  as  $h_1, h_2 \rightarrow 0$ , we conclude that  $\epsilon_1 \rightarrow 0$  and  $\epsilon_2 \rightarrow 0$  as  $h_1, h_2 \rightarrow 0$ . Thus

$$f(a + h_1, b + h_2) - f(a, b) = h_1 f'_{11}(a, b) + h_2 f'_{12}(a, b) + h_1 f'_{21}(a, b) + h_2 f'_{22}(a, b) + \epsilon_1 + \epsilon_2$$

where  $e_1(h_1, h_2) \rightarrow 0$  and  $e_2(h_1, h_2) \rightarrow 0$  as  $(h_1, h_2) \rightarrow (0, 0)$ . Therefore,  $f$  is locally linear and hence differentiable at  $(a, b)$ . ■

If the function  $f$  is differentiable at  $\mathbf{p}_0$ , then, when  $\mathbf{h}$  has small enough size

$$f(\mathbf{p}_0 + \mathbf{h}) \approx f(\mathbf{p}_0) + \nabla f(\mathbf{p}_0) \cdot \mathbf{h}$$

Letting  $\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{p}_0 + \mathbf{h}$ , we find that the function  $T$  defined by

$$T(\mathbf{p}) = f(\mathbf{p}_0) + \nabla f(\mathbf{p}_0) \cdot (\mathbf{p} - \mathbf{p}_0)$$

should be a good approximation of  $f(\mathbf{p})$  if  $\mathbf{p}$  is close to  $\mathbf{p}_0$ . The equation  $T(\mathbf{p}) = f(\mathbf{p}_0) + \nabla f(\mathbf{p}_0) \cdot (\mathbf{p} - \mathbf{p}_0)$  defines a plane that is tangent to the surface of  $f$  at  $\mathbf{p}_0$ . Such a plane is called the **tangent plane**. See Figure 4.

**EXAMPLE 1** Show that  $f(x, y) = xy^2 + x^2y$  is differentiable everywhere and calculate its gradient. Then find the equation of the tangent plane at  $(2, 0)$ .

**SOLUTION** We note first that

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = y^2 + 2xy \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = 2xy + x^2$$

Both of these functions are continuous everywhere and so, by Theorem 12.4,  $f$  is differentiable everywhere. The gradient is

$$\nabla f(x, y) = (y^2 + 2xy)\mathbf{i} + (2xy + x^2)\mathbf{j} = (y^2 + 2xy)\mathbf{i} + (x^2 + 2xy)\mathbf{j}$$

Thus

$$\nabla f(2, 0) = 0\mathbf{i} + 0\mathbf{j} = 0$$

and the equation of the tangent plane is

$$\begin{aligned} f(2, 0) + \nabla f(2, 0) \cdot (x - 2, y) &= 0 \\ &= 0 + (0, 0) \cdot (x - 2, y) \\ &= 0 + 0 = 0 \end{aligned}$$

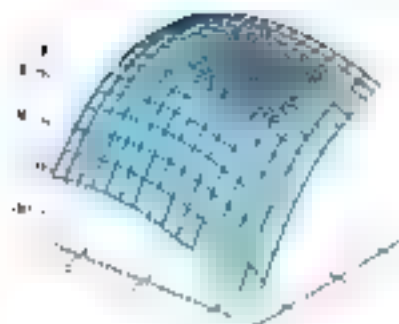
**EXAMPLE 2** For  $f(u, v, z) = \tan z = x^2u$ , find  $\nabla f(1, 2, 0)$ .

**SOLUTION** The partial derivatives are

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial u} = x^2, \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial v} = x^2, \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} = \sec^2 z$$

At  $(1, 2, 0)$ , these partials have the values 1, 1, and 1, respectively. Thus,

$$\nabla f(1, 2, 0) = \mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$$



**REMARK 12.1.1** In many respects, gradients behave like derivatives. Recall that  $D$  is considered as an operator, so linear. The operator  $\nabla$  is also linear:

**Theorem 12.1.2** Properties of  $\nabla$

The gradient operator  $\nabla$  satisfies

1.  $\nabla[f(p) + g(p)] = \nabla f(p) + \nabla g(p)$
2.  $\nabla[\alpha f(p)] = \alpha \nabla f(p)$
3.  $\nabla[f(p)g(p)] = f(p)\nabla g(p) + g(p)\nabla f(p)$

**Proof** All three results follow from the corresponding rules for single derivatives. We prove (3) in the two-variable case, suppressing the point  $p$  for brevity:

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla fg &= \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \frac{\partial g}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \frac{\partial g}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} g + f \frac{\partial g}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} g + f \frac{\partial g}{\partial y} \right) \\ &= \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \frac{\partial g}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \frac{\partial g}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} g + f \frac{\partial g}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} g + f \frac{\partial g}{\partial y} \right) \\ &= \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \frac{\partial g}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \frac{\partial g}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} g + f \frac{\partial g}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} g + f \frac{\partial g}{\partial y} \right) \\ &= \nabla f g + f \nabla g\end{aligned}$$

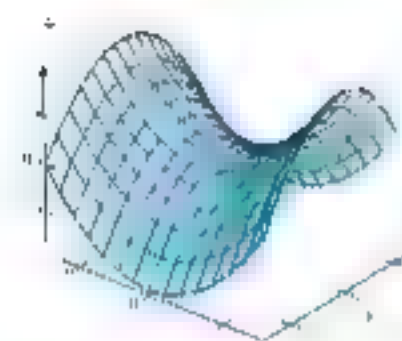


FIGURE 12.1.1

**REMARK 12.1.2** Recall that a function  $f$  of two variables is differentiable at a point  $p$  if and only if the surface  $z = f(x, y)$  has a unique tangent plane at  $p$ .

**Theorem 12.1.3**

If  $f$  is differentiable at  $p$ , then  $f$  is continuous at  $p$ .

**Proof** Since  $f$  is differentiable at  $p$ ,

$$f(p + h) - f(p) = \nabla f(p) \cdot h + o(\|h\|)$$

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned}\|f(p + h) - f(p)\| &= \|\nabla f(p) \cdot h + o(\|h\|)\| \\ &= \|\nabla f(p)\| \|h\| + o(\|h\|)\end{aligned}$$

Both of the latter terms approach 0 as  $h \rightarrow 0$ , and so

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} f(p + h) = f(p)$$

This last equality is one way of formulating the continuity of  $f$  at  $p$ .

**REMARK 12.1.3** The gradient  $\nabla f$  associated with a function  $f$  of two variables is a vector field. The set of all these vectors is called the **gradient field** for  $f$ . In Figures 12.1.4 and 12.1.5 we show graphs of the surface  $z = f(x, y)$  and the corresponding gradient field. In these figures you can see that the direction in which the gradient vectors point is the direction in which the surface is steepest. We explore this subject in the next section.

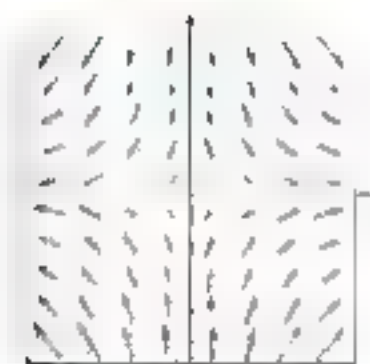


FIGURE 12.1.4

## Concepts Review

1. In computing the directional derivative of a function of two variables, the variable  $h$  is a vector. Let  $\nabla f(p)$  be the gradient of  $f$  at  $p$ . Then the directional derivative of  $f$  at  $p$  in the direction of  $h$  is  $\nabla f(p) \cdot h$ .
2. The function  $f$  is differentiable at  $(a, b)$  if and only if  $f$  is continuous at  $(a, b)$  and  $f_x$  and  $f_y$  exist at  $(a, b)$ .

3. For a function  $f$  of two variables the gradient is  $\nabla f(p) = (f_x(p), f_y(p))$ . Thus, if  $f(x, y) = xy$ ,  $\nabla f(x, y) = (y, x)$ .
4. A function  $f$  is differentiable at  $(a, b)$  if and only if the function  $z = f(x, y)$  has a unique tangent plane to the graph at this point.

## Problem Set 12.4

In Problems 1–10, find the gradient  $\nabla f$ .

1.  $f(x, y) = x^2y - 3xy$

2.  $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$

3.  $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$

4.  $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$

5.  $f(x, y) = x^2y + y^2 + y$

6.  $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$

7.  $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$

8.  $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$

9.  $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$

10.  $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$

In Problems 11–14, find the gradient vector of the given function at the given point  $p$ . Then find the equation of the tangent plane at  $p$  (see Example 1).

11.  $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$ ,  $p = (1, 1, 1)$

12.  $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$ ,  $p = (1, 1, 1)$

13.  $f(x, y, z) = \cos x + \sin y + \tan z$ ,  $p = (\pi/2, \pi/2, \pi/2)$

14.  $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$ ,  $p = (1, 1, 1)$

In Problems 15–17, find the equation of the tangent plane at the given point  $p$ .

15.  $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$ ,  $p = (1, 1, 1)$

16.  $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$ ,  $p = (1, 1, 1)$

17. Show that

$$\nabla f = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \mathbf{j} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \mathbf{k}$$

18. Show that

$$\nabla f = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \mathbf{j} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \mathbf{k}$$

19. Find all points  $(x, y)$  at which the tangent line to the graph of  $z = x^2 + 6x + 2y^2 + 10y + 1$  is horizontal.20. Find all points  $(x, y, z)$  at which the tangent plane to the graph of  $z = x^2$  is horizontal.21. Find parametric equations of the line tangent to the surface  $z = y^2 + x^2y$  at the point  $(2, 1, 9)$  whose projection on the  $xy$ -plane is(a) parallel to the  $x$ -axis; (b) parallel to the  $y$ -axis;(c) parallel to the line  $x = y$ .22. Find parametric equations of the line tangent to the surface  $z = x^2y^2$  at the point  $(3, 2, 36)$  whose projection on the  $xy$ -plane is(a) parallel to the  $x$ -axis; (b) parallel to the  $y$ -axis;(c) parallel to the line  $x = y$ .23. Refer to Figure 1. Find the equation of the tangent plane to  $z = 10\sqrt{x+1} + 1 + 1$ . Verify that  $z = 10\sqrt{x+1} + 1$  for  $x \neq 1$ .24. Mean Value Theorem for Several Variables If  $f$  is differentiable at each point of the line segment from  $a$  to  $b$ , then there exists on that line segment a point  $c$  between  $a$  and  $b$  such that

$$f(b) - f(a) = \nabla f(c) \cdot (b - a)$$

Assuming that this result is true, show that if  $f$  is differentiable on a convex set  $S$  and if  $\nabla f(p) = 0$  on  $S$ , then  $f$  is constant on  $S$ . Note: A set  $S$  is convex if each pair of points in  $S$  can be connected by a line segment in  $S$ .25. Find all values of  $x$  that satisfy the Mean Value Theorem for Several Variables (see Problem 24) for the function  $f(x, y) = 9 - x^2 - y^2$  where  $a = (0, 0)$  and  $b = (2, 0)$ .26. Find all values of  $x$  that satisfy the Mean Value Theorem for Several Variables (see Problem 24) for the function  $f(x, y) = 1/2 + x^2$  where  $a = (0, 0)$  and  $b = (2, 0)$ .27. Use the result of Problem 24 to show that if  $\nabla f(p) = \nabla g(p)$  for all  $p$  in a convex set  $S$  then  $f$  and  $g$  differ by a constant on  $S$ .28. Find the most general function  $f(p)$  satisfying  $\nabla f(p) = p$  (see Problem 24). Plot the graph of  $f(x, y) = -1/2(x^2 + y^2)$  together with its gradient field.

(a) Based on this and Figures 5 and 6, make a conjecture about the direction in which a gradient vector points.

(b) Is  $f$  differentiable at the origin? Justify your answer.29. Plot the graph of  $f(x, y) = \sin x + \sin y - \sin(x + y)$  on  $0 \leq x \leq 2\pi$ ,  $0 \leq y \leq 2\pi$ . Also draw the gradient field in vector form. Compare this with the plot of  $f(x, y)$ .

30. Prove Theorem 12.5.4.

(a) the three-variable case and

(b) the  $n$ -variable case. Hint: Derive the standard unit vectors  $\mathbf{i}, \mathbf{j}, \mathbf{k}$ .

Answers to Selected Review: 1. gradient 2. locally

linear 3.  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = 1 + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = 1 + 2xy$  4. tangent plane12.5  
Directional Derivatives  
and GradientsConsider again a function  $f(x, y)$  of two variables. The partial derivatives  $f_x$  and  $f_y$  measure the rate of change (and the slope of the tangent line) in directions parallel to the  $x$ -axis and  $y$ -axis, respectively. Our goal now is to study the rate of change of  $f$  in an arbitrary direction. This leads to the concept of the directional derivative which in turn is related to the gradient.

It will be convenient to use vector notation. Let  $\mathbf{p} = (x, y)$ , and let  $\mathbf{i}$  and  $\mathbf{j}$  be the unit vectors in the positive  $x$ - and  $y$ -directions. Then the two partial derivatives at  $\mathbf{p}$  may be written as follows:

$$f_x(\mathbf{p}) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(\mathbf{p} + h\mathbf{i}) - f(\mathbf{p})}{h}$$

$$f_y(\mathbf{p}) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(\mathbf{p} + h\mathbf{j}) - f(\mathbf{p})}{h}$$

For the moment we are after all we have to do is replace  $\mathbf{i}$  or  $\mathbf{j}$  by an arbitrary unit vector  $\mathbf{u}$ .

### Definition

For any unit vector  $\mathbf{u}$ , let

$$D_{\mathbf{u}}f(\mathbf{p}) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(\mathbf{p} + h\mathbf{u}) - f(\mathbf{p})}{h}$$

This limit, if it exists, is called the **directional derivative** of  $f$  at  $\mathbf{p}$  in the direction  $\mathbf{u}$ .

Thus,  $D_{\mathbf{i}}f(\mathbf{p}) = f_x(\mathbf{p})$ , and  $D_{\mathbf{j}}f(\mathbf{p}) = f_y(\mathbf{p})$ . Since  $\mathbf{p} = (x, y)$ , we also use the notation  $D_{\mathbf{u}}f$ . Figure 12.6 shows how to find a directional derivative  $D_{\mathbf{u}}f(\mathbf{p})$ . The vector  $\mathbf{u}$  is a unit vector in the  $xy$ -plane. Through  $\mathbf{p}$  in the plane, the line  $\ell$  is perpendicular to the  $xy$ -plane. The line  $\ell$  intersects the surface  $z = f(x, y)$  at the point  $(x, y, f(\mathbf{p}))$ . A tangent plane to the surface at  $(x, y, f(\mathbf{p}))$  is shown. The directional derivative  $D_{\mathbf{u}}f(\mathbf{p})$  is the slope of the line  $\ell$  in the direction  $\mathbf{u}$ . The directional derivative  $D_{\mathbf{u}}f(\mathbf{p})$  is the slope of the line  $\ell$  in the direction  $\mathbf{u}$ .

Recall from Section 12.4 that  $\nabla f(\mathbf{p})$  is

$$\nabla f(\mathbf{p}) = f_x(\mathbf{p})\mathbf{i} + f_y(\mathbf{p})\mathbf{j}$$

### Theorem A

If  $f$  is differentiable at  $\mathbf{p}$ , then the directional derivative of  $f$  at  $\mathbf{p}$  in the direction of the unit vector  $\mathbf{u} = u_1\mathbf{i} + u_2\mathbf{j}$  is

$$D_{\mathbf{u}}f(\mathbf{p}) = \mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla f(\mathbf{p})$$

That is,

$$D_{\mathbf{u}}f(x, y) = u_1 f_x(x, y) + u_2 f_y(x, y)$$

**Proof** Since  $f$  is differentiable at  $\mathbf{p}$ ,

$$f(\mathbf{p} + h\mathbf{u}) - f(\mathbf{p}) = \nabla f(\mathbf{p}) \cdot (h\mathbf{u}) + \varepsilon(h) \|h\mathbf{u}\|$$

where  $\varepsilon(h) \rightarrow 0$  as  $h \rightarrow 0$ . Thus,

$$\frac{f(\mathbf{p} + h\mathbf{u}) - f(\mathbf{p})}{h} = \nabla f(\mathbf{p}) \cdot \mathbf{u} + \varepsilon(h) \|\mathbf{u}\|$$

The conclusion follows by taking limits as  $h \rightarrow 0$ .  $\blacksquare$

**EXAMPLE 1** Find the directional derivative of  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$  at  $\mathbf{p} = (1, 2)$  in the direction of the vector  $\mathbf{u} = 4\mathbf{i} - 3\mathbf{j}$ .

**SOLUTION** The unit vector  $\mathbf{u}$  in the direction of  $\mathbf{u} = 4\mathbf{i} - 3\mathbf{j}$  is  $\frac{4}{5}\mathbf{i} - \frac{3}{5}\mathbf{j}$ . Also,  $f_x(x, y) = 2x$  and  $f_y(x, y) = 2y$ , so  $\nabla f(1, 2) = 2\mathbf{i} + 4\mathbf{j}$ . Consequently by Theorem A,

$$D_{\mathbf{u}}f(1, 2) = \frac{4}{5}(2) - \frac{3}{5}(4) = \frac{8}{5} - \frac{12}{5} = -\frac{4}{5}$$

Although we will not go through the details we assert that what we have done is valid for functions of three or more variables, with obvious modifications.

**EXAMPLE 3** Find the directional derivative of the function  $f(x, y, z) = x \sin yz$  at the point  $(1, \frac{\pi}{2}, 2)$  in the direction of the vector  $\mathbf{u} = \frac{1}{3}\mathbf{i} + \frac{2}{3}\mathbf{j} + \frac{2}{3}\mathbf{k}$ .

**SOLUTION** The unit vector  $\mathbf{u}$  in the direction of  $\mathbf{u} = \frac{1}{3}\mathbf{i} + \frac{2}{3}\mathbf{j} + \frac{2}{3}\mathbf{k}$  is  $\mathbf{u} = \frac{1}{3}\mathbf{i} + \frac{2}{3}\mathbf{j} + \frac{2}{3}\mathbf{k}$ . Also,  $f_x(x, y, z) = \sin yz$ ,  $f_y(x, y, z) = xz \cos yz$ , and  $f_z(x, y, z) = xy \cos yz$ . So  $f_x(1, \frac{\pi}{2}, 2) = \sin \pi = 0$ ,  $f_y(1, \frac{\pi}{2}, 2) = 2 \cos \pi = -2$ , and  $f_z(1, \frac{\pi}{2}, 2) = 1 \cos \pi = -1$ . We conclude that

$$D_{\mathbf{u}}f(1, \frac{\pi}{2}, 2) = \frac{1}{3}(0) + \frac{2}{3}(-2) + \frac{2}{3}(-1) = -\frac{4}{3}.$$

**Maximum Rate of Change** For a given function  $f$  at a given point  $\mathbf{p}$ , we naturally ask in what direction the function is changing most rapidly and in what direction  $-D_{\mathbf{u}}f(\mathbf{p})$  the fastest. From the geometric formula for the dot product (Section 11.3), we may write

$$D_{\mathbf{u}}f(\mathbf{p}) = \mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla f(\mathbf{p}) = \|\mathbf{u}\| \|\nabla f(\mathbf{p})\| \cos \theta = \|\nabla f(\mathbf{p})\| \cos \theta$$

where  $\theta$  is the angle between  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\nabla f(\mathbf{p})$  (Figure 12.5).  $D_{\mathbf{u}}f(\mathbf{p})$  is maximum when  $\theta = 0$  and minimum when  $\theta = \pi$ . We summarize as follows.

#### THEOREM 12.5

A function  $f$  increases most rapidly at  $\mathbf{p}$  in the direction of the gradient vector  $\nabla f(\mathbf{p})$  and decreases most rapidly in the opposite direction  $-\nabla f(\mathbf{p})$ .

**EXAMPLE 4** Suppose that a bug is located on the surface  $z = 2 - 2x^2 - 3y^2$  at the point  $(1, 1, 0)$ , as in Figure 2. In what direction should it move for the steepest climb and what is the slope as it starts out?

**SOLUTION** Let  $f(x, y) = 2 - 2x^2 - 3y^2$ . Since  $z = 2 - 2x^2 - 3y^2$  and  $f(x, y) = z$ ,

$$\nabla f(1, 1) = f_x(1, 1)\mathbf{i} + f_y(1, 1)\mathbf{j} = -2\mathbf{i} - 2\mathbf{j}.$$

Thus the bug should move from  $(1, 1, 0)$  in the direction  $-\nabla f = 2\mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j}$ , where the slope will be  $\|\nabla f(1, 1)\| = \sqrt{8} = 2\sqrt{2}$ .

**Level Curves and Gradients** Recall from Section 12.1 that the *level curves* of a surface  $z = f(x, y)$  are the projections onto the  $xy$ -plane of the curves of intersection of the surface with planes  $z = c$  that are perpendicular to the  $z$ -axis. The plane  $z = c$  is the function  $f$ ; all points on the same level curve correspond to the same value of  $f$ .

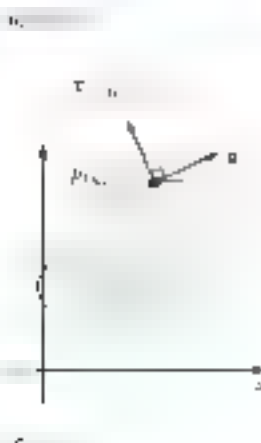
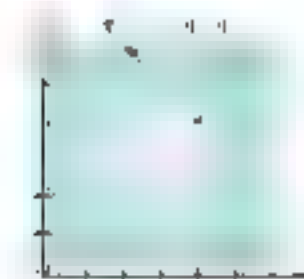
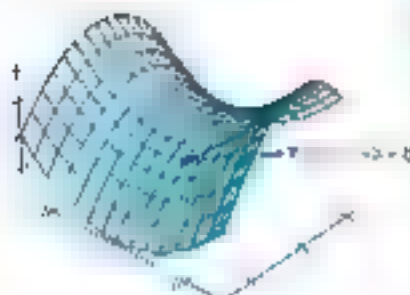
Denote by  $L$  the level curve of  $f(x, y)$  that passes through an arbitrary chosen point  $P = (x_0, y_0)$  in the domain of  $f$  and let  $\mathbf{u}$  be any vector tangent to  $L$  at  $P$ . Since the value of  $f$  is the same at all points on the level curve, the directional derivative  $D_{\mathbf{u}}f(x_0, y_0)$ , which is the rate of change of  $f(x, y)$  in the direction  $\mathbf{u}$ , is zero when  $\mathbf{u}$  is tangent to  $L$ . (This statement, which seems very clear intuitively, requires justification which we omit since the result we want follows from an argument to be given in Section 12.7.) Since

$$0 = D_{\mathbf{u}}f(x_0, y_0) = \nabla f(x_0, y_0) \cdot \mathbf{u}$$

we conclude that  $\nabla f$  and  $\mathbf{u}$  are perpendicular, a result worthy of further notice.

#### THEOREM 12.6

The gradient of  $f$  at a point  $P$  is perpendicular to the level curve of  $f$  that goes through  $P$ .



**EXAMPLE 4** For the paraboloid  $z = 4 - x^2 - y^2$  find an equation of its level curve that passes through the point  $P(2, 1)$  and sketch it. Find the gradient vector of the paraboloid at  $P$  and draw the gradient vector in a picture.

**SOLUTION** The level curve of the paraboloid that corresponds to the plane  $z = 3$  has the equation  $4 - x^2 - y^2 = 3$ , or  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ , which is the circle  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$  in the  $xy$ -plane. The level curve through  $P$  has the same equation for  $z = 3$  and is a circle. Thus, the equation of the level curve that goes through  $P$  is that of the ellipse

$$\frac{x^2}{4} + y^2 = 1.$$

Now let  $f(x, y) = x^2/4 + y^2$ . Since  $f_x(x, y) = x/2$  and  $f_y(x, y) = 2y$ , the gradient of the paraboloid at  $P(2, 1)$  is

$$\nabla f(2, 1) = f_x(2, 1)\mathbf{i} + f_y(2, 1)\mathbf{j} = \mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j}.$$

The level curve and the gradient at  $P$  are shown in Figure 4.

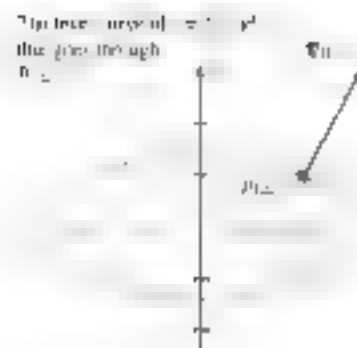


Figure 4

To provide additional illustration of Theorems B and C, we asked our computer to draw the surface  $z = 4 - x^2 - y^2$  and a family of level curves. The results are shown in Figure 5. Note that the gradient vector is always perpendicular to the level curves and that the vector points in the direction of greatest increase of  $z$ .

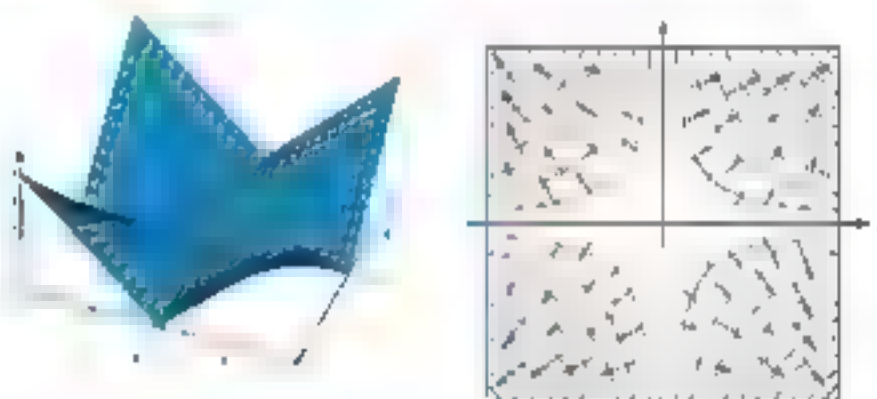
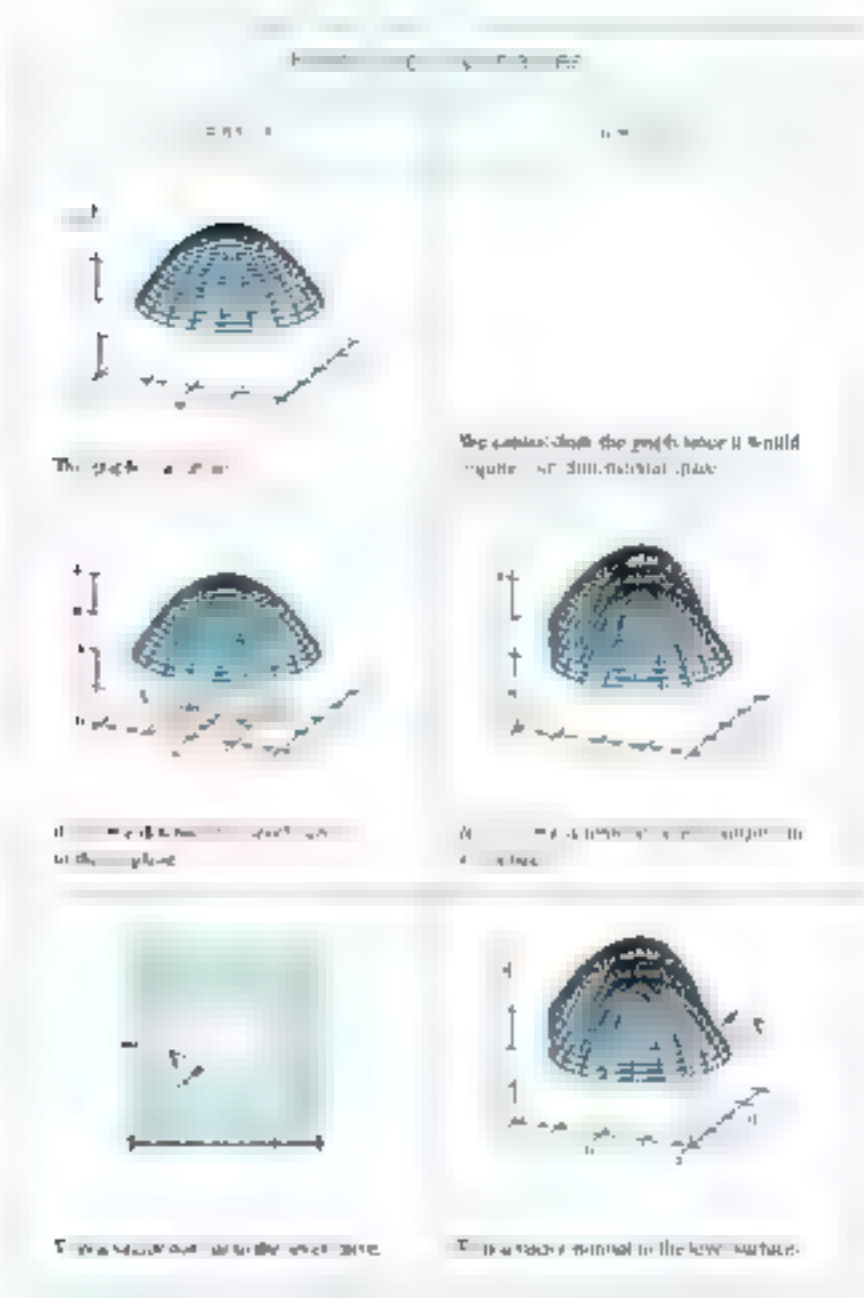


Figure 5

**DEFINITION** The collection of level curves for functions of two variables is generalized to level surfaces for functions of three variables. If  $z$  is a function of three variables, the surface  $f(x, y, z) = k$ , where  $k$  is a constant, is a level surface for  $f$ . At all points on a level surface the value of the function is the same, and the gradient vector of  $f(x, y, z)$  at a point  $P(x, y, z)$  in its domain is normal to the level surface of  $f$  that goes through  $P$ .

In problems of heat conduction in a homogeneous body, where  $u(x, y, z)$  gives the temperature at the point  $(x, y, z)$ , the level surfaces of  $u$  are called *isothermal surfaces* because at points on them have the same temperature. At any given point on the body, heat flows in the direction opposite to the gradient  $-\nabla u$  (in the direction of the greatest decrease in temperature) and therefore perpendicular to the isothermal surface through that point. If  $\phi(x, y, z)$  gives the electrostatic potential (voltage) at any point in an electric potential field, the level surfaces of the function are called *equipotential surfaces*. At any point on an equipotential surface have the same electrostatic potential and are direction of flow of

electricity is along the negative gradient, that is, in the direction of greatest drop in potential.



**EXAMPLE 5** If the temperature at any point in a homogeneous body is given by  $T = e^{xy} + 3y^2 - 4xz$ , what is the direction of the greatest drop in temperature at the point  $(1, -1, 2)$ ?

**SOLUTION** The greatest decrease in temperature at  $(1, -1, 2)$  is in the direction of the negative gradient at that point.

Since  $\nabla T = (y e^{xy} + 3y^2 - 4xz)\mathbf{i} + (x e^{xy} + 6y - 4x)\mathbf{j} + (-4z)\mathbf{k}$ , we find that  $\nabla T$  at  $(1, -1, 2)$  is

$$\nabla T = (-1)\mathbf{i} + (-1)\mathbf{j} + (-8)\mathbf{k}.$$



## Concepts Review

1. The directional derivative of  $f$  at  $\mathbf{p}$  in the direction of the unit vector  $\mathbf{u}$  is denoted by  $D_{\mathbf{u}}f(\mathbf{p})$  and is defined as  $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(\mathbf{p} + h\mathbf{u}) - f(\mathbf{p})}{h}$ .
2. If  $\mathbf{u} = a\mathbf{i} + b\mathbf{j}$  is a unit vector, then we may calculate  $D_{\mathbf{u}}f$  via the formula  $D_{\mathbf{u}}f = \nabla f \cdot \mathbf{u}$ .

3. The gradient vector  $\nabla f$  always points in the direction of  $\nabla f$ .
4. The gradient vector of  $f$  at  $\mathbf{p}$  is always perpendicular to the level curve of  $f$  through  $\mathbf{p}$ .

## Problem Set 12.5

In Problems 1–9, find the directional derivative of  $f$  at the point  $\mathbf{p}$  in the direction of  $\mathbf{u}$ .

1.  $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$ ,  $\mathbf{p} = (1, 2, 3)$ ,  $\mathbf{u} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j})$
2.  $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$ ,  $\mathbf{p} = (1, 2, 3)$ ,  $\mathbf{u} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j})$
3.  $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$ ,  $\mathbf{p} = (1, 2, 3)$ ,  $\mathbf{u} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j})$
4.  $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$ ,  $\mathbf{p} = (1, 2, 3)$ ,  $\mathbf{u} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j})$
5.  $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$ ,  $\mathbf{p} = (1, 2, 3)$ ,  $\mathbf{u} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j})$
6.  $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$ ,  $\mathbf{p} = (1, 2, 3)$ ,  $\mathbf{u} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j})$
7.  $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$ ,  $\mathbf{p} = (1, 2, 3)$ ,  $\mathbf{u} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j})$
8.  $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$ ,  $\mathbf{p} = (1, 2, 3)$ ,  $\mathbf{u} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j})$

In Problems 10–12, find a unit vector in the direction in which  $f$  increases most rapidly at  $\mathbf{p}$ . What is the rate of change in this direction?

10.  $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$ ,  $\mathbf{p} = (1, 2, 3)$
11.  $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$ ,  $\mathbf{p} = (1, 2, 3)$
12.  $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$ ,  $\mathbf{p} = (1, 2, 3)$
13. In what direction does  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$  increase most rapidly at  $\mathbf{p} = (1, 2)$ ?
14. In what direction does  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$  increase most rapidly at  $\mathbf{p} = (1, 2)$ ?

15. Sketch the level curve of  $f(x, y) = y/x^2$  that passes through  $\mathbf{p} = (1, 2)$ . Calculate the gradient vector  $\nabla f(\mathbf{p})$  and show its vector field is tangent to the curve at  $\mathbf{p}$ . What should be true about  $\nabla f(\mathbf{p})$ ?

16. Follow the instructions of Problem 15 for  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$  and  $\mathbf{p} = (1, 2)$ .

17. Find the directional derivative of  $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$  at  $\mathbf{p} = (1, 2, 3)$  in the direction toward  $\mathbf{q} = (4, 5, 6)$ .

18. Find the directional derivative of  $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$  at  $\mathbf{p} = (1, 2, 3)$  in the direction toward the origin.

19. The temperature at  $(x, y, z)$  of a solid sphere centered at the origin is given by

$$T(x, y, z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}}$$

- a. By inspection, decide where the solid sphere is hottest.
- b. Find a vector pointing in the direction of greatest increase of temperature at  $(1, 2, 3)$ .
- c. Does the vector of part (b) point toward the origin?

20. The temperature at  $(x, y, z)$  of a solid sphere centered at the origin is  $T(x, y, z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}}$ . State that it is hottest at

the origin. Show that the direction of greatest decrease in temperature is always a vector pointing away from the origin.

21. Find the gradient of  $f(x, y, z) = \sin \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$ . Show that the gradient always points directly toward the origin or directly away from the origin.

22. Suppose that the temperature  $T$  at the point  $(x, y, z)$  depends only on the distance from the origin. Show that the direction of greatest increase in  $T$  is either directly toward the origin or directly away from the origin.

23. The elevation  $z$  of a mountain above sea level at the point  $(x, y)$  is  $z = 1000 - \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ . A hiker goes from a point  $\mathbf{p}$  in the direction of the steepest descent to  $-\mathbf{p}$  and the slope in the northerly direction is  $-\frac{1}{2}$ . In what direction should the hiker go (steepest descent)?

24. Given that  $f_x(2, 4) = -3$  and  $f_y(2, 4) = 4$ , find the directional derivative of  $f$  at  $(2, 4)$  in the direction toward  $(5, 12)$ .

25. The elevation of a mountain above sea level at  $(x, y)$  is  $z = 1000 - \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$  meters. The positive  $x$ -axis points east and the positive  $y$ -axis points north. A climber is directly above  $(0, 0)$ . If the climber goes southeast, what should the descent rate be at what rate?

26. If the temperature of a plate at the point  $(x, y)$  is  $T(x, y) = 100 - x^2 - y^2$ , find the path a hiker would follow if it starts at  $(-2, 1)$ . (The particle moves in the direction of greatest increase of temperature.)

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = x(t)\mathbf{i} + y(t)\mathbf{j}$$

We may write the path in parametric form as

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = x(t)\mathbf{i} + y(t)\mathbf{j}$$

and we want  $x(0) = -2$  and  $y(0) = 1$ . To arrive in the required direction means that  $\mathbf{r}'(0)$  should be parallel to  $\nabla T$ . This will be satisfied if

$$\mathbf{r}'(0) = k \nabla T(-2, 1)$$

together with the conditions  $x(0) = -2$  and  $y(0) = 1$ . Now solve this differential equation and evaluate the arbitrary constants of integration.

27. Do Problem 26 assuming that  $T(x, y) = 100 - 2x^2 - y^2$ .

28. The point  $P(-1, -1, 0)$  is on the surface  $z = 10\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$  (see Figure 12.41). Starting at  $P$  in what direction  $\mathbf{u} = u_1\mathbf{i} + u_2\mathbf{j}$  should one move in each case?

- (a) To climb most rapidly
- (b) To stay at the same level
- (c) To climb at slope 1

29. The temperature  $T$  in degrees Celsius at  $(x, y, z)$  is given by  $T = 10(x^2 - y^2 + z^2)$ , where distances are in meters. A bee is flying away from the hot spot at the origin on a spiral path so that its position vector at time  $t$  seconds is  $\mathbf{r}(t) = t \cos \pi t \mathbf{i} + t \sin \pi t \mathbf{j} + t \mathbf{k}$ . Determine the rate of change of  $T$  in each case.

- (a) With respect to distance traveled at  $t = 1$   
 (b) With respect to time at  $t = 1$ . (Think of two ways to do this.)

30. Let  $\mathbf{u} = 3\mathbf{i} - 4\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$  and  $\mathbf{v} = 4\mathbf{i} + 3\mathbf{j} + 5\mathbf{k}$  and suppose that at some point  $P$ ,  $D_{\mathbf{u}}f = -6$  and  $D_{\mathbf{v}}f$

- (a) find  $\nabla f$  at  $P$   
 (b) Note that  $\nabla f^2 = (D_{\mathbf{u}}f)^2 + (D_{\mathbf{v}}f)^2$  in part (a). Show that this relation always holds if  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  are perpendicular.

31. Figure 8 shows the contour map for a hill of 600 ft high, which we assume has equation  $z = f(x, y)$ .

- (a) A randrop landing on the hill phone point  $A$  will reach the  $xy$ -plane at  $A'$  by following the path of steepest descent. Draw  $A$ , draw this path and use it to estimate  $A'$ .  
 (b) Do the same for point  $B$ .  
 (c) Estimate  $f$  at  $C$ ,  $f_x$  at  $D$ , and  $f_{xy}$  at  $E$ , where  $\mathbf{u} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j})$ .



32. According to Theorem A, the differentiability of  $f$  at  $\mathbf{p}$  implies the existence of  $D_{\mathbf{u}}f(\mathbf{p})$  in all directions. Show that the converse is false by considering

$$f(x, y, z) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } (x, y, z) \neq (0, 0, 0) \\ 0 & \text{if } (x, y, z) = (0, 0, 0) \end{cases}$$

at the origin.

33. Plot the graph of

$$z = 1 - x^2 - y^2$$

on  $-5 \leq x \leq 5$ ,  $-5 \leq y \leq 5$ , and plot its contour map and gradient with that. Determine the points  $B$  and  $C$ . Then estimate the  $xy$ -coordinates of the point where a randrop landing above the point  $(-4, -4, 1)$  will reach the  $xy$ -plane.

34. Follow the directions of Problem 33 on

$$z = x^2 + y^2$$

35. For the monkey saddle

$$z = x^3 - 3xy^2$$

on  $-5 \leq x \leq 5$ ,  $-5 \leq y \leq 5$ , estimate the  $xy$ -coordinates of the point where a randrop landing above the point  $(5, 0, 2)$  will reach the  $xy$ -plane.

36. Where will a randrop landing above the point  $(4, 0, 1)$  reach the  $xy$ -plane?

$$z = \sin x + \sin y + \sin(x + y)$$

37.  $0 \leq x \leq 2\pi$ ,  $0 \leq y \leq 2\pi$  come to mind?

38.  $z = f(x, y) = 4x^2 + 9y^2$  is a paraboloid.  $\mathbf{u} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j})$  is a unit vector.  $D_{\mathbf{u}}f(x, y) = 8x + 18y$  is a linear function.  $D_{\mathbf{u}}f(x, y)$  is a linear function.  $D_{\mathbf{u}}f(x, y)$  is a linear function.

## 12.6 The Chain Rule

The Chain Rule for computing the derivative of a function of several variables is one of the most important results in calculus. It is a generalization of the Chain Rule for functions of one variable. It is a generalization of the Chain Rule for functions of one variable.

$$\frac{dz}{dt} = \frac{dz}{dx} \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{dz}{dy} \frac{dy}{dt}$$

Our goal is to obtain generalizations for functions of several variables.

Let  $f$  be a function of two variables,  $f(x, y)$ , and let  $x = x(t)$  and  $y = y(t)$  be functions of  $t$ . Then  $z = f(x(t), y(t))$  is a function of  $t$ . We want to find  $dz/dt$  and there ought to be a formula for it.

### Theorem A Chain Rule

Let  $x = x(t)$  and  $y = y(t)$  be differentiable at  $t$  and let  $z = f(x, y)$  be differentiable at  $(x(t), y(t))$ . Then  $z = f(x(t), y(t))$  is differentiable at  $t$  and

$$\frac{dz}{dt} = \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} \frac{dy}{dt}$$

**Proof** We treat  $z$  as a function of two variables  $x$  and  $y$ . By Theorem B.7, knowing  $dx/dt$  and  $dy/dt$  allows us to find  $dz/dt$ . Let  $\Delta x = x(t + \Delta t) - x(t)$  and  $\Delta y = y(t + \Delta t) - y(t)$ . Then  $\Delta z = f(x(t + \Delta t), y(t + \Delta t)) - f(x(t), y(t))$ . Since  $f$  is differentiable

Does the general analog of the one-variable Chain Rule (Theorem A, Section 2.5) hold? You can find a partial derivative of  $f$  at  $(x, y)$  if  $f$  is differentiable at  $(x, y)$ . Let  $\mathbf{R}^n$  denote the real numbers and  $\mathbf{R}^m$  denote Euclidean  $m$ -space. Let  $f$  be a function from  $\mathbf{R}^n$  to  $\mathbf{R}^m$  and let  $\mathbf{g}$  be a function from  $\mathbf{R}^k$  to  $\mathbf{R}^n$ . If  $\mathbf{g}$  is differentiable at  $\mathbf{t}$  and  $f$  is differentiable at  $\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{t})$ , then the composition function  $f \circ \mathbf{g}$  is differentiable at  $\mathbf{t}$  and

$$(f \circ \mathbf{g})'(\mathbf{t}) = \nabla f(\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{t})) \mathbf{g}'(\mathbf{t})$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta z &= f(p + \Delta p) - f(p) = f(p + \Delta p) - f(p) + \varepsilon(\Delta p, \Delta p) \\ &= f(p + \Delta p) - f(p) + \varepsilon(\Delta p, \Delta p) \end{aligned}$$

with  $\varepsilon(\Delta p, \Delta p) \rightarrow 0$  as  $\Delta p \rightarrow 0$ .

When we divide both sides by  $\Delta x$ , we obtain

$$\frac{\Delta z}{\Delta x} = f_p(p + \Delta p) + \varepsilon(\Delta p) \frac{\Delta p}{\Delta x} \quad (1)$$

Now  $\left\{ \frac{\Delta p}{\Delta x} \right\}$  approaches  $\frac{dy}{dx}$  as  $\Delta x \rightarrow 0$  and  $\Delta p \rightarrow 0$ , both  $\Delta x$  and  $\Delta p$  approach 0 (remember that  $x$  and  $y$  are continuous being differentiable). It follows that  $\Delta p \rightarrow 0$  and hence  $\varepsilon(\Delta p) \rightarrow 0$  as  $\Delta x \rightarrow 0$ . Consequently, with  $\Delta x \rightarrow 0$ ,  $\Delta p \rightarrow 0$  and (1), we get

$$\frac{dz}{dx} = f_p(p) \frac{dy}{dx} + f_p(p) \frac{dy}{dx}$$

a result equivalent to the claimed assertion. ■

**EXAMPLE 1** Suppose that  $z = x^2y$  where  $x = 2t$  and  $y = t^2$ . Find  $\frac{dz}{dt}$ .

**SOLUTION**

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dz}{dt} &= \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} \frac{dy}{dt} \\ &= (2x^2y)(2) + (x^2)(2t) \\ &= 6(2t)^2(t^2) + 2(2t)^2(t) \\ &= 48t^4 \end{aligned}$$

We could have done Example 1 without use of the Chain Rule. By direct substitution,

$$z = (2t)^2(t^2) = 4t^4$$

and so  $\frac{dz}{dt} = 4(4t^3) = 16t^3$ . However, the direct substitution method is often inconvenient, as we will see in the next example.

**EXAMPLE 2** As a solid right circular cylinder is heated, its radius  $r$  and height  $h$  increase, hence so does its surface area  $S$ . Suppose that  $r$  increases from 10 centimeters and  $h$  increases from 100 centimeters per hour and  $h$  is increased at 0.5 centimeters per hour. Find  $\frac{dS}{dt}$  as  $r$  increases at this rate.

**SOLUTION** The formula for the total surface area of a cylinder of radius  $r$  is

$$S = 2\pi rh + 2\pi r^2$$

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dS}{dt} &= \frac{\partial S}{\partial r} \frac{dr}{dt} + \frac{\partial S}{\partial h} \frac{dh}{dt} \\ &= (2\pi h + 4\pi r)(0.2) + (2\pi r)(0.5) \end{aligned}$$

At  $r = 10$  and  $h = 100$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dS}{dt} &= (2\pi(100) + 4\pi(10)(0.2)) + (2\pi(10)(0.5)) \\ &= 40\pi \text{ square centimeters per hour} \end{aligned}$$

The result in Theorem 3 extends readily to a function of three variables as we now illustrate.

Here is a device that may help you to remember the Chain Rule.

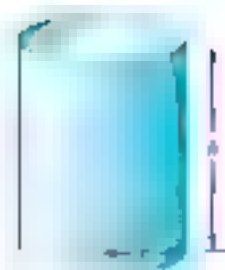
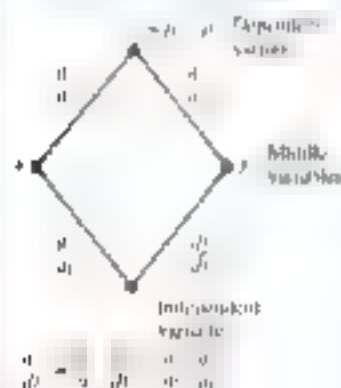
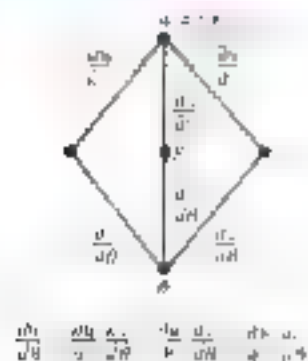


Figure 12.1

The Chain Rule  
Three-Variable Case

**EXAMPLE 5** Suppose that  $z = x^2 + y^2$  where  $x = \cos \theta$ ,  $y = \sin \theta$ , and  $z = \theta^2$  and find  $dz/d\theta$  and evaluate it at  $\theta = \pi$ .

**SOLUTION**

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dz}{d\theta} &= \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} \frac{dx}{d\theta} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} \frac{dy}{d\theta} \\ &= (2x) \cdot (-\sin \theta) + (2y) \cdot (\cos \theta) \\ &= 2x(-\sin \theta) + 2y(\cos \theta) = -2 \cos \theta \sin \theta + 2 \sin \theta \cos \theta = 0.\end{aligned}$$

At  $\theta = \pi$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dz}{d\theta} &= 2(-1)(0) + 2(0)(-1) = 0. \\ &= 0.\end{aligned}$$

**Version 2** Suppose now that  $z = f(x, y)$  where  $x = x(t)$  and  $y = y(t)$ . Then it makes sense to ask for  $dz/dt$  and  $dz/dx$ .

**Theorem 3** Chain Rule

Let  $x = x(t)$  and  $y = y(t)$  have first partial derivatives at  $(t, t)$  and let  $z = f(x, y)$  be differentiable at  $(x(t), y(t))$ . Then  $z = f(x(t), y(t))$  has first partial derivatives given by

$$\frac{dz}{dt} = \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} \frac{dy}{dt}.$$

**Proof** It is held fixed  $t$  and  $z = f(x, y)$  where  $x = x(t)$  and  $y = y(t)$ . The chain rule applies. When we use the chain rule to differentiate  $z$  with respect to  $x$ , we obtain  $dz/dx = \partial z/\partial x + \partial z/\partial y (dy/dx)$ . This is obtained in a similar way by holding  $t$  fixed.

**EXAMPLE 6** If  $z = 3x^2 + y^2$  where  $x = 2t + 7$  and  $y = 5t$ , find  $dz/dt$  and express it in terms of  $t$  and  $z$ .

**SOLUTION**

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dz}{dt} &= \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} \frac{dy}{dt} \\ &= (6x)(2) + (2y)(5) \\ &= 12(2t + 7) + 10(5t) \\ &= 24t + 290 = 290 + 24t.\end{aligned}$$

Of course if we substitute the expressions  $x = 2t + 7$  and  $y = 5t$  for  $x$  and  $y$  in  $z = 3x^2 + y^2$  and then take the partial derivative with respect to  $t$ , we get the same answer.

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dz}{dt} &= \frac{d}{dt} [3(2t + 7)^2 + (5t)^2] \\ &= \frac{d}{dt} [12t^2 + 84t + 147 + 25t^2] \\ &= 24t + 290 = 290 + 24t.\end{aligned}$$

Here is the corresponding result for three intermediate variables illustrated in an example.

**EXAMPLE 5** If  $w = x^2 + y^2$  and  $x = 2t$ , find  $dw/dt$ .

What?  $y = ?$

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### SOLUTION

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dw}{dt} &= \frac{\partial w}{\partial x} \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial y} \frac{dy}{dt} + \frac{\partial w}{\partial z} \frac{dz}{dt} \\ &= (2x + y)(x) + (2y + x)(-x) = (2x)(2) \\ &= (2x + y)(x) + (2y + x)(-x) + (2x + 4y)(2) \\ &= 2x^2 + x^2 - 2x^2 - 2y^2 + 4x^2 + 8y^2 \\ &= 2x^2 + 6y^2\end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 6** Suppose that  $F(x, y, z)$  defines  $z$  implicitly as a function of  $x$  and  $y$ , as in Example 5. Give  $dz/dx$  and  $dz/dy$  for the function  $F$  defined by  $F(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$ . We can find  $dz/dx$  and  $dz/dy$  by the method in Example 5, or by implicit differentiation. We discuss the latter method in Section 12.7. Here is another method.

Let  $z$  be a function of  $x$  and  $y$ . Both sides of  $F(x, y, z) = 1$  are functions of  $x$  and  $y$ . Differentiating both sides of  $F(x, y, z) = 1$  with respect to  $x$  using the Chain Rule, we obtain

$$\frac{\partial F}{\partial x} \frac{dx}{dx} + \frac{\partial F}{\partial y} \frac{dy}{dx} + \frac{\partial F}{\partial z} \frac{dz}{dx} = 0$$

Solving for  $dz/dx$  yields the formula

$$\frac{dz}{dx} = -\frac{\partial F / \partial x}{\partial F / \partial z}$$

**EXAMPLE 7** Find  $dz/dx$  if  $z = x^2 + y^2 + 1$  and  $x = 2y$ .

(a) Use the Chain Rule and

(b) implicit differentiation.

### SOLUTION

(a) Let  $F(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + 1$ . Then

$$\frac{dz}{dx} = -\frac{\partial F / \partial x}{\partial F / \partial z} = -\frac{2x}{2z} = -\frac{x}{z}$$

(b) Differentiate both sides with respect to  $x$  to obtain

$$2x + 2y \frac{dy}{dx} + 2z \frac{dz}{dx} = 0$$

Solving for  $dz/dx$  gives the same result as we obtained with the Chain Rule.

If  $z$  is an implicit function of  $x$  and  $y$ , defined by the equation  $F(x, y, z) = 1$ , then differentiation of both sides with respect to  $x$  for any fixed  $y$  and  $z$  yields

$$\frac{\partial F}{\partial x} \frac{dx}{dx} + \frac{\partial F}{\partial y} \frac{dy}{dx} + \frac{\partial F}{\partial z} \frac{dz}{dx} = 0$$

If we solve for  $dz/dx$  and note that  $dx/dx = 1$ , we get the first of the formulas for  $dz/dx$ . A similar calculation holding  $y$  and  $z$  fixed and differentiating with respect to  $y$  produces the second formula.

$$\frac{dz}{dy} = -\frac{\partial F / \partial y}{\partial F / \partial z} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{dz}{dz} = -\frac{\partial F / \partial z}{\partial F / \partial z}$$

**EXAMPLE 7** If  $F(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$  and  $z = f(x, y)$  is a function of  $x$  and  $y$ , find  $\frac{\partial F}{\partial x}$  and  $\frac{\partial F}{\partial y}$ .

**SOLUTION**

$$\frac{\partial F}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial F}{\partial x} \frac{dx}{dx} + \frac{\partial F}{\partial y} \frac{dy}{dx} = 2x + 2y \frac{dz}{dx} = 2x + 2y \frac{dz}{dx}$$

## Concepts Review

- If  $z = f(x, y)$  where  $x = g(t)$  and  $y = h(t)$ , then the Chain Rule says that  $\frac{dz}{dt} =$  \_\_\_\_\_.
- Thus, if  $z = xy^2$  where  $x = \sin t$  and  $y = \cos t$ , then  $\frac{dz}{dt} =$  \_\_\_\_\_.

- If  $z = f(x, y, z)$  where  $x = g_1(t)$  and  $y = g_2(t)$ , then the Chain Rule says that  $\frac{dz}{dt} =$  \_\_\_\_\_.
- Thus, if  $z = xy^2z$  where  $x = t$  and  $y = t^2 + t^3$ , then  $\frac{dz}{dt} =$  \_\_\_\_\_.

## Problem Set 12.6

In Problems 1–6, find  $\frac{dz}{dt}$  by using the Chain Rule. Express your final answer in terms of  $t$ .

- $z = x^2 + y^2$ ,  $x = t$ ,  $y = t^2$
- $z = x^2y - y^2$ ,  $x = \cos t$ ,  $y = \sin t$
- $z = x^2 \sin y + x^2 \cos y$ ,  $x = 3t$ ,  $y = 2t$
- $z = \ln(x, y)$ ,  $x = \tan t$ ,  $y = \sec^2 t$
- $z = \sin(x, y, z)$ ,  $x = t^2$ ,  $y = t^3$
- $z = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$ ,  $x = t$ ,  $y = t^2$

In Problems 7–12, find  $\frac{dz}{dt}$  by using the Chain Rule. Express your final answer in terms of  $t$  and  $z$ .

- $z = x^2 + y^2$ ,  $x = t$ ,  $y = t^2$
- $z = x^2 + y^2$ ,  $x = t$ ,  $y = t^2$
- $z = x^2 + y^2$ ,  $x = t$ ,  $y = t^2$
- $z = \ln(x + y)$ ,  $x = t$ ,  $y = t^2$
- $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$ ,  $x = \cos t$ ,  $y = \sin t$ ,  $z = t^2$
- $z = x^2 + y^2$ ,  $x = t$ ,  $y = t^2$
- If  $z = x^2y$ ,  $x = 2t + t^2$ , and  $y = 1 - t^2$ , find  $\frac{dz}{dt}$ .

- If  $z = x^2 + y^2$ ,  $x = t$ ,  $y = t^2$ , find  $\frac{dz}{dt}$ .

- If  $z = x^2 + y^2$ ,  $x = t$ ,  $y = t^2$ , find  $\frac{dz}{dt}$ .

- If  $z = x^2 + y^2$ ,  $x = t$ ,  $y = t^2$ , find  $\frac{dz}{dt}$ .

17. The part of a tree normally sawed into lumber is the trunk, a solid shaped approximately like a right circular cylinder. If the radius of the trunk of a certain tree is growing  $\frac{1}{4}$  inch per year and the height is increasing  $\frac{1}{2}$  inches per year, how fast is the volume increasing when the radius is 30 inches and the height is 40 inches? Express your answer in board feet per year. (1 board foot = 1 inch by 12 inches by 12 inches.)

18. The temperature of a metal plate at  $(x, y)$  is  $e^{-x^2 - y^2}$  degrees. A bug is walking northeast at a rate of  $\sqrt{2}$  feet per minute (i.e.,  $\frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{dy}{dt} = 1$ ). From the bug's point of view, how fast is the temperature changing with time as it approaches the origin?

19. A boy's toy boat slips from his grasp at the edge of a straight river. The stream carries it along at 4 feet per second. A concerned mom is out on the opposite bank at 4 feet per second. If the boy runs along the shore at 4 feet per second following his boat, how fast is the boat moving away from him when  $t = 1$  second?

20. Sand is pouring onto a conical pile in such a way that it is always conical. The radius of the pile is increasing at 2 inches per minute and the height is 40 inches and increasing at 2 inches per minute. How fast is the volume increasing at that instant?

In Problems 21–24, use the method of Example 6a to find  $\frac{dz}{dt}$ .

- $z = x^2 + y^2$ ,  $x = t$ ,  $y = t^2$
- $z = x^2 + y^2$ ,  $x = t$ ,  $y = t^2$
- $z = x^2 + y^2$ ,  $x = t$ ,  $y = t^2$
- $z = x^2 + y^2$ ,  $x = t$ ,  $y = t^2$
- $z = x^2 + y^2$ ,  $x = t$ ,  $y = t^2$
- If  $z = x^2 + y^2$ ,  $x = t$ ,  $y = t^2$ , find  $\frac{dz}{dt}$  (Example 7).
- If  $z = x^2 + y^2$ ,  $x = t$ ,  $y = t^2$ , find  $\frac{dz}{dt}$  (Example 7).
- If  $z = f(x, y, z)$ ,  $x = t$ ,  $y = t^2$ , and  $z = t^3$  are each functions of  $t$ , find  $\frac{dz}{dt}$ .
- Let  $z = f(x, y)$ , where  $x = t \cos \theta$  and  $y = t \sin \theta$ . Show that  $\frac{dz}{dt} = \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} \frac{dy}{dt}$ .

29. The wave equation of physics is the partial differential equation

$$\frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial t^2} = c^2 \frac{\partial^2 y}{\partial x^2}$$

where  $c$  is a constant. Show that if  $y$  is any twice-differentiable function then

$$y(x - ct) + y(x + ct) = 2y(x)$$

satisfies this equation.

30. Show that if  $y = f(x - x_0, x - y_0, z)$  then

$$\frac{\partial y}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial y}{\partial x_0} + \frac{\partial y}{\partial x_1}$$

31. Let  $F(x) = \int_a^x f(u) du$ , where  $f$  is continuous and  $x$  and  $a$  are differentiable. Show that

$$F'(x) = f(x) \left( \frac{dx}{dx} + \frac{dx}{dy} \right)$$

and use this result to find  $F'(\sqrt{x})$ , where

$$F(x) = \int_{4(x+2)\pi}^x \sqrt{t + \pi^2} dt$$

32. Call a function  $f(x, y)$  *homogeneous of degree*  $n$  if  $f(tx, ty) = t^n f(x, y)$  for all  $t > 0$ . For example,  $f(x, y) = x^2 + 4xy + 3y^2$  is homogeneous of degree 2. Use Euler's Theorem that each homogeneous function

$$f(x, y) = x \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} + y \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$$

satisfies. Let  $f(x, y)$  denote the value of production from  $x$  units of capital and  $y$  units of labor. Then  $f$  is a homogeneous function (e.g., doubling capital and labor doubles production). Euler's Theorem then asserts an important law of economics: It may be phrased as follows: The value of production  $f(x, y)$  equals the cost of capital plus the cost of labor provided that they are paid for at their respective marginal rates  $\partial f / \partial x$  and  $\partial f / \partial y$ .

33. Leaving from the same point  $P$  on plane  $A$ , two cars start to drive on plane  $B$  (due N  $40^\circ$  E). At a certain instant  $A$  is 300 miles from  $P$  (lying at 450 miles per hour) and  $B$  is 400 miles from  $P$  (lying at 400 miles per hour). How fast are they separating at that instant?

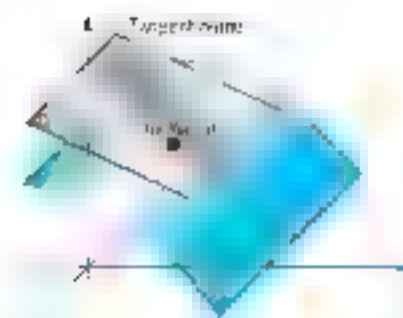
34. Recall Newton's Law of Gravitation, which asserts that the magnitude  $F$  of the force of attraction between objects of masses  $M$  and  $m$  is  $F = G(Mm/r^2)$ , where  $r$  is the distance between them and  $G$  is a universal constant. Let an object of mass  $M$  be located at the origin, and suppose that a second object of negligible mass  $m$  (say from Earth's atmosphere) is moving away from the origin so that its position vector is  $\mathbf{r} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$ . Obtain a formula for  $dF/dt$  in terms of the time derivatives of  $x$ ,  $y$ , and  $z$ .

Answers to Concepts Review: 1.  $\frac{d}{dx} \frac{d}{dy} \frac{d}{dz} \frac{d}{dt}$

2.  $y \cos t + 7 \sin(-\sin t) + \cos t = 7 \sin t \cos t$

3.  $\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} = 0$

## 12.7 Tangent Planes and Approximations



Figure

We now extend the notion of a tangent plane to a situation in Section 12.6 where surfaces are defined by equations in three variables (Figure 12.7).

Now we want to construct the tangent plane situation if a surface is defined by  $F(x, y, z) = k$ . (Note that  $z = f(x, y)$  can be written as  $F(x, y, z) = f(x, y) - z = 0$ .) Consider a curve on this surface passing through the point  $(x_0, y_0, z_0)$ . If  $x = x(t)$ ,  $y = y(t)$ , and  $z = z(t)$  are parametric equations for this curve, then for all

$$F(x(t), y(t), z(t)) = k$$

By the Chain Rule,

$$\frac{dF}{dt} = \frac{\partial F}{\partial x} \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial F}{\partial y} \frac{dy}{dt} + \frac{\partial F}{\partial z} \frac{dz}{dt} = 0$$

We can express this in terms of the gradient of  $F$  and the derivative of the vector expression for the curve  $\mathbf{r}(t) = x(t)\mathbf{i} + y(t)\mathbf{j} + z(t)\mathbf{k}$  as

$$\nabla F \cdot \frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt} = 0$$

As we learned earlier (Section 12.5),  $d\mathbf{r}/dt$  is tangent to the curve. In summary, the gradient  $\nabla F(x_0, y_0, z_0)$  is perpendicular to the tangent line at this point.

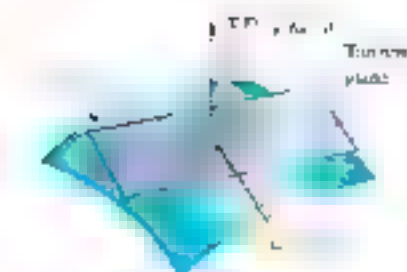


Figure 2

The argument just given is valid for any curve through  $(x_0, y_0, z_0)$  that lies in the surface  $F = k$  (Figure 2). This suggests the following general definition.

### Definition

Let  $F(x, y, z) = k$  determine a surface and suppose that  $F$  is differentiable at a point  $P(x_0, y_0, z_0)$  of this surface, with  $\nabla F(x_0, y_0, z_0) \neq \mathbf{0}$ . Then the plane through  $P$  perpendicular to  $\nabla F(x_0, y_0, z_0)$  is called the **tangent plane** to the surface at  $P$ .

As a consequence of this definition and Section 11.5, we can write the equation of the tangent plane.

### Theorem A Tangent Planes

For the surface  $F(x, y, z) = k$  the equation of the tangent plane at  $(x_0, y_0, z_0)$  is  $\nabla F(x_0, y_0, z_0) \cdot (x - x_0, y - y_0, z - z_0) = 0$ .

$$F_x(x_0, y_0, z_0)(x - x_0) + F_y(x_0, y_0, z_0)(y - y_0) + F_z(x_0, y_0, z_0)(z - z_0) = 0$$

In particular, for the surface  $z = f(x, y)$  the equation of the tangent plane at  $(x_0, y_0, f(x_0, y_0))$  is

$$z - f(x_0, y_0) = f_x(x_0, y_0)(x - x_0) + f_y(x_0, y_0)(y - y_0)$$

**Proof** The first statement is immediate, and the second follows from it by considering  $F(x, y, z) = f(x, y) - z$ . ■

If  $z$  is a function of  $x$  and  $y$ , say  $z = f(x, y)$ , then from the second part of Theorem A, we can write the equation of the tangent plane as

$$f_x(x_0, y_0)(x - x_0) + f_y(x_0, y_0)(y - y_0) + (z - f(x_0, y_0)) = 0$$

Taking  $\mathbf{p} = (x, y)$  and  $\mathbf{p}_0 = (x_0, y_0)$  we see that the equation of the tangent plane is

$$z = f(x_0, y_0) + (f_x(x_0, y_0), f_y(x_0, y_0)) \cdot (\mathbf{p} - \mathbf{p}_0) \\ f(\mathbf{p}_0) + \nabla f(\mathbf{p}_0) \cdot (\mathbf{p} - \mathbf{p}_0)$$

This can be written in the notation agreed with the definition of a tangent plane given in Section 12.4:

**EXAMPLE 1** Find the equation of the tangent plane (Figure 3) to  $z = x^2 + y^2$  at the point  $(1, 1, 2)$ .

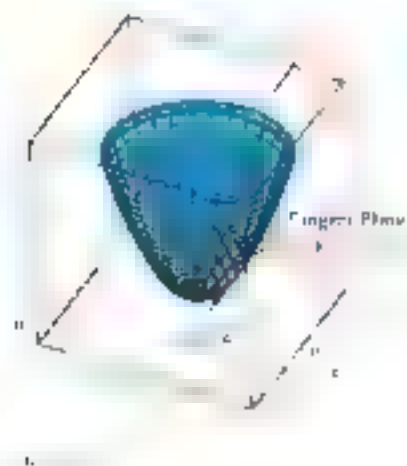
**SOLUTION** Let  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$  and note that  $\nabla f(x, y) = 2x\mathbf{i} + 2y\mathbf{j}$ . Thus  $\nabla f(1, 1) = 2\mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j}$ , and from Theorem A, the required equation is

$$2(x - 1) + 2(y - 1) + (z - 2) = 0$$

or

$$2x + 2y - z = 2$$

**EXAMPLE 2** Find the equation of the tangent plane and the normal line to the surface  $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}(u, v) = 2\mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j} + 3\mathbf{k}$  at  $(1, 2, 3)$ .





**EXAMPLE 1** Let  $F(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + 2z^2 = 23$  so that  $\nabla F(x, y, z) = \langle 2x, 2y, 4z \rangle = 12\mathbf{k}$  and  $\nabla F(1, 2, 3) = 24\mathbf{k} = 12\mathbf{k}$ . According to Theorem A, the equation of the tangent plane at  $(1, 2, 3)$  is

$$2x + 4y + 12z = 23 + 12(3 - 3) = 23.$$

Similarly, the symmetric equations of the normal line through  $(1, 2, 3)$  are

$$\frac{x - 1}{2} = \frac{y - 2}{4} = \frac{z - 3}{12}.$$

**THEOREM A** Let  $z = f(x, y)$  be a differentiable function and let  $P(x_0, y_0, z_0)$  be a point on the surface  $z = f(x, y)$ . Then the equation of the tangent plane to the surface at  $P$  is

Let  $z = f(x, y)$ , and let  $P(x_0, y_0, z_0)$  be a fixed point on the corresponding surface. If we use the coordinates  $x = x_0 + dx$ ,  $y = y_0 + dy$ , and  $z = z_0 + dz$  measured in the direction with  $P$  as origin (Figure 4), then the equation of the tangent plane at  $P$  has equation

$$z = z_0 + f_x(x_0, y_0)(x - x_0) + f_y(x_0, y_0)(y - y_0)$$

but in the new system this takes the simple form

$$dz = f_x(x_0, y_0) dx + f_y(x_0, y_0) dy.$$

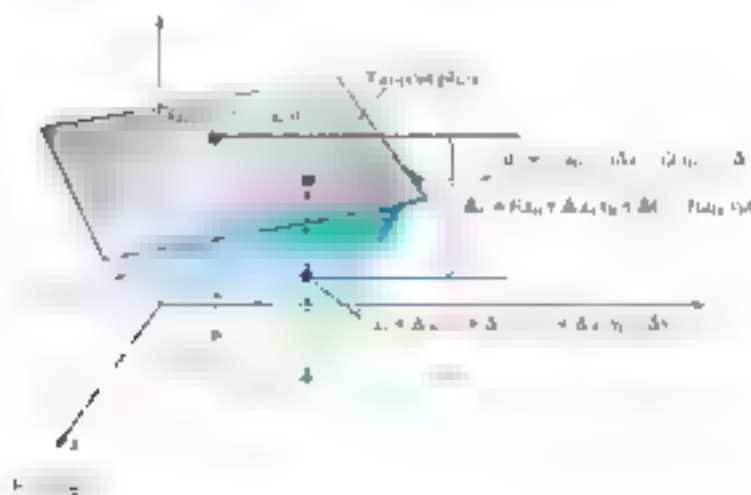
This suggests a definition.

#### Definition

Let  $z = f(x, y)$ , where  $f$  is a differentiable function, and let  $dx$  and  $dy$  (understood as differentials of  $x$  and  $y$ ) be variables. The **differential of the dependent variable,  $dz$** , also called the **total differential of  $f$**  and written  $df$ , is defined by

$$dz = df(x, y) = f_x(x, y)dx + f_y(x, y)dy = \nabla f(x, y) \cdot \langle dx, dy \rangle.$$

The significance of  $dz$  arises from the fact that if  $dx = \Delta x$  and  $dy = \Delta y$  represent small changes in  $x$  and  $y$ , respectively, then  $dz$  is a good approximation for  $\Delta z$  on the corresponding surface (Figure 5). That is,  $\Delta z \approx dz$  for small  $\Delta x$  and  $\Delta y$ . The error in this approximation is  $\Delta z - dz$ , which is  $O(\sqrt{\Delta x^2 + \Delta y^2})$ . The approximation becomes better and better as  $\Delta x$  and  $\Delta y$  get smaller.



**EXAMPLE 2** Let  $f(x, y) = x^2y + y^2$ . Compute  $dz$  and  $df$  as  $x$  or  $y$  changes from  $(2, 1)$  to  $(2.1, 1.48)$ .

## SOLUTION

$$\begin{aligned}
 \Delta z &= z_1 - z_0 \approx 0.98 \\
 &= 7(0.03)^3 + (2.03)(0.98) - (0.98)^3 - [2(2)^2 + 3(1)] = 1^3 \\
 &\approx 0.98067 \\
 dz &= f_x(x, y) \Delta x + f_y(x, y) \Delta y \\
 &= (6x^2 + 5) \Delta x + (x - 3y^2) \Delta y
 \end{aligned}$$

At  $(2, 1)$  with  $\Delta x = 0.03$  and  $\Delta y = -0.02$

$$dz \approx (25)(0.03) + (-1)(-0.02) = 0.77$$

**EXAMPLE 5** The formula  $P = k(T/V)$ , where  $k$  is a constant, gives the pressure  $P$  of a confined gas of volume  $V$  and absolute temperature  $T$ . Find approximately the maximum percentage error in  $P$  introduced by an error of  $\pm 0.04\%$  in measuring the temperature and an error of  $\pm 0.9\%$  in measuring the volume.

**SOLUTION** The error in  $P$  is  $\Delta P$ , which we will approximate by  $df$ . Thus,

$$\begin{aligned}
 |\Delta P| &\approx |dP| = \left| \frac{\partial P}{\partial T} \Delta T + \frac{\partial P}{\partial V} \Delta V \right| \\
 &\approx \left| \frac{k}{V} (\pm 0.0004T) \right| + \left| -\frac{kT}{V^2} (\pm 0.009V) \right| \\
 &= \frac{kT}{V} (0.004 + 0.009) = 0.013 \frac{kT}{V} = 0.013P
 \end{aligned}$$

The maximum relative error  $|\Delta P|/P$  is approximately 0.013, and the maximum percentage error is approximately 1.3%.

**DEFINITION** Let  $f$  be a function of one variable,  $f(x)$ . The  $n$ th-order Taylor polynomial of  $f$  at  $a$  is the polynomial  $P_n(x)$  of degree  $n$  such that

$$\begin{aligned}
 P_0(x) &= f(x_0) + f'(x_0)(x - x_0) \\
 P_1(x) &= f(x_0) + f'(x_0)(x - x_0) + \frac{1}{2}f''(x_0)(x - x_0)^2
 \end{aligned}$$

The line is the tangent line at the point  $(x_0, f(x_0))$ . The analogous quantities for a function  $f(x, y)$  of two variables are

$$P_0(x, y) = f(x_0, y_0) + [f_x(x_0, y_0)(x - x_0) + f_y(x_0, y_0)(y - y_0)]$$

which is, of course, the tangent plane at  $(x_0, y_0, f(x_0, y_0))$ , and

$$\begin{aligned}
 P_2(x, y) &= f(x_0, y_0) + [f_x(x_0, y_0)(x - x_0) + f_y(x_0, y_0)(y - y_0)] \\
 &\quad + \frac{1}{2}[f_{xx}(x_0, y_0)(x - x_0)^2 + 2f_{xy}(x_0, y_0)(x - x_0)(y - y_0) + f_{yy}(x_0, y_0)(y - y_0)^2]
 \end{aligned}$$

These results generalize to  $n$ th-order Taylor polynomials and functions of more than two variables.

**EXAMPLE 6** Find the first- and second-order Taylor polynomials for the function  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$  at  $(0, 0)$ , and use them to approximate  $f(0.1, 0.05)$ .

## SOLUTION

$$\begin{aligned}f_x(x, y) &= 2x + 4xy^2 = f_y(x, y) \\f_x(x, y) &= 4xy^2 = f_y(x, y) \\f_{xx}(x, y) &= 2 = f_{yy}(x, y) \\f_{xy}(x, y) &= 4y = f_{yx}(x, y) \\f_{xxx}(x, y) &= 4xy^2 = f_{xxy}(x, y)\end{aligned}$$

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned}P_2(x, y) &= f(0, 0) + [f_x(0, 0)(x - 0) + f_y(0, 0)(y - 0)] \\&= (1 - e^0) + (0x + 0y) = 0\end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}P_3(x, y) &= f(0, 0) + [f_x(0, 0)(x - 0) + f_y(0, 0)(y - 0)] \\&\quad + \frac{1}{2}[f_{xx}(0, 0)(x - 0)^2 + 2f_{xy}(0, 0)(x - 0)(y - 0) + f_{yy}(0, 0)(y - 0)^2] \\&\quad + \frac{1}{6}[f_{xxx}(0, 0)(x - 0)^3 + 3f_{xxy}(0, 0)(x - 0)^2(y - 0) + 3f_{xyx}(0, 0)(x - 0)(y - 0)^2 \\&\quad + f_{yyy}(0, 0)(y - 0)^3] \\&= 0 + 0 + \frac{1}{2}[2(0.05)^2 + 2(4)(0.05)(-0.06) + 2(-0.06)^2] + \frac{1}{6}[4(0.05)^3 + 3(4)(0.05)^2(-0.06) \\&\quad + 3(4)(0.05)(-0.06)^2 + (-0.06)^3] \\&= 0.00970\end{aligned}$$

The first-order approximation to  $f(0.05, -0.06)$  is

$$f(0.05, -0.06) \approx P_1(0.05, -0.06) = 0$$

and the second-order approximation is

$$f(0.05, -0.06) \approx P_2(0.05, -0.06) = 0.05^2 + 2(-0.06)^2 = 0.00970$$

Figure 6 shows the surface and the approximation by the second-order Taylor polynomial  $P_2(x, y) = 0$  along with the function  $f(x, y)$ . The true value for  $f(0.05, -0.06)$  is

$$f(0.05, -0.06) = 1 - e^{0.05^2 + 2(-0.06)^2} = 1 - e^{-0.00970} \approx 0.00969$$

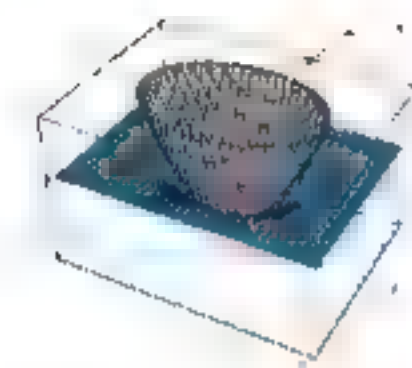


Figure 6

## Concepts Review

- Let  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$  define the function  $f$ . The direction of the gradient vector  $\nabla f$  is \_\_\_\_\_ at the origin.
- Let  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$  define the function  $f$ . The direction of  $\nabla f$  at the origin is \_\_\_\_\_.

- Let  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$  define the function  $f$ . The direction of the gradient vector  $\nabla f$  at the origin is \_\_\_\_\_.
- Let  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$  define the function  $f$ . The direction of the gradient vector  $\nabla f$  at the origin is \_\_\_\_\_.

## Problem Set 12.7

1. Let  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$  define the function  $f$ . The direction of the gradient vector  $\nabla f$  at the origin is \_\_\_\_\_.

- Let  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$  define the function  $f$ . The direction of the gradient vector  $\nabla f$  at the origin is \_\_\_\_\_.
- Let  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$  define the function  $f$ . The direction of the gradient vector  $\nabla f$  at the origin is \_\_\_\_\_.
- Let  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$  define the function  $f$ . The direction of the gradient vector  $\nabla f$  at the origin is \_\_\_\_\_.
- Let  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$  define the function  $f$ . The direction of the gradient vector  $\nabla f$  at the origin is \_\_\_\_\_.
- Let  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$  define the function  $f$ . The direction of the gradient vector  $\nabla f$  at the origin is \_\_\_\_\_.
- Let  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$  define the function  $f$ . The direction of the gradient vector  $\nabla f$  at the origin is \_\_\_\_\_.

- Let  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$  define the function  $f$ . The direction of the gradient vector  $\nabla f$  at the origin is \_\_\_\_\_.
- Let  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$  define the function  $f$ . The direction of the gradient vector  $\nabla f$  at the origin is \_\_\_\_\_.

3. In Problems 4–12, use the total differential  $dz$  to approximate the change in  $z$  as  $x$  and  $y$  change from  $x_0$  to  $x_1$  and  $y_0$  to  $y_1$ , respectively. (Round your answers to four decimal places.) See Example 3.

- $z = 2x^2 + y^2$ ,  $(x_0, y_0) = (1, 1)$ ,  $(x_1, y_1) = (1.1, 1.1)$
- $z = 5x^2 + y^2$ ,  $(x_0, y_0) = (1, 1)$ ,  $(x_1, y_1) = (1.1, 1.1)$
- $z = 5x^2 + y^2$ ,  $(x_0, y_0) = (1, 1)$ ,  $(x_1, y_1) = (1.1, 1.1)$

$$12. \quad \text{Let } z = f(x, y) = 2x^2 + 3y^2 - 4x + 6y + 5.$$

13. Find all points on the surface

$$z = 4 - x^2 - y^2$$

where the tangent plane is horizontal.

14. Find a point on the surface  $z = 2x^2 + 3y^2$  where the tangent plane is parallel to the plane  $6x - 3y = 3$ .

15. Show that the surfaces  $x^2 + 4y - z^2 = 0$  and  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 - 6x + 7 = 0$  are tangent to each other at  $(0, -1, 2)$ . Then, show that they have the same tangent plane at  $(0, -1, 2)$ .

16. Show that the surfaces  $z = x^2y$  and  $y = \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{2}z^2$  intersect at  $(1, 1, -1)$  and have perpendicular tangent planes there.

17. Find a point on the surface  $x + 2y^2 + 3z^2 = 12$  where the tangent plane is perpendicular to the line with parametric equations

$$x = 1 + t, \quad y = 2 - t, \quad z = 3 + t.$$

18. Show that the equation of the tangent plane to the ellipsoid

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} + \frac{z^2}{c^2} = 1$$

at  $(x_0, y_0, z_0)$  can be written in the form

$$\frac{x}{a} + \frac{y}{b} + \frac{z}{c} = \frac{x_0}{a} + \frac{y_0}{b} + \frac{z_0}{c}.$$

19. Find the parametric equations of the line that is tangent to the curve of intersection of the surfaces

$$z = 4 - x^2 - y^2 \quad \text{and} \quad x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$$

at the point

$$(x, y, z) = \left( \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{2} \right).$$

20. At the point  $(-2, 2)$ , find the line is perpendicular to  $\nabla f$  and  $\nabla g$  if  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$  and  $g(x, y) = x^2 - y^2$ .

21. Find the parametric equations of the line that is tangent to the curve of intersection of the surfaces  $z = x^2$  and  $x = y^2$  at the point  $(1, 1, 1)$ .

22. In determining the specific gravity of an object, the weight in air is found to be  $A = 36$  pounds and its weight in water is  $W = 21$  pounds, with a possible error in each measurement of  $\pm 0.01$  pound. Find approximately the maximum possible error in calculating its specific gravity  $S$ , where  $S = A/(A - W)$ .

23. Use differentials to find the approximate amount of copper in the outer shell and bottom of a rectangular copper tank that is 6 feet long, 4 feet wide, and 3 feet deep inside. If the sheet copper is  $\frac{1}{4}$  inch thick. *Hint:* Make a sketch.

24. The radius and height of a right circular cone are measured with errors of at most 3% and 3%, respectively. Use differentials to estimate the maximum percentage error in the calculated volume (see Example 4).

25. The period  $T$  of a pendulum of length  $L$  is given by  $T = 2\pi\sqrt{L/g}$ , where  $g$  is the acceleration of gravity. Show that  $dT/T = \frac{1}{2}(dL/L - dg/g)$ , and use this result to estimate the maximum percentage error in  $T$  due to an error of 0.5% in measuring  $L$  and 0.3% in measuring  $g$ .

26. The formula  $\frac{1}{R} = \frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2}$  determines the combined resistance  $R$  when resistors of resistance  $R_1$  and  $R_2$  are connected in parallel. Suppose that  $R_1$  and  $R_2$  were measured as 25 and 100 ohms, respectively, with possible errors in each measurement of 0.5 ohm. Calculate  $R$  and give an estimate for the maximum error in this value.

27. A bee sat at the point  $(1, 2, 3)$  on the ellipsoid  $x^2 + y^2 + 2z^2 = 6$  (distances in feet). At  $t = 0$ , it took off along the normal line at a speed of 4 feet per second. Where was it when  $t = 0.1$  second? *Hint:* Use the gradient.

28. Show that a plane tangent at any point of the surface  $z = 4 - x^2 - y^2$  forms with the coordinate planes a tetrahedron of fixed volume and find this volume.

29. Find and simplify the equation of the tangent plane to the surface  $\sqrt{x} + \sqrt{y} + \sqrt{z} = \pi$ . Then show that the sum of the intercepts of this plane with the coordinate axes is  $\pi^2$ .

30. For the function  $f(x, y) = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$  find the second-order Taylor approximation based at  $(x_0, y_0) = (3, 4)$ . Then estimate  $f(3.1, 3.9)$  using

- the first-order approximation,
- the second-order approximation, and
- the actual value of  $f(3.1, 3.9)$ .

31. For the function  $f(x, y) = \tan^{-1}(x + 3y)$ , find the second-order Taylor approximation based at  $(x_0, y_0) = (0, 0)$ . Then estimate  $f(0.2, -0.5)$  using

- the first-order approximation,
- the second-order approximation, and
- the actual value of  $f(0.2, -0.5)$ .

$$\begin{array}{rcccl} & & \text{Review} & \text{Is perpendicular} & \\ 2. & & 1 & 3, -2 & 7 & 4 & 0 & 0 \\ 4. & \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} & + & \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} & = & 0 \end{array}$$

## 12.8 Maxima and Minima

Our goal is to extend the notions of Chapter 3 to functions of several variables, a quick review of that chapter is in Section 3.1. We begin with the maximum given there. extended almost with no change to reach the general case. In what follows, let  $\mathbf{p} = (x, y)$  and  $\mathbf{p}_0 = (x_0, y_0)$  be a variable point and a fixed point, respectively, in two-space. They could just as well be points in  $n$ -space.

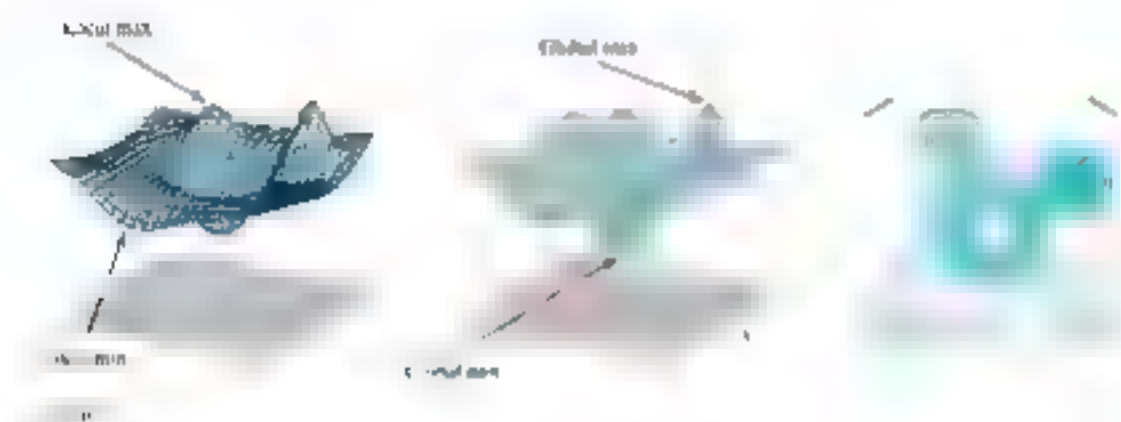
**Definition**

Let  $f$  be a function with domain  $S$ , and let  $p_0$  be a point in  $S$ .

- $f(p_0)$  is a **global maximum value** of  $f$  on  $S$  if  $f(p_0) \geq f(p)$  for all  $p$  in  $S$ .
- $f(p_0)$  is a **global minimum value** of  $f$  on  $S$  if  $f(p_0) \leq f(p)$  for all  $p$  in  $S$ .
- $f(p_0)$  is a **global extreme value** of  $f$  on  $S$  if  $f(p_0)$  is either a global maximum value or a global minimum value.

We define the notions for **local maximum value** and **local minimum value** of  $f$  in the same way, except that the inequality should be  $f(p_0) \geq f(p)$  or  $f(p_0) \leq f(p)$  in the neighborhood of  $p_0$ .  $f(p_0)$  is a **local extreme value** of  $f$  on  $S$  if  $f(p_0)$  is either a local maximum value or a local minimum value.

Figure 12.5 is a schematic interpretation of the concepts we have defined. Note that a global maximum or minimum is automatically also a local maximum or minimum.



Our first theorem is a big one—difficult to prove but intuitively clear.

**Theorem 4** **Max-Min Existence Theorem**

If  $f$  is continuous on a closed bounded set  $S$ , then  $f$  attains both a (global) maximum value and a (global) minimum value there.

The proof may be found in most books on advanced calculus.

$S = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x^2 + y^2 \leq 1\}$ . The situation is analogous to the one-variable case. The **critical points** of  $f$  in  $S$  are of three types:

- Boundary points.** See Section 12.3.
- Stationary points.** We call  $p_0$  a **stationary point** if  $p_0$  is an interior point of  $S$  where  $f$  is differentiable and  $\nabla f(p_0) = 0$ . At such a point, the tangent plane is horizontal.
- Singular points.** We call  $p_0$  a **singular point** if  $p_0$  is an interior point of  $S$  where  $f$  is not differentiable (for example, a point where the graph of  $f$  has a sharp corner).

Now we can state another big theorem; we can actually prove this one.

**Theorem 3 Critical Point Theorem**

Let  $f$  be defined on a set  $S$  containing  $\mathbf{p}_0$ . If  $f(\mathbf{p}_0)$  is an extreme value then  $\mathbf{p}_0$  must be a critical point, that is, either  $\mathbf{p}_0$  is

1. a boundary point of  $S$ , or
2. a stationary point of  $f$ , or
3. a singular point of  $S$ .

**Proof** Suppose that  $\mathbf{p}_0$  is neither a boundary point nor a singular point (so that  $\mathbf{p}_0$  is an interior point where  $\nabla f$  exists). We will be done if we can show that  $\nabla f(\mathbf{p}_0) = \mathbf{0}$ . For, in that case, set  $\mathbf{p}_0 = \mathbf{x}_0$ , and the gradient condition can be followed in a similar fashion.

Since  $f(\mathbf{p}_0)$  is an extreme value at  $\mathbf{p}_0$ , the function  $g(t) = f(\mathbf{x}_0 + t\mathbf{u})$  has an extreme value at  $t_0 = 0$ . It is not a contradiction that  $g'(t) = 0$  at  $t_0 = 0$  while  $g'(t) \neq 0$  at  $t_0 \neq 0$ , and, therefore, by the Chain Rule, a reason for this holds for the variables (Theorem 3.1.11)

$$\mathbf{g}'(t_0) = f'(\mathbf{x}_0; \mathbf{u}) = 0$$

Similarly, the function  $h(t) = f(\mathbf{x}_0 + t\mathbf{v})$  has an extreme value at  $t_0$  and satisfies

$$h'(t_0) = f'(\mathbf{x}_0; \mathbf{v}) = 0$$

The gradient is  $\mathbf{0}$  since both partials are 0. ■

The theorem and its proof are valid whether the extreme values are global or local extreme values.

**EXAMPLE 1** Find the local maximum or minimum values of  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 + 1$ .

**SOLUTION** The extreme values are determined through the formula for  $\mathbf{p}_0$ . Thus the only possible critical points are the stationary points obtained by setting  $f_x(x, y)$  and  $f_y(x, y)$  equal to zero. But  $f_x(x, y) = 2x = 0$  and  $f_y(x, y) = 2y = 0$  are zero only when  $x = 0$  and  $y = 0$ , respectively. Whether  $(0, 0)$  is a local maximum or minimum we will decide by applying the second-derivative test, but for now we must use a different property. Note that  $f(x, y) \geq 1$  and

$$\begin{aligned} f(x, y) &= x^2 + y^2 + 1 & \frac{\partial}{\partial x} f(x, y) &= 2x & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} f(x, y) &= 2y \\ &= 0 & \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} f(x, y) &= 2 & \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} f(x, y) &= 2 \\ &= 1 & \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x \partial y} f(x, y) &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $f(0, 0)$  is actually a global minimum of  $f$ . There are no local maximum values. ■

**EXAMPLE 2** Find the local maximum or minimum values of  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 + 2xy$ .

**SOLUTION** The only critical points are obtained by setting  $f_x(x, y) = 2x + 2y = 0$  and  $f_y(x, y) = 2x + 2y = 0$  equal to zero. This yields the point  $(0, 0)$ , which gives neither a maximum nor minimum (see Figure 2), is called a **saddle point**. The point function has no local extrema. ■

Example 2 illustrates the troublesome fact that  $\nabla f(x_0, y_0) = \mathbf{0}$  does not guarantee that there is a local extremum at  $(x_0, y_0)$ . Fortunately, there is a more rigorous test for deciding what is happening at a stationary point—our next topic.



Figure 2

$\Delta z = f_x(x, y)\Delta x + f_y(x, y)\Delta y + \frac{1}{2}(\Delta x, \Delta y)H(x, y)(\Delta x, \Delta y)^T$ . The new theorem is analogous to the Second Derivative Test for functions of one variable (Theorem 3.1B). A rigorous proof is beyond the scope of this book, but we provide a sketch of the proof that gives the Taylor polynomial for functions of two variables in numbered lines in the previous section.

### Theorem 12.2 Second Partial Test

Suppose that  $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  has continuous second partial derivatives in a neighborhood of  $(x_0, y_0)$  and that  $\nabla f(x_0, y_0) = 0$ . Let

$$D = D(x_0, y_0) = f_{xx}(x_0, y_0)f_{yy}(x_0, y_0) - f_{xy}^2(x_0, y_0).$$

Then

1. If  $D > 0$  and  $f_{xx}(x_0, y_0) < 0$ , then  $f(x_0, y_0)$  is a local maximum value.
2. If  $D > 0$  and  $f_{xx}(x_0, y_0) > 0$ , then  $f(x_0, y_0)$  is a local minimum value.
3. If  $D < 0$ , then  $f(x_0, y_0)$  is not an extreme value ( $(x_0, y_0)$  is a saddle point).
4. If  $D = 0$ , then the test is inconclusive.

**Sketch of Proof** We will assume that  $x < 0$  and that  $y_0 = y_1 = 0$ . If these conditions do not hold we can treat the graph with a change of slope to make these conditions true, and then conclude that  $f(x_0, y_0)$  is a local extreme value. The function's behavior is much like the second-order Taylor polynomial of  $f$  about  $(0, 0)$ .

**POLYNOMIAL**

$$f(x, y) \approx f(0, 0) + f_x(0, 0)x + f_y(0, 0)y + \frac{1}{2}(f_{xx}(0, 0)x^2 + 2f_{xy}(0, 0)xy + f_{yy}(0, 0)y^2).$$

A rigorous proof would take into account the error term  $R(x, y)$  in the approximation  $f(x, y) \approx f(0, 0) + f_x(0, 0)x + f_y(0, 0)y + \frac{1}{2}(f_{xx}(0, 0)x^2 + 2f_{xy}(0, 0)xy + f_{yy}(0, 0)y^2)$ . Under the conditions that  $\nabla f(0, 0) = 0$  and the condition  $f(0, 0) = 0$ , the second-order Taylor polynomial reduces to

$$P(x, y) = \frac{1}{2}(f_{xx}(0, 0)x^2 + 2f_{xy}(0, 0)xy + f_{yy}(0, 0)y^2).$$

Let  $A = f_{xx}(0, 0)$ ,  $B = f_{xy}(0, 0)$ , and  $C = f_{yy}(0, 0)$ . This gives

$$P(x, y) = \frac{1}{2}(Ax^2 + 2Bxy + Cy^2).$$

Computing its square matrix gives

$$f''(x, y) = \begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ B & C \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 2A & 2B \\ 2B & 2C \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} f_{xx} & f_{xy} \\ f_{xy} & f_{yy} \end{bmatrix}.$$

The expression  $\Delta = \begin{vmatrix} A & B \\ B & C \end{vmatrix}$  is positive for  $(x, y) \neq (0, 0)$  except for  $\begin{vmatrix} C & B \\ B & A \end{vmatrix} = 0$ , that is, if  $4C^2 - B^2 > 0$  or  $4C^2 > B^2$ . If  $4C^2 > B^2$  and  $A > 0$ , then the expression in brackets will be positive for all  $(x, y) \neq (0, 0)$ . In addition,  $A > 0$  when  $P(x, y) > 0$  for  $(x, y) \neq (0, 0)$ , in which case  $f(0, 0) = 0$  is a local minimum. Similarly, if  $D < 0$  and  $A < 0$  then  $P(x, y) < 0$  for  $(x, y) \neq (0, 0)$ , in which case  $f(0, 0) = 0$  is a local maximum. When  $D = 0$ , then the graph of  $P(x, y)$  is a parabola, which may be a U-shaped parabola opening upward if  $A > 0$  and downward if  $A < 0$ .

When  $D = 0$ , the graph of  $P(x, y)$  is a rotated hyperbolic parabola with a saddle point at  $(0, 0)$ . (See Figure 12.1 in Section 12.2.)

Finally, when  $D > 0$ , then all terms in  $P_2(x, y)$  are zero, and so  $P_2(x, y) = 0$ . In this case, higher-order terms would be required to determine the behavior of  $f(x, y)$  near  $(0, 0)$ . Since the theorem makes no assumptions about these higher-order terms, we can draw no conclusions about whether  $(0, 0)$  is a local minimum or maximum. ■

**EXAMPLE 3** Find the extrema of any of the functions  $F$  defined by  $F(x, y) = 3x^3 + y^3 - 9x + 4y$ .

**SOLUTION** Since  $F_x(x, y) = 9x^2 - 9$  and  $F_y(x, y) = 3y + 4$ , the critical points are found by solving the simultaneous equations  $f_x(x, y) = f_x(x, y) = 0$  and  $f_y(x, y) = f_y(x, y) = 0$ . These equations are  $(1 - x^2) = 0$  and  $(-1 - y) = 0$ , which have solutions  $(1, -1)$  and  $(-1, -2)$ .

Now  $F_{xx}(x, y) = 18x$ ,  $F_{xy}(x, y) = 0$ , and  $F_{yy}(x, y) = 3$ . Thus, at the critical point  $(1, -1)$ ,

$$D = F_{xx}(1, -1) = F_{xx}(1, -1) = F_{xx}(1, -1) = 18(1) = 18 > 0$$

Furthermore,  $F_{xx}(1, -1) = 18 > 0$  and so, by Theorem 12.2,  $(1, -1)$  is a local minimum value of  $F$ .

In testing the critical function at the other critical point  $(-1, -2)$ , we find that  $F_{xx}(-1, -2) = -18$ ,  $F_{xy}(-1, -2) = 0$ , and  $F_{yy}(-1, -2) = 3$ , which makes  $D = -36 < 0$ . Thus, by Theorem 12.3,  $(-1, -2)$  is a saddle point and  $F(-1, -2)$  is not an extremum. ■

**EXAMPLE 4** Find the minimum distance between the origin and the surface  $z^2 = x^2 + y^2 - 4$ .

**SOLUTION** Let  $P(x, y, z)$  be any point on the surface. The square of the distance between the origin and  $P$  is  $d^2 = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$ . We seek the coordinates of  $P$  that make  $d^2$  (and hence  $d$ ) a minimum.

Since  $P$  is on the surface,  $z^2$  can be expressed as a function of  $x$  and  $y$ . Substituting  $z^2 = x^2 + y^2 - 4$  into  $d^2$ , we obtain  $d^2$  as a function of variables  $x$  and  $y$ :

$$d^2 = x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = x^2 + y^2 + x^2 + y^2 - 4$$

To find the critical points, we set  $f_x(x, y) = 0$  and  $f_y(x, y) = 0$ , obtaining

$$2x + 2x = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad 2y + 2y = 0$$

By eliminating  $x$  between these equations, we get

$$2x = x^2 = 0$$

Thus  $x = 0$  for  $x = 0$ . Substituting these values into the second of the equations, we obtain  $y = 0$  and  $y = -1$ . Therefore, the critical points are  $(0, 0)$  and  $(-1, -1)$ . (There are no boundary points.)

To test each of these, we need  $f_{xx}(x, y) = 2$ ,  $f_{xy}(x, y) = 2$ ,  $f_{yy}(x, y) = 2$ , and

$$D(x, y) = f_{xx}f_{yy} - f_{xy}^2 = 4 + 4y - 4x^2$$

Since  $D(0, 0) = 4 - 0 < 0$ , neither  $(\sqrt{2}, -1)$  nor  $(-\sqrt{2}, -1)$  yields an extremum. However,  $D(-1, -1) = 4 > 0$  and  $f_{xx}(-1, -1) = 2 > 0$ ; so  $(-1, -1)$  yields the minimum distance. Substituting  $x = 0$  and  $y = 0$  in the expression for  $d^2$ , we find  $d^2 = 4$ .

The minimum distance between the origin and the given surface is 2. ■

It is easy to check the boundary points when we are maximizing or minimizing a function of one variable, because the boundary usually consists of just two endpoints. For functions of two or more variables, it is a more difficult



problem. In some cases, such as the next example, the entire boundary can be parameterized, and then the methods of Chapter 4 can be used to find the maximum and minimum. In other cases, such as the next example, a piece of the boundary can be parameterized, and then the function can be maximized or minimized on each piece. We will see another method, Lagrange multipliers, in the next section.

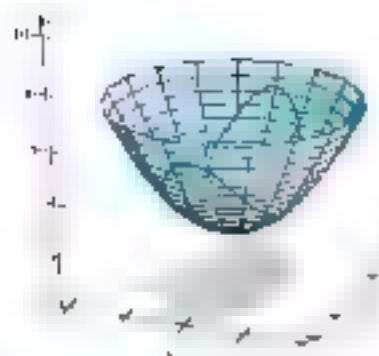


FIGURE 3

**EXAMPLE 5** Find the maximum and minimum values of  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 + 2$  on the closed and bounded set  $S = \{(x, y) \mid x^2 + y^2 \leq 1\}$ .

**SOLUTION** Figure 3 shows the surface  $z = f(x, y)$  along with the set  $S$ , shown in the  $xy$ -plane. The first-order derivatives are  $f_x = 2x$  and  $f_y = 2y$ . Thus, the only interior critical point is  $(0, 0)$ . Since

$$Df(0, 0) = f_x(0, 0)f_y(0, 0) = f_{xx}^2(0, 0) - f_{xy}^2(0, 0) = 4 - 0 = 4 > 0$$

and  $f_{xx}(0, 0) = 2 > 0$ , we know that  $f(0, 0) = 2$  is a minimum.

The global maximum must then occur on the boundary of  $S$ . Figure 3 also shows that boundary of  $S$  projected upward on the surface  $z = f(x, y)$  shown here. Along this curve,  $f$  should achieve a maximum. We can describe this curve by the boundary of  $S$  by

$$(x, y) = (\cos t, \sin t), \quad x = \cos t, \quad y = \sin t, \quad 0 \leq t < 2\pi$$

The parametric equations lead to the restriction  $f_x = 0 = f_y = 0$  is not a new variable.

$$z(t) = f(\cos t, \sin t) = \cos^2 t + \sin^2 t + 2 = 3$$

By the Chain Rule (Theorem 12.6A),

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dz}{dt} &= \frac{dz}{dx} \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{dz}{dy} \frac{dy}{dt} \\ &= 2x(-\sin t) + 2y(\cos t) \\ &= -2 \cos t \sin t + 2 \sin t \cos t \\ &= 0 \quad \sin t \cos t = 0 \end{aligned}$$

So,  $\sin t = 0$  yields  $t = \frac{\pi}{2}, \pi, \frac{3\pi}{2}$ , and  $2\pi$ . Thus,  $g$  has five critical points on  $[0, 2\pi]$ . These five values for  $t$  determine the five critical points  $(1, 0)$ ,  $(0, 2)$ ,  $(-1, 0)$ ,  $(0, -2)$ , and  $(1, 0)$  for  $f$ ; the last point is the same as the first because an angle of  $2\pi$  yields the same point as an angle of  $0$ . The corresponding values of  $z$  are

$$\begin{aligned} z(1, 0) &= 3, & z(0, 2) &= 5 \\ z(-1, 0) &= 3, & z(0, -2) &= 5 \end{aligned}$$

At the critical point interior to  $S$  we have  $z = 2$ . Therefore we conclude that the minimum value of  $f$  on  $S$  is 2 and the maximum value is 5.

**EXAMPLE 6** A power cable must be laid from a power plant to a new factory located across a shallow river. The river is 40 feet wide and the factory is 100 feet away from the bank as shown in Figure 4. The cable costs \$50 per foot to lay under water, \$30 per foot to lay along the bank, and \$20 per foot to lay from the bank to the factory. What path should be taken to minimize the cost and what is the minimum cost?

**SOLUTION** Let  $P$ ,  $Q$ ,  $R$ , and  $F$  denote the points as shown in Figure 4. Let  $x$  denote the distance from the point directly across from the power plant to  $Q$  and

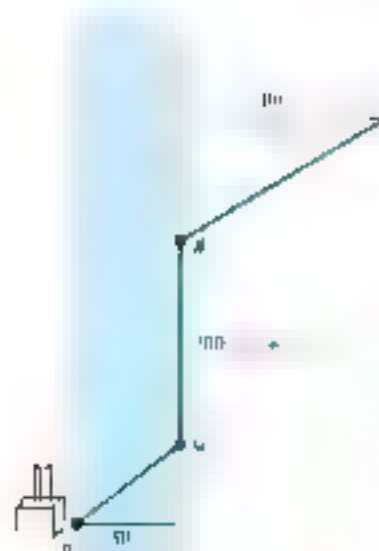


FIGURE 4

let  $x$  denote the distance from  $R$  to the point on the bank nearest the factory. The lengths and costs of the cable are shown in the table below.

| Type of Cable | Length               | Cost       |
|---------------|----------------------|------------|
| Underwater    | $\sqrt{x^2 + 50^2}$  | \$600/foot |
| Along Bank    | $300 - x$            | \$100/foot |
| Above-Land    | $\sqrt{y^2 + 100^2}$ | \$200/foot |

The total cost is therefore

$$C(x, y) = 600\sqrt{x^2 + 50^2} + 100(300 - x - y) + 200\sqrt{y^2 + 100^2}$$

The values of  $x$  and  $y$  must satisfy  $x = 0$  or  $x = 300$  or  $y = 0$  or  $y = 300$  (see Figure 5). Taking partial derivatives and setting them equal to 0 gives

$$C_x(x, y) = 300(x^2 + 50^2)^{-1/2}(2x) - 100 = \frac{600x}{\sqrt{x^2 + 50^2}} \quad (C_x = 0)$$

$$C_y(x, y) = 100(y^2 + 100^2)^{-1/2}(2y) - 100 = \frac{200y}{\sqrt{y^2 + 100^2}} \quad (C_y = 0)$$

The solution to this system of equations is

$$x = \frac{10}{7}\sqrt{35} \approx 8.4515$$

$$y = \frac{100}{3}\sqrt{3} \approx 57.735$$

We now apply the second partials test.

$$\begin{aligned} C_{xx}(x, y) &= -\frac{600x}{x^2 + 50^2} = -\frac{600x^3}{x^4 + 50^2x^2} \\ C_{yy}(x, y) &= -\frac{200y}{y^2 + 100^2} = -\frac{200y^3}{y^4 + 100^2y^2} \\ C_{xy}(x, y) &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

Evaluating  $D$  at  $x = \frac{10}{7}\sqrt{35}$  and  $y = \frac{100}{3}\sqrt{3}$  gives

$$\begin{aligned} D &= \begin{vmatrix} C_{xx} & C_{xy} \\ C_{xy} & C_{yy} \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} -\frac{600x^3}{x^4 + 50^2x^2} & 0 \\ 0 & -\frac{200y^3}{y^4 + 100^2y^2} \end{vmatrix} \\ &= \frac{120,000x^3}{x^4 + 50^2x^2} \cdot \frac{200y^3}{y^4 + 100^2y^2} \\ &= \frac{24,000,000}{x^2y^2} > 0 \end{aligned}$$

Thus,  $x = \frac{10}{7}\sqrt{35}$  and  $y = \frac{100}{3}\sqrt{3}$  yields a local minimum, which is

$$\begin{aligned} C\left(\frac{10}{7}\sqrt{35}, \frac{100}{3}\sqrt{3}\right) &= 600\sqrt{\left(\frac{10}{7}\sqrt{35}\right)^2 + 50^2} + 100\left(300 - \frac{10}{7}\sqrt{35} - \frac{100}{3}\sqrt{3}\right) \\ &\quad + 200\sqrt{\left(\frac{100}{3}\sqrt{3}\right)^2 + 100^2} \approx \$18,919.91 \end{aligned}$$

We must also check the boundary. When  $x = 0$ , the cost function is

$$C_1(y) = C(0, y) = 30,000 + 100(300 - y) + 200\sqrt{y^2 + 100^2}$$

(The function  $C_1$  agrees with  $C$  on the left boundary of the domain of  $C$ .) Similarly,  $C_2(x)$  and  $C_3(y)$  defined below agree with  $C$  on the lower and upper boundaries, respectively. See Figure 5. Using the methods from Chapter 4 (details are left to the reader), we find that  $C_1$  achieves a minimum



of approximately \$67.32 when  $x = 100\sqrt{3}$ . On the boundary where  $y = 0$ , the cost function is

$$C_2(x) = C(x, 0) = 20000 + 600\sqrt{x^2 + 50^2} + 100(200 - x)$$

Again, using the methods of Chapter 3, we find that  $C_2$  reaches a minimum at approximately \$67.30 when  $x = 100\sqrt{3}$ . Finally, we must consider the boundary where  $x = 0 < 200$ . We can substitute  $200 - x$  for  $y$  to get the cost in terms of  $x$  alone:

$$C_3(x) = C(x, 200 - x) = 600\sqrt{x^2 + 50^2} + 200\sqrt{(200 - x)^2 + 100^2}$$

This function reaches a minimum of approximately \$73.380 when  $x \approx 4.3292$ .

Therefore, the minimum cost path is the path where  $x = 0 \approx 8.45$  and  $y = 191.55$ , which yields a cost of \$66.85. ■

## Concepts Review

- If  $f(x, y)$  is continuous on  $D(f)$  and  $f$  then  $f$  attains with a unique value and a maximum value on  $S$ .
- If  $f(x, y)$  attains a maximum value at a point  $(x_0, y_0)$  then  $(x_0, y_0)$  is either a(n) \_\_\_\_\_ point or a(n) \_\_\_\_\_ point or a(n) \_\_\_\_\_ point.
- If  $(x_0, y_0)$  is a stationary point for  $f$ , then \_\_\_\_\_ will occur there and \_\_\_\_\_.
- In the Second Partial Test for a function  $f$  of two variables, the number  $D = \det H_f(x_0, y_0)$  plays a crucial role.

## Problem Set 12.8

In Problems 1–10, find all critical points. Indicate whether each such point gives a local maximum, a local minimum, or whether it is a saddle point. Hint: Use Theorem 1.

- $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 + 4x + 6y + 1$
- $f(x, y) = x^2 + 4y^2 - 2x + 8y + 1$
- $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 + 2x + 4y + 1$
- $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 + 2x + 4y + 1$
- $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 + 2x + 4y + 1$
- $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 + 2x + 4y + 1$
- $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 + 2x + 4y + 1$
- $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 + 2x + 4y + 1$
- $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 + 2x + 4y + 1$
- $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 + 2x + 4y + 1$

In Problems 11–14, find the global maximum value and global minimum value of  $f$  on  $S$  and indicate where each occurs.

- $f(x, y) = 3x + 4y$   
 $S = \{(x, y) \mid x^2 + y^2 \leq 1\}$
- $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$   
 $S = \{(x, y) \mid x^2 + y^2 \leq 1\}$
- $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$   
 $S = \{(x, y) \mid x^2 + y^2 \leq 1\}$  (See Example 5.)
- $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$   
 $S = \{(x, y) \mid x^2 + y^2 \leq 1\}$

15. Express a positive number  $N$  as a sum of three positive numbers such that the product of these three numbers is as large as possible.

16. Use the methods of this section to find the shortest distance from the origin to the plane  $x + 2y + 3z = 12$ .

17. Find the dimensions of the closed rectangular box of volume 1, with minimum surface area.

18. Find the dimensions of the rectangular box in volume 1, for which the sum of the edge lengths is least.

19. A rectangular metal tank with open top is to hold 120 cubic feet of liquid. What are the dimensions of the tank that require the least material to build?

20. A rectangular box whose edges are parallel to the coordinate axes is inscribed in the ellipsoid  $96x^2 + 4y^2 + 6z^2 = 36$ . What is the greatest possible volume for such a box?

21. Find the three-dimensional vector with length 5, the sum of whose components is a minimum.

22. Find the point on the plane  $2x + 4y + 3z = 12$  that is closest to the origin. What is the minimum distance?

23. Find the point on the paraboloid  $z = x^2 + y^2$  that is closest to  $(1, 2, 0)$ . What is the minimum distance?

24. Find the minimum distance between the point  $(-2, 1)$  and the line  $x + y = 1$ .

25. An open gutter with cross section in the form of a large-rod with equal base angles is to be made by bending up equal strips along both sides of a long piece of metal 12 inches wide. Find the base angle and the width of the sides for maximum carrying capacity.

36. Find the minimum distance between the lines having parametric equations  $x = 1 + 2t$ ,  $y = 3 + 2t$ , and  $x = 2 + t$ ,  $y = 1 + t$ .

37. Convince yourself that the maximum and minimum values of a linear function  $f(x, y) = ax + by + c$  over a closed polygonal set  $S$ , a polygon and its interior, will always occur at a vertex of the polygon. Then use this fact to find each of the following.

(a) maximum value of  $3x + 3y + 4$  on the closed polygon with vertices  $(-1, 0)$ ,  $(0, 1)$ ,  $(1, 1)$ , and  $(1, 0)$

(b) minimum value of  $3x + 2y + 1$  on the closed polygon with vertices  $(-3, 0)$ ,  $(0, 3)$ ,  $(2, 3)$ ,  $(4, 0)$ , and  $(1, -4)$

38. Use the result of Problem 37 to maximize  $2x + y$  subject to the constraints  $4x + y \leq 16$ ,  $2x + 3y \leq 14$ ,  $x \geq 0$ , and  $y \geq 0$ . *Hint:* Begin by graphing the set determined by the constraints.

39. Find the maximum and minimum values of  $z = x^2 + y^2$  (Figure 3) on the closed triangle with vertices  $(0, 0)$ ,  $(1, 1)$ , and  $(1, 0)$ .

40. Least Squares Given  $n$  points  $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$  in the  $xy$ -plane, we wish to find the line  $y = mx + b$  such that the sum of the squares of the vertical distances from the points to the line is a minimum. Thus, we wish to minimize

$$f(m, b) = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - mx_i - b)^2$$

See Figure 6. A hint: remember that the  $x_i$ 's and the  $y_i$ 's are fixed!

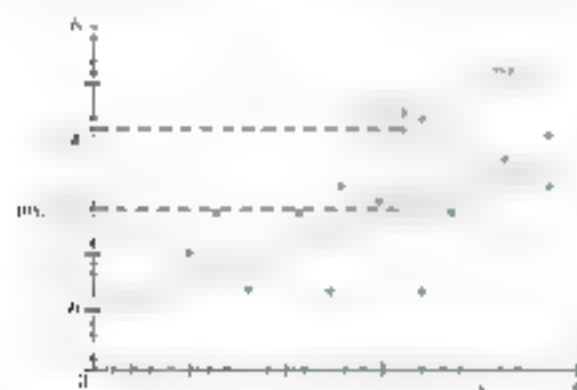


Figure 6

(a) Find  $\partial f / \partial m$  and  $\partial f / \partial b$  and set these results equal to zero. Show that this leads to the system of equations

$$\begin{aligned} m \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 + \sum_{i=1}^n x_i b &= \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i \\ m \sum_{i=1}^n x_i + nb &= \sum_{i=1}^n y_i \end{aligned}$$

(b) Solve this system for  $m$  and  $b$ .

(c) Use the Second Partial Test (Theorem C) to show that  $f$  is minimized for this choice of  $m$  and  $b$ .

41. Find the least-squares line (Problem 39) for the data  $(1, 4)$ ,  $(2, 5.4)$ ,  $(3, 4)$ , and  $(5, 5)$ .

42. Find the maximum and minimum values of  $z = 2x^2 + y^2 - 4x - 2y + 5$  (Figure 3) on the set bounded by the closed triangle with vertices  $(0, 0)$ ,  $(4, 0)$ , and  $(0, 1)$ .

43. Suppose that in Example 6 the costs were as follows: an  $x$ -unit, 50-cent foot along the base,  $\frac{1}{2}$  cent and  $\frac{1}{3}$  cent and  $\frac{1}{4}$  cent for  $W$ ,  $h$ , and  $l$  respectively, and  $h$  is an arbitrary function. Find the maximum cost.

44. Suppose that in Example 6 the costs were as follows: an  $x$ -unit, 50-cent foot along the base,  $\frac{1}{2}$  cent and  $\frac{1}{3}$  cent and  $\frac{1}{4}$  cent for  $W$ ,  $h$ , and  $l$  respectively. What path should be taken to minimize the cost and what is the minimum cost?

45. Find the maximum and minimum values of  $f(x, y) = 10 - x + y$  on the disk  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$  and parametrize the boundary by  $x = 2 \cos t$ ,  $y = 2 \sin t$ ,  $0 \leq t < 2\pi$ .

46. Find the maximum and minimum values of  $f(r, \theta) = r^2 + r^2 \sin \theta$  on the disk with interior  $r^2 \leq r^2 \sin \theta \leq 2$  where  $0 \leq \theta \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$ . *Hint:* Parametrize the boundary by  $x = a \cos t$ ,  $y = a \sin t$ ,  $0 \leq t < 2\pi$ .

47. A box is to be made where the material for the sides and the lid cost \$0.25 per square foot and the cost for the bottom is \$0.40 per square foot. Find the dimensions of a box with volume 2 cubic feet that has minimum cost.

48. A steel box without a lid having volume 60 cubic feet is to be made from material that costs \$4 per square foot for the bottom and \$3 per square foot for the sides. Welding the sides to the bottom costs \$3 per square foot and including the welds together costs \$1 per linear foot. Find the dimensions of the box that has minimum cost and find the minimum cost. *Hint:* Use symmetry to obtain one equation in one unknown and use a CAS or Newton's Method to approximate the solution.

49. Suppose that the temperature  $T$  on the circular plate  $\{(x, y) : x^2 + y^2 \leq 1\}$  is given by  $T = 2x^2 - y^2 + y$ . Find the hottest and coldest spots on the plate.

50. A wire of length  $L$  is to be cut into  $n$  pieces, then placed to form a circle and two squares, any of which may be degenerate. How should the wire be cut to maximize and minimize the area enclosed? *Hint:* Reduce the problem to that of optimizing  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2$  on the part of the plane  $2\sqrt{2}x + 4y + 4z = L$  in the first octant. Then, argue geometrically.

51. Find the shape of the triangle of largest area that can be inscribed in a circle of radius  $r$ . *Hint:* Let  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ , and  $\gamma$  be the central angles that subtend the three sides of the triangle. Show that the area of the triangle is  $\frac{r^2}{2}(\sin \alpha + \sin \beta + \sin \gamma)$  and maximize.

52. Let  $(a, b, c)$  be a fixed point in the first octant. Find the plane through this point that cuts off from the first octant the tetrahedron of minimum volume, and determine the resulting volume.

53. Sometimes finding the extrema for a function of two variables can best be handled by computational methods using a computer. To illustrate, look at the pictures of the surfaces and the corresponding contour maps for the five functions graphed in Figures 15–19 of Section 12.1. Note that these graphs suggest that we can locate the extrema visually. With the additional ability to plot, write the function values on the corresponding contour maps, and measure and measure with great accuracy. In Problems 43–53, use your technology to find the point where the indicated maximum or minimum occurs and give the function value at this point. Note that Problems 43–47 refer to the five functions from Section 12.4.

43.  $f(x, y) = x - x^2/9 - y^2 - 2$ ,  $-2 \leq x \leq 4$ ,  $-1 \leq y \leq 2$ . Give maximum and minimum values and also global maximum. (Check using calculus.)

44.  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$ ,  $0 \leq x \leq 2$ ,  $0 \leq y \leq 2$   
 plotting, maximum points and global maximum. Check square  
 domain.

45.  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$ ,  $0 \leq x \leq 2$ ,  $0 \leq y \leq 2$   
 $0 \leq x \leq 2$ ,  $0 \leq y \leq 2$ , global minimum.

46.  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$ ,  $0 \leq x \leq 2$ ,  $0 \leq y \leq 2$   
 $0 \leq x \leq 2$ ,  $0 \leq y \leq 2$ , global maximum and global minimum. Check  
 using calculus.

47.  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$ ,  $0 \leq x \leq 2$ ,  $0 \leq y \leq 2$   
 $0 \leq x \leq 2$ ,  $0 \leq y \leq 2$ , global maximum and global minimum.

48.  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$ ,  $0 \leq x \leq 2$ ,  $0 \leq y \leq 2$   
 $0 \leq x \leq 2$ ,  $0 \leq y \leq 2$ , global maximum and global minimum. Be careful.

49.  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$ ,  $0 \leq x \leq 2$ ,  $0 \leq y \leq 2$   
 $0 \leq x \leq 2$ ,  $0 \leq y \leq 2$ , global maximum and global minimum.

50.  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$ ,  $0 \leq x \leq 2$ ,  $0 \leq y \leq 2$   
 $0 \leq x \leq 2$ ,  $0 \leq y \leq 2$ , global maximum and global minimum.

51.  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$ ,  $0 \leq x \leq 2$ ,  $0 \leq y \leq 2$   
 $0 \leq x \leq 2$ ,  $0 \leq y \leq 2$ , global maximum and global  
 minimum.

52.  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$ ,  $0 \leq x \leq 2$ ,  $0 \leq y \leq 2$   
 $0 \leq x \leq 2$ ,  $0 \leq y \leq 2$ , global maximum and global  
 minimum.

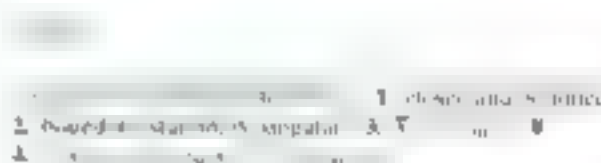
53.  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$ ,  $0 \leq x \leq 2$ ,  $0 \leq y \leq 2$   
 $0 \leq x \leq 2$ ,  $0 \leq y \leq 2$ , global maximum and global  
 minimum.

54.  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$ ,  $0 \leq x \leq 2$ ,  $0 \leq y \leq 2$   
 $0 \leq x \leq 2$ ,  $0 \leq y \leq 2$ , global maximum and global  
 minimum.

55.  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$ ,  $0 \leq x \leq 2$ ,  $0 \leq y \leq 2$   
 $0 \leq x \leq 2$ ,  $0 \leq y \leq 2$ , global maximum and global  
 minimum.

56. Let three wires of lengths 6, 8, and 10 emanate from  $A$ , as  
 shown in Figure 7. Let  $K(\alpha, \beta)$  and  $L(\alpha, \beta)$  denote the area and  
 perimeter, respectively, of the triangle  $ABE$  determined by these  
 wires.

- Find formulas for  $K(\alpha, \beta)$  and  $L(\alpha, \beta)$ .
- Determine  $(\alpha, \beta)$  in  $D = \{(\alpha, \beta) : 0 \leq \alpha \leq \pi, 0 \leq \beta \leq \pi$   
 that maximizes  $K(\alpha, \beta)$ .
- Determine  $(\alpha, \beta)$  in  $D$  that maximizes  $L(\alpha, \beta)$ .



## The Method of Lagrange Multipliers

We begin by distinguishing between two kinds of problems. The first kind involves  
 values of  $f(x, y)$  on the boundary of a region  $R$  in the  $xy$ -plane. The second kind  
 involves values of  $f(x, y)$  on the boundary of a region  $R$  in the  $xy$ -plane. The first kind  
 involves values of  $f(x, y)$  on the boundary of a region  $R$  in the  $xy$ -plane. The second kind  
 involves values of  $f(x, y)$  on the boundary of a region  $R$  in the  $xy$ -plane.

Example 4 of the previous section involved a constrained optimization problem. We  
 were asked to find the minimum value of the function  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$  on the  
 region  $R = \{(x, y) : x^2 + y^2 \leq 1\}$ . We formulated the problem as that of minimizing  $f(x, y)$   
 subject to the constraint  $g(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 - 1 = 0$ . We handled this problem by  
 substituting the constraint into the expression for  $f(x, y)$  and then minimizing the  
 resulting function of one variable. We know that the maximum and minimum values  
 of  $f(x, y)$  on the boundary of the region  $R$  occur at the points  $(1, 0)$  and  $(-1, 0)$ .  
 The problem of minimizing  $f(x, y)$  subject to the constraint  $g(x, y) = 0$  is  
 solved by finding the minimum and maximum values of  $f(x, y)$  on the boundary  
 of the region  $R$ . The maximum value of  $f(x, y)$  on the boundary of the region  $R$  is  
 1, and the minimum value is 0. The maximum value of  $f(x, y)$  on the boundary of  
 the region  $R$  is 1, and the minimum value is 0. The maximum value of  $f(x, y)$  on  
 the boundary of the region  $R$  is 1, and the minimum value is 0. The maximum  
 value of  $f(x, y)$  on the boundary of the region  $R$  is 1, and the minimum value is 0.

Part of the problem in Example 5 of the previous section was to maximize the objective function  
 $f(x, y) = 2 + x^2 + y^2$  subject to the constraint  $g(x, y) = 0$ , where  $g(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 - 1 = 0$ .  
 Figure 1 shows the surface  $f(x, y) = 2 + x^2 + y^2$  along with the constraint

Here the elliptical cylinder represents the constraint. The second part of Figure 1 shows the intersection of the cone from (a) and the surface  $z = 1 - x^2 - y^2$ . The optimization problem is to find where, along this curve of intersection, the function is at a maximum and where it is at a minimum. Both the second and third parts of Figure 1 suggest that the maximum and minimum will occur when a level curve of the objective function is tangent to the constraint curve. This is the key idea behind the method of Lagrange multipliers.



Now we consider the constrained problem of optimizing a function  $f(x, y)$  subject to the constraint  $g(x, y) = 0$ . The level curves of  $f$  are the curves  $f(x, y) = k$ , where  $k$  is a constant. They are shown in black in Figure 2 for  $k = 2, 3, 4, 5$ . The graph of the constraint  $g(x, y) = 0$  is also a curve; it is shown in color in Figure 2. To maximize  $f$  subject to the constraint  $g(x, y) = 0$ , we seek to find the level curve  $f(x, y) = k$  that is tangent to the constraint curve at a point  $p$ . Figure 2 shows that such a level curve is tangent to the constraint curve at a point  $p$  if and only if  $p$  is the maximum of  $f$  subject to the constraint  $g(x, y) = 0$ . For  $k = 3$  in other points of tangency  $p$ ,  $f$  gives the minimum value  $f(p_1, p_2)$  of  $f$  subject to the constraint  $g(x, y) = 0$ .

Figure 2 also had provided an algorithm for finding the point  $p_1$  and  $p_2$ . Since at such a point the level curve and the constraint curve are tangent, they share a common tangent line. The vector  $\nabla f$  is perpendicular to the level curve, and the vector  $\nabla g$  is perpendicular to the constraint curve. Thus,  $\nabla f$  and  $\nabla g$  are parallel at  $p_1$  and also at  $p_2$  for  $k = 3$ .

$$\nabla f(p_1) = \lambda_1 \nabla g(p_1) \quad \text{and} \quad \nabla f(p_2) = \lambda_2 \nabla g(p_2)$$

for some nonzero numbers  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$ .

The algorithm just given is sometimes an improvement, but it can be made completely rigorous under appropriate hypotheses. Moreover, the argument works just as well for the problem of maximizing  $f$  subject to the constraint  $g(x, y) = 0$ . We simply consider level sets of  $-f$  rather than level curves. In fact, the result is valid in any number of variables.

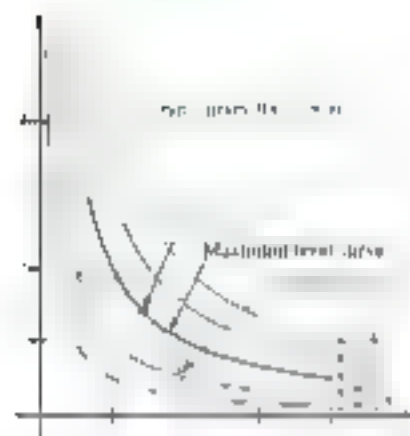
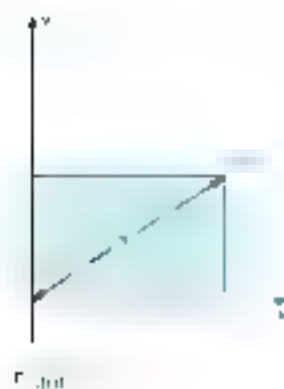
All this suggests the following formulation of the method of Lagrange multipliers.

### Theorem 4 Lagrange's Method

To maximize or minimize  $f(\mathbf{p})$  subject to the constraint  $g(\mathbf{p}) = 0$  solve the system of equations

$$\nabla f(\mathbf{p}) = \lambda \nabla g(\mathbf{p}) \quad \text{and} \quad g(\mathbf{p}) = 0$$

for  $\mathbf{p}$  and  $\lambda$ . Each such point  $\mathbf{p}$  is a critical point for the constrained extremum problem, and the corresponding  $\lambda$  is called a Lagrange multiplier.



**Applications** We illustrate the method with several examples.

**EXAMPLE 1** What is the greatest area that a rectangle can have if the length of its diagonal is 2?

**SOLUTION** Place the rectangle in the first quadrant with two vertices along the coordinate axes; then the vertex opposite the origin has coordinates  $(x, y)$  with  $x$  and  $y$  positive (Figure 12.10). The length of the diagonal is  $\sqrt{x^2 + y^2} = 2$ , and we are to

maximize the area of the rectangle, which is  $A(x, y) = xy$ , subject to the constraint  $g(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 - 4 = 0$ . The corresponding gradients are

$$\nabla f(x, y) = \langle y, x \rangle \text{ and } \nabla g(x, y) = \langle 2x, 2y \rangle.$$

Lagrange's equations thus become

$$(1) \quad y = \lambda(2x),$$

$$(2) \quad x = \lambda(2y),$$

$$(3) \quad x^2 + y^2 - 4 = 0.$$

Which we must solve simultaneously. If we multiply the first equation by  $y$  and the second by  $x$ , we get  $y^2 = 2\lambda xy$  and  $x^2 = 2\lambda xy$  from which

$$(4) \quad y^2 = x^2.$$

From (3) and (4) we find that  $x = \sqrt{2}$  or  $x = -\sqrt{2}$  and, by substituting these values in (1), we obtain  $\lambda = 1$ . Thus, the solution equations (1)–(3) are  $x = \pm\sqrt{2}$  and  $y = \pm\sqrt{2}$ . Since  $x$  and  $y$  are positive, let  $x = \sqrt{2}$ ,  $y = \sqrt{2}$ , and  $\lambda = 1$ .

We conclude that the rectangle of maximum area is a square with side length  $\sqrt{2}$ . Its length  $\sqrt{2}$  is twice the area  $2$ . A geometric interpretation of this problem is shown in Figure 12.11.

**EXAMPLE 2** Use Lagrange's method to find the maximum and minimum values of

$$f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$$

on the ellipse  $x^2 + 4y^2 = 4$ .

**SOLUTION** Refer to Figure 12.12 for a graph of the elliptic paraboloid  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$ . From this curve we will see easily that  $f$  has its maximum value at  $(0, 0)$  and the maximum value at  $(\pm 2, 0)$  is easily recognized.

We may write the constraint as  $g(x, y) = x^2 + 4y^2 - 4 = 0$ . Now

$$\nabla f(x, y) = \langle 2x, 2y \rangle$$

$$\nabla g(x, y) = \langle 2x, 8y \rangle.$$

The Lagrange equations are

$$(1) \quad 2x = \lambda(2x)$$

$$(2) \quad 2y = \lambda(8y)$$

$$(3) \quad x^2 + 4y^2 - 4 = 0.$$



Note from the third equation that  $x$  and  $-x$  cannot both be 0. If  $x = 0$ , the first equation implies that  $\lambda = 1$ , and the second equation then requires that  $y = 2$ . We conclude from the third equation that  $x = \pm 2$ . We have thus obtained the critical points  $(\pm 2, 0)$ .

Expanding the same argument with  $x \neq 0$  yields  $\lambda = -1$  from the second equation, then  $y = 0$  from the first equation, and finally  $x = \pm 2$  from the third equation. We conclude that  $(0, \pm 2)$  are also critical points.

Now let  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$ .

$$x^2 + 0 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow x = 0$$

$$f(0, \pm 2) = 4$$

$$f$$

The minimum value of  $f(x, y)$  on the circle is  $f(0, 0) = 0$ . The maximum value is 4.

**EXAMPLE 3** Find the minimum of  $f(x, y, z) = 3x + 2y + z + 5$  subject to the constraint  $g(x, y, z) = 9x^2 + 4y^2 + z^2 = 2$ .

**SOLUTION** The gradients of  $f$  and  $g$  are  $\nabla f(x, y, z) = 3\mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$  and  $\nabla g(x, y, z) = 18x\mathbf{i} + 8y\mathbf{j} + 2z\mathbf{k}$ . To find the critical points, we solve the equations

$$\nabla f(x, y, z) = \lambda \nabla g(x, y, z) \quad \text{and} \quad g(x, y, z) = 2$$

for  $(x, y, z, \lambda)$ , in which  $x, y, z, \lambda$  are real numbers. This is equivalent to the usual problem of solving the following system of four simultaneous equations in the four variables  $x, y, z$ , and  $\lambda$ :

$$(1) \quad 3 = 18\lambda x$$

$$(2) \quad 2 = 8\lambda y$$

$$(3) \quad 1 = 2\lambda z$$

$$(4) \quad 9x^2 + 4y^2 + z^2 = 2$$

From (1),  $\lambda = 1/6x$ . Substituting this result in equations (2) and (3) yields  $y = x/4$  and  $z = 3x/2$ . By putting these values for  $y$  and  $z$  in equation (4), we obtain  $x^2 = 1/5$ . Thus the solution of the foregoing system of four simultaneous equations is  $x = \pm 1/\sqrt{5}$ ,  $y = \pm 1/(4\sqrt{5})$ ,  $z = \pm 3/(2\sqrt{5})$ , and the only critical points are  $(\pm 1/\sqrt{5}, \pm 1/(4\sqrt{5}), \pm 3/(2\sqrt{5}))$ . Therefore the minimum of  $f(x, y, z)$ , subject to the constraint  $g(x, y, z) = 2$ , is  $f(1/\sqrt{5}, 1/(4\sqrt{5}), 3/(2\sqrt{5})) = 17/5$ . We know that this value is a minimum (or a local maximum).

**Two or More Constraints** When more than one constraint is imposed on the variables of a function, that is, when  $a_1 > 0, a_2 > 0, a_3 > 0$ , and three additional Lagrange multipliers are used, one for each constraint. For example, we seek the extrema of a function  $f$  of three variables subject to the two constraints  $g(x, y, z) = 0$  and  $h(x, y, z) = 0$ ; we solve the equations

$$\nabla f(x, y, z) = \lambda \nabla g(x, y, z) + \mu \nabla h(x, y, z), \quad g(x, y, z) = 0, \quad h(x, y, z) = 0$$

for  $(x, y, z, \lambda, \mu)$ , where  $\lambda$  and  $\mu$  are Lagrange multipliers. This is equivalent to finding the solutions of the system of five simultaneous equations in the variables  $x, y, z, \lambda$ , and  $\mu$ .

$$(1) \quad f(x, y, z) = \lambda g(x, y, z) + \mu h(x, y, z)$$



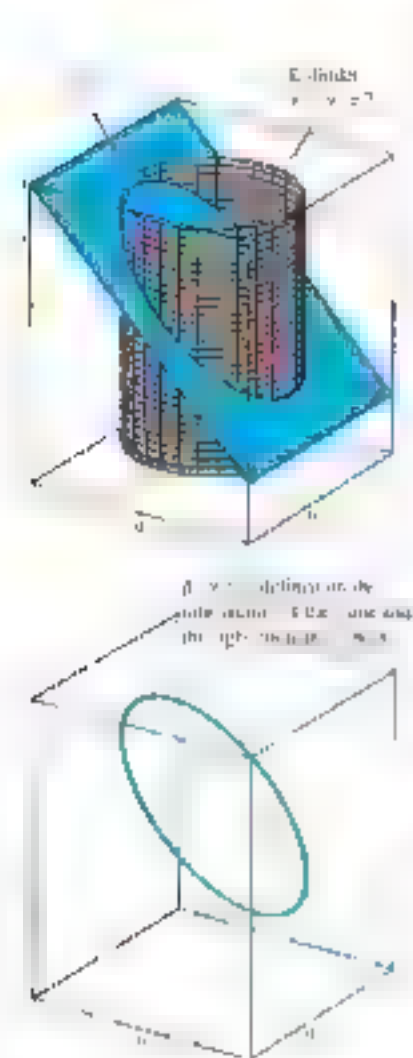


FIGURE 5

- (1)  $\nabla f(x, y, z) = \lambda \nabla g(x, y, z) + \mu \nabla h(x, y, z)$
- (2)  $f(x, y, z) = \lambda g(x, y, z) + \mu h(x, y, z)$
- (3)  $g(x, y, z) = 0$
- (4)  $h(x, y, z) = 0$

From the solutions of this system we obtain the critical points.

**EXAMPLE 5** Find the maximum and minimum values of  $f(x, y, z) = x + 2y + 3z$  on the ellipse that is the intersection of the cylinder  $x^2 + y^2 = 2$  and the plane  $y + z = 1$  (see Figure 5).

**SOLUTION** We want to maximize and minimize  $f(x, y, z)$  subject to  $g(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 - 2 = 0$  and  $h(x, y, z) = y + z - 1 = 0$ . The corresponding Lagrange equations are

- (1)  $1 = 2\lambda x$
- (2)  $2 = 2\lambda y + \mu$
- (3)  $3 = \mu$
- (4)  $x^2 + y^2 - 2 = 0$
- (5)  $y + z - 1 = 0$

From (1),  $x = 1/(2\lambda)$ ; from (2) and (3),  $y = -1/(2\lambda)$ . Thus, from (4),  $\lambda^2 = 1/4$ , which implies that  $\lambda = 1/2$  or  $\lambda = -1/2$ . In addition,  $\lambda = 1/2$  yields the critical point  $(1, -1, 2)$  and  $\lambda = -1/2$  yields the critical point  $(-1, 1, 2)$ . We observe that  $f(1, -1, 2) = 6$  is the maximum value and  $f(-1, 1, 2) = 0$  is the minimum value.  $\square$

**Optimizing a function over a closed and bounded set** We can find the maximum or minimum of a function  $f(x, y)$  over a closed and bounded set  $S$  using the following steps: (1) Use the methods of Section 12.8 to find the interior critical points of  $f$  on the interior of  $S$ . (2) Find all points on the boundary of  $S$ . (3) Evaluate  $f$  at these points. (4) Find the maximum and minimum of  $f$  on  $S$ .

**EXAMPLE 6** Find the maximum and minimum for the function  $f(x, y) = 4 + xy - x^2 - y^2$  over the set  $S = \{(x, y) : x^2 + y^2 \leq 1\}$ .

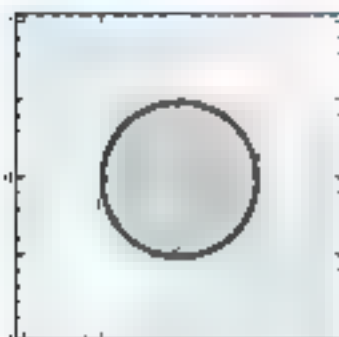
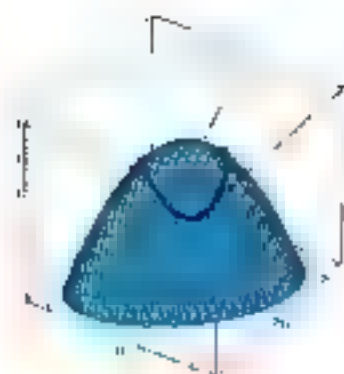
**SOLUTION** Figure 6 shows the graph of  $f(x, y) = 4 + xy - x^2 - y^2$ . The set  $S$  is the circle with interior centered at the origin having radius 1, but we are finding the maximum and minimum of  $f$  over the set  $S$ , so these interior points can be ignored on the top of Figure 6. We begin by finding all critical points on the interior of  $S$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} &= y - 2x = 0 \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} &= x - 2y = 0 \end{aligned}$$

The only solution, and thus the only interior critical point, is  $(0, 0)$ . Next we apply the method of Lagrange multipliers to find points along the boundary, where the

FIGURE 6

Figure 6 suggests that four of the points to check will be symmetric about the origin. This turned out to be the case.



$f(0,0) = 0$

function is a maximum or minimum. A point on the boundary will satisfy the constraint  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ . So we let  $g(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$ . Then

$$\nabla f(x, y) = (y - 2x)\mathbf{i} + (x - 2y)\mathbf{j}$$

$$\nabla g(x, y) = 2x\mathbf{i} + 2y\mathbf{j}$$

Setting  $\nabla f(x, y) = \lambda \nabla g(x, y)$  leads to

$$y - 2x = \lambda 2x$$

$$x - 2y = \lambda 2y$$

Solving these two equations for  $\lambda$  gives

$$\frac{y - 2x}{2x} = \lambda = \frac{x - 2y}{2y}$$

which leads to  $x = -y$ . This, together with the constraint  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ , leads to  $x = \pm \sqrt{2}/2$ ,  $y = \mp \sqrt{2}/2$ . We must therefore evaluate  $f$  at the five points  $(0, 0)$ ,

$(\sqrt{2}/2, -\sqrt{2}/2)$ , and

$$\begin{array}{ccc} f(0, 0) = 0 & f(\sqrt{2}/2, -\sqrt{2}/2) = 1 & f(-\sqrt{2}/2, \sqrt{2}/2) = 1 \\ f(\sqrt{2}/2, \sqrt{2}/2) = -1 & f(-\sqrt{2}/2, -\sqrt{2}/2) = -1 & \end{array}$$

The maximum of  $f$  is 1, which occurs at  $(\sqrt{2}/2, -\sqrt{2}/2)$  and  $(-\sqrt{2}/2, \sqrt{2}/2)$ . The minimum of  $f$  is  $-1$ , which occurs at  $(\sqrt{2}/2, \sqrt{2}/2)$  and  $(-\sqrt{2}/2, -\sqrt{2}/2)$ . It is  $(\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}, -\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2})$ .

## Concepts Review

1. To minimize  $f(x, y)$  subject to the constraint  $g(x, y) = 0$  is an **extremum** problem.

2. The method of Lagrange multipliers depends on the fact that at an extreme value the vectors  $\nabla f$  and  $\nabla g$  are

3. Thus, to use the method of Lagrange multipliers, we attempt to solve the equations  $\nabla f(x, y) = \lambda \nabla g(x, y)$  into an algebraic problem.

4. Sometimes simple geometric reasoning yields a solution. The minimum value of  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$  on the ellipse  $(x - 1)^2 + (y - 1)^2 = 2$  clearly occurs at

## Problem Set 12.9

1. Find the minimum of  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$  subject to the constraint  $g(x, y) = xy - 2 = 0$ .

2. Find the maximum of  $f(x, y) = xy$  subject to the constraint  $g(x, y) = 4x^2 + 9y^2 - 36 = 0$ .

3. Find the maximum of  $f(x, y) = 6x^2 - 4xy + y^2$  subject to the constraint  $g(x, y) = x + y = 0$ .

4. Find the minimum of  $f(x, y) = x^2 + 4xy + y^2$  subject to the constraint  $g(x, y) = x + y = 0$ .

5. Find the maximum of  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$  subject to the constraint  $g(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 - 1 = 0$ .

6. Find the minimum of  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$  subject to the constraint  $g(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 - 1 = 0$ .

7. What are the dimensions of the rectangular box, open at the top, that has maximum volume when the surface area is  $40\pi$ ?

8. Find the minimum distance between the origin and the plane  $x + 3y - 2z = 4$ .

9. The material for the bottom of a rectangular box costs three times as much per square foot as the material for the sides and top. Find the greatest volume that such a box can have if the total amount of money available for material is \$12 and the material for the bottom costs \$6.00 per square foot.

10. Find the minimum distance between the origin and the ellipse  $x^2 + 4y^2 = 9$ .

11. Find the maximum volume of a closed rectangular box with faces parallel to the coordinate planes inscribed in the ellipsoid

$$\frac{x^2}{16} + \frac{y^2}{9} + \frac{z^2}{4} = 1$$

12. Find the maximum volume of the first-order rectangular box with faces parallel to the coordinate planes, one vertex at  $(0, 0, 0)$ , and diagonally opposite vertex on the plane

$$\frac{x}{a} + \frac{y}{b} + \frac{z}{c} = 1$$

In Problems 13–20, use the method of Lagrange multipliers to solve these problems from Section 12.8.

13. Problem 11

14. Problem 12

15. Problem 13

16. Problem 14

17. Problem 17

18. Problem 16

19. Problem 16 (minimum only)

20. Problem 12 (But let the plane be  $\frac{x}{a} + \frac{y}{b} = 1$ .)

In Problems 21–25, find the maximum and minimum of the function  $f$  over the closed and bounded set  $S$ . Use the methods of Section 12.8 to find the maximum and minimum on the boundary of  $S$ . Then use Lagrange multipliers to find the maximum and minimum inside the domain  $S$ .

21.  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$   $S = \{(x, y) \mid x^2 + y^2 \leq 4\}$

22.  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$   $S = \{(x, y) \mid x^2 + y^2 \leq 4\}$

23.  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$   $S = \{(x, y) \mid x^2 + y^2 \leq 4\}$

24.  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$   $S = \{(x, y) \mid x^2 + y^2 \leq 4\}$

25.  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$   $S = \{(x, y) \mid x^2 + y^2 \leq 4\}$

26. Find the shape of the triangle of maximum perimeter that can be inscribed in a circle of radius  $r$ . [Hint: Let  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ , and  $\gamma$  be as in Figure 7 and reduce the problem to maximizing  $P = 2r \sin \alpha + 2r \sin \beta + 2r \sin \gamma$  subject to  $\alpha + \beta + \gamma = 2\pi$ .]



27. Consider the Cobb–Douglas production model for a manufacturing process depending on three inputs  $x$ ,  $y$ , and  $z$  with unit costs  $a$ ,  $b$ , and  $c$  respectively given by

$$P = ax^{1/2}y^{1/3}z^{1/6} \quad a, b, c > 0, \quad x, y, z > 0$$

subject to the cost constraint  $ax + by + cz = q$ . Determine  $x$ ,  $y$ , and  $z$  to maximize the production  $P$ .

28. Find the minimum distance from the origin to the line of intersection of the two planes

$$x + y + z = 8 \quad \text{and} \quad 2x - y = 5$$

29. Find the maximum and minimum of  $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + 2y^2 + 3z^2$  on the ellipse  $x^2 + y^2 = 2$ ,  $y + 2z = 1$ . See Example 2.

30. Let  $\mathbf{a} = a_1\mathbf{i} + a_2\mathbf{j} + a_3\mathbf{k}$ .

(a) Maximize  $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{u}$  subject to  $\mathbf{u} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$  and  $\|\mathbf{u}\| = 1$ .

(b) Use part (a) to deduce the famous Cauchy–Schwarz Inequality for nonzero numbers  $a_1, a_2, a_3, b_1, b_2, b_3$ . That is,

$$|a_1b_1 + a_2b_2 + a_3b_3| \leq \sqrt{a_1^2 + a_2^2 + a_3^2} \sqrt{b_1^2 + b_2^2 + b_3^2}$$

31. At what point  $\mathbf{u} = u_1\mathbf{i} + u_2\mathbf{j} + u_3\mathbf{k}$  does  $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{u}$  attain its minimum, if  $\mathbf{a} = a_1\mathbf{i} + a_2\mathbf{j} + a_3\mathbf{k}$  and  $\|\mathbf{u}\| = 1$ ?

32. Find the maximum and minimum values of  $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$  on the sphere  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$ . Use the method of Lagrange multipliers to solve this problem. (You can also solve this problem by using the Cauchy–Schwarz Inequality.)

33. Maximize  $z = -4x^2 - y^2$  subject to  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ .

34. Minimize  $z = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$  subject to  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ .

35. Maximize  $z = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$  subject to  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ .

36. Maximize  $z = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$  subject to  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ .

37. Maximize  $z = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$  subject to  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ .

38. Maximize  $z = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$  subject to  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ .

39. (a) Find the maximum and minimum values of  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$  on the circle  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$ . (b) Find the maximum and minimum values of  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$  on the circle  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$ .

## 12.10 Chapter Review

### Concepts and Results

Respond with true or false to each of the following assertions. Be prepared to justify your answer.

- The level curves of  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$  are ellipses.
- If  $f(0, 0) = 0$ , then  $f(x, y)$  is continuous at the origin.
- If  $f(0, 0)$  exists, then  $z(x, y) = f(x, y)$  is continuous at  $(0, 0)$ .
- If  $\lim_{(x, y) \rightarrow (0, 0)} f(x, y) = L$ , then  $\lim_{(x, y) \rightarrow (0, 0)} f(x, y) = L$ .

5. If  $f(x, y) = g(x)h(y)$ , where  $g$  and  $h$  are continuous for all  $x$  and  $y$  respectively, then  $f$  is continuous on the whole  $xy$ -plane.

6. If  $f(x, y) = g(x)h(y)$ , where both  $g$  and  $h$  are twice differentiable, then  $f$  is twice differentiable.

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right) = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right)$$

7. If  $f(x, y)$  and  $g(x, y)$  have the same gradient, then they are identical functions.

8. The gradient of  $f$  is perpendicular to the graph of  $f$ .

9. If  $F$  is differentiable and  $\nabla F(a, b) = \mathbf{0}$ , then the graph of  $z = F(x, y)$  has a horizontal tangent plane at  $(a, b)$ .

10. If  $\nabla f(p)$ ,  $\mathbf{0}$ , then  $f$  has an extreme value at  $p$ .

11. If  $T = e^x \sin y$  gives the temperature at a point  $(x, y)$  in the plane, then a heat-seeking object would move away from the origin in the direction  $\mathbf{i}$ .

12. The function  $f(x, y) = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$  has a global minimum value at the origin.

13. The function  $f(x, y) = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$  has neither a global minimum nor a global maximum value.

14. If  $f(x, y) = 4x + 4y$ , then  $D_{\mathbf{u}}f(x, y) = 4$ .

15. If  $D_{\mathbf{u}}f(x, y)$  exists, then  $D_{-\mathbf{u}}f(x, y) = -D_{\mathbf{u}}f(x, y)$ .

16. The set  $\{(x, y) : y = x, 0 \leq x \leq 1\}$  is a closed set in the plane.

17. If  $f(x, y)$  is continuous on a closed bounded set  $S$ , then  $f$  has a maximum value on  $S$ .

18. If  $f(x, y)$  attains its maximum value at an interior point  $(a, b)$  of  $S$ , then  $\nabla f(a, b) = \mathbf{0}$ .

19. The function  $f(x, y) = \sin(x^2 + y^2)$  does not attain a maximum value on the set  $\{(x, y) : x^2 + y^2 \leq 4\}$ .

20. If  $f_x(a, b) = 0$  and  $f_y(a, b) = 0$ , then  $f$  is differentiable at  $(a, b)$ .

### Sample Test Problems

1. Find and sketch the domain of each indicated function of two variables, showing clearly any points on the boundary of the domain that belong to the domain.

(a)  $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 - 4}$  (b)  $z = \sqrt{4 - x^2 - y^2}$

2. Sketch the level curves of  $f(x, y) = (x + y^2)$  for  $h = 1$ .

In Problems 3–6, find  $f_x$ ,  $f_y$ ,  $f_{xx}$ ,  $f_{xy}$ ,  $f_{yy}$ , and  $f_{zy}$ .

3.  $f(x, y) = 3x^2y + 2y^3$  4.  $f(x, y) = \cos x - \sin^2 y$

5.  $f(x, y) = e^{xy} \ln y$  6.  $f(x, y) = \ln(x^2 + y^2)$

7.  $f(x, y) = 4x^2 - 3y^2$ ,  $z = \tan^{-1} x + y^2 + e^y$

8. If  $f$  is the function of three variables defined by  $f(x, y, z) = \sin(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)$ , find  $f_x$ ,  $f_y$ ,  $f_z$ ,  $f_{xx}$ ,  $f_{xy}$ ,  $f_{yy}$ ,  $f_{yz}$ , and  $f_{zz}$ .

9. Find the slope of the tangent to the curve of intersection of the surface  $z = x^2 + y^2/4$  and the plane  $x = 2$  at the point  $(2, 1, 5/2)$ .

10. For what points is the function defined by  $f(x, y) = xy$ ,  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$  continuous?

11. Does  $\lim_{(x, y) \rightarrow (0, 0)} \frac{x^2 + y^2}{x^2 + y^2}$  exist? Explain.

12. In each case, find the indicated limit or state that it does not exist.

(a)  $\lim_{(x, y) \rightarrow (0, 0)} \frac{x^2 + 2y^2}{x^2 + 2y^2}$  (b)  $\lim_{(x, y) \rightarrow (0, 0)} \frac{x^2 + 2y^2}{x^2 - 2y^2}$

(c)  $\lim_{(x, y) \rightarrow (0, 0)} \frac{x^2 + 4y^2}{x^2 + 2y^2}$

13. Find  $\nabla f$ ,  $f(2, -1)$ .

(a)  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$  (b)  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$

14. Find the directional derivative of  $f(x, y) = \tan^{-1} 3xy$ . What is its value at the point  $(4, 3)$  in the direction  $\mathbf{u} = \frac{1}{5}\mathbf{i} + \frac{4}{5}\mathbf{j}$ ?

15. Find the slope of the tangent line to the curve of intersection of the vertical plane  $x = \sqrt{3}y + 2\sqrt{z} - 1 = 0$  and the surface  $z = 4 - x^2 - y^2$  at the point  $(-1, 1, 2)$ .

16. In what direction is  $f(x, y) = 9x^2 + 4y^2$  increasing most rapidly at  $(-1, 2)$ ?

17. For  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$ ,

(a) find the equation of its level curve that goes through the point  $(4, 1)$  in its domain.

(b) find the gradient vector  $\nabla f$  at  $(4, 1)$ .

(c) draw the level curve and draw the gradient vector with its initial point at  $(4, 1)$ .

18. If  $F(x, y) = \tan^{-1} \frac{y}{x}$ ,  $\mathbf{u} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\mathbf{i} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\mathbf{j}$ , and  $\mathbf{v} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\mathbf{i} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\mathbf{j}$ , find  $D_{\mathbf{u}}F$  and  $D_{\mathbf{v}}F$  in terms of  $x$ ,  $y$ ,  $z$ , and  $t$ .

19. If  $f(x, y) = x^2y + y^3 - 3x + 4z$ ,  $\mathbf{u} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\mathbf{i} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\mathbf{j}$ , find  $f_x$ ,  $f_y$ , and  $f_z$  in terms of  $x$ ,  $y$ , and  $z$ .

20. If  $F(x, y) = x^3 - y^3 - z^3$ ,  $x = 3 \cos t$  and  $y = 3 \sin t$ , find  $\frac{dF}{dt}$  at  $t = 0$ .

21. If  $F(x, y, z) = (5x^2yz^3)$ ,  $x = e^{1/t} + 2$ ,  $y = \ln 4t$ , and  $z = e^{1/t}$ , find  $dF/dt$  in terms of  $t$ ,  $x$ ,  $y$ , and  $z$ .

22. A triangle has vertices  $A$ ,  $B$ , and  $C$ . The length of the side  $a = AB$  is increasing at the rate of 3 inches per second, the side  $b = AC$  is decreasing at 4 inches per second, and the included angle  $\alpha$  is increasing at 4.1 radians per second. If  $c = 10$  inches and  $b = 8$  inches when  $\alpha = \pi/6$ , how fast is the area changing?

23. Find the gradient vector of  $F(x, y, z) = 9x + 4y^2 + 9z^2 - 34$  at the point  $F(1, 2, 1)$ . Write the equation of the tangent plane to the surface  $F(x, y, z) = 0$  at  $P$ .

24. A right circular cylinder is measured to have a radius of  $10 \pm 0.02$  inches and a height of  $h = 1.41$  inches. Calculate its volume and use differentials to give an estimate of the possible error.

25. Let  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$  and  $g(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$ . Find  $\nabla f$  and  $\nabla g$ .

26. Find the extrema of  $f(x, y) = x^2y + 5y^2 - 3x$ .

27. A rectangular box whose edges are parallel to the coordinate axes is inscribed in the ellipsoid  $16x^2 + 4y^2 + 4z^2 = 36$ . What is the greatest possible volume for such a box?

28. Use Lagrange multipliers to find the maximum and the minimum of  $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$  subject to the constraint  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$ .

29. Use Lagrange multipliers to find the dimensions of the right circular cylinder with maximum volume if its surface area is 24.



- 13.1 Double Integrals over Rectangles
- 13.2 Iterated Integrals
- 13.3 Double Integrals over Nonrectangular Regions
- 13.4 Double Integrals in Polar Coordinates
- 13.5 Applications of Double Integrals
- 13.6 Surface Area
- 13.7 Triple Integrals in Cartesian Coordinates
- 13.8 Triple Integrals in Cylindrical and Spherical Coordinates
- 13.9 Change of Variables in Multiple Integrals

## 13.1

## Double Integrals over Rectangles

**DIFFERENTIATION AND INTEGRATION** are the major uses of calculus. We have studied differentiation in one- and three-dimensional space (Chapter 2). Integration is a study of accumulation in two- and three-dimensional space. The most important applications of single (Riemann) integration can be generalized to multiple integrals. In Chapter 5 we used single integrals to calculate the area of curves, planar regions, to find the length of planar curves, and to determine the center of mass of straight wires of variable density. In this chapter, we use double integrals to find the volume of solids, the center of mass of general surfaces, and the center of mass of mass distributions of variable density.

The intimate connection between integration and differentiation will be emphasized in the Fundamental Theorems of Calculus; these theorems provided the principal theoretical tools for evaluating single integrals. Here we begin our study of integration as a subject in itself, with applications where addition of the Second Fundamental Theorem will prove useful. The theory and skills that you learned in Chapters 4 through 7 will be tested.

The Riemann integral for a function of one variable was defined in Section 5.2. Section 5.4 introduced the Riemann sum for the approximation of an integral. Let  $f$  be a function defined on an interval  $I$  of length  $\Delta x = b - a$ . Pick a point  $x_k$  from the  $k$ th subinterval, and then write

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n f(x_k) \Delta x_k$$

We proceed in a very similar fashion for defining the integral for functions of two variables.

Let  $R$  be a rectangle, with sides parallel to the coordinate axes. That is, let

$$R = \{(x, y) : a \leq x \leq b, c \leq y \leq d\}$$

Form a partition  $P$  of  $R$  by means of lines parallel to the coordinate axes (see Figure 13.1). This divides  $R$  into subrectangles, say  $n$  of them, which we denote by  $R_k$ ,  $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$ . Let  $\Delta x_k$  and  $\Delta y_k$  be the lengths of the sides of  $R_k$ , and let  $\Delta A_k = \Delta x_k \Delta y_k$  be its area. In  $R_k$  pick a sample point  $(\bar{x}_k, \bar{y}_k)$ , and form the Riemann sum

$$\sum_{k=1}^n f(\bar{x}_k, \bar{y}_k) \Delta A_k$$



which corresponds to  $\delta x = 0.1$ . Our final sum of the volume of boxes (Figures 3 and 4). Letting the partition get finer and finer in such a way that the  $R_k$ 's get smaller will lead to the concepts that we want.



Figure 3

We are ready for a formal definition. We give the definition that appeared above with the additional proviso that the norm of the partition  $P$  denoted by  $\|P\|$  is the length of the longest diagonal of any subrectangle in the partition.

#### Definition The Double Integral

Let  $f$  be a function of two variables that is defined on a closed rectangle  $R$ . If

$$\lim_{\|P\| \rightarrow 0} \sum_{k=1}^n f(\bar{x}_k, \bar{y}_k) \Delta A_k$$

exists, we say that  $f$  is integrable on  $R$ . Moreover,  $\iint_R f(x, y) \, dA$  is called the **double integral** of  $f$  over  $R$  and is then given by

$$\iint_R f(x, y) \, dA = \lim_{\|P\| \rightarrow 0} \sum_{k=1}^n f(\bar{x}_k, \bar{y}_k) \Delta A_k.$$

This definition of the double integral is mainly heuristic. This is not a definition in the sense of Chapter 4, so we should say what it really means. We say

that  $\lim_{\|P\| \rightarrow 0} \sum_{k=1}^n f(\bar{x}_k, \bar{y}_k) \Delta A_k = I$  if for every  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists a  $\delta > 0$  such that for every partition  $P$  of the rectangle  $R$  by lines parallel to the  $x$ - and  $y$ -axes that satisfies  $\|P\| < \delta$  and for any choice of the sample points  $(\bar{x}_k, \bar{y}_k)$  in the  $k$ th subrectangle we have  $\left| \sum_{k=1}^n f(\bar{x}_k, \bar{y}_k) \Delta A_k - I \right| < \epsilon$ .

Recall that  $\int_a^b f(x) \, dx = 0 \int_a^b f(x) \, dx$  represents the area of the region under the curve  $y = f(x)$  between  $a$  and  $b$ . In a similar manner, if  $f(x, y) \geq 0$ ,  $\iint_R f(x, y) \, dA$  represents the **volume** of the solid under the surface  $z = f(x, y)$  and above the rectangle  $R$  (Figure 4). In fact, we take the integral as the definition of the volume of such a solid.

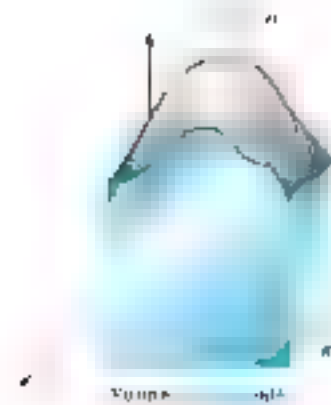


Figure 4



Not every function of two variables is integrable on a given rectangle  $R$ . The reasons are the same as in the one-variable case (Section 4.7). In particular a function that is unbounded on  $R$  will always fail to be integrable. Fortunately, there is a natural generalization of Theorem 4.7A, although its proof is beyond the level of a first course.

### Theorem 4.8 Integrability Theorem

If  $f$  is bounded on the closed rectangle  $R$  and if  $f$  is continuous there except on a finite number of points, then  $f$  is integrable on  $R$  (the set of points at which  $f$  is discontinuous has no effect on the value of the integral).

As a consequence most of the common functions provided here are bounded and integrable on every rectangle. For example,

$$f(x, y) = e^{\cos xy} = y^{\cos xy}$$

is integrable on every rectangle. On the other hand,

$$g(x, y) = \frac{x^2 y - 2x}{y^2}$$

would fail to be integrable on any rectangle that encloses the point  $(0, 0)$ .

The function  $f$  in Figure 7 is integrable on  $R$  because discontinuities occur along two line segments.

The double integral inherits many of the properties of the single integral.

1. The double integral is linear, that is,

$$a \iint_R f(x, y) \, dA + b \iint_R g(x, y) \, dA = \iint_R (af + bg) \, dA$$

$$+ \iint_R (cf + dg + e) \, dA = \iint_R (c + d) f \, dA + \iint_R (e) \, dA$$

2. The double integral is additive on rectangles (Figure 8). It covers up only one linear segment.

$$\iint_R (f + g) \, dA = \iint_R f \, dA + \iint_R g \, dA$$

3. The comparison property holds. If  $f(x, y) \leq g(x, y)$  for all  $(x, y)$  in  $R$  then

$$\iint_R f(x, y) \, dA \leq \iint_R g(x, y) \, dA$$

All of these properties hold in more general settings than rectangles, but that is a matter we take up in Section 13.3.

This topic will receive a major presentation in the next section, where we will develop a powerful method for evaluating double integrals. However, we can already evaluate a few integrals, and we can approximate others.

Note first that if  $f(x, y) = 1$  on  $R$  then the double integral is the area of  $R$ , and from this it follows that

$$\iint_R x \, dA = x \iint_R 1 \, dA = x \cdot \text{Area } R$$



**EXAMPLE 2** Let  $f(x, y)$  be the staircase function of Figure 5. (a) Is  $f$  continuous?

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } 0 \leq x \leq 3, 0 \leq y \leq 1 \\ 2, & \text{if } 1 \leq x \leq 3, 1 \leq y \leq 2 \\ 3, & \text{if } 0 \leq x \leq 3, 2 \leq y \leq 3 \end{cases}$$

Calculate  $\iint_R f(x, y) \, dA$ , where  $R = \{(x, y) \mid 0 \leq x \leq 3, 0 \leq y \leq 3\}$ .

**SOLUTION** Introduce rectangles  $R_1$ ,  $R_2$ , and  $R_3$  as follows.

$$R_1 = \{(x, y) \mid 0 \leq x \leq 3, 0 \leq y \leq 1\}$$

$$R_2 = \{(x, y) \mid 1 \leq x \leq 3, 1 \leq y \leq 2\}$$

$$R_3 = \{(x, y) \mid 0 \leq x \leq 3, 2 \leq y \leq 3\}$$

Then, using the additivity property of the double integral, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \iint_R f(x, y) \, dA &= \iint_{R_1} f(x, y) \, dA + \iint_{R_2} f(x, y) \, dA + \iint_{R_3} f(x, y) \, dA \\ &= \iint_{R_1} 1 \, dA + \iint_{R_2} 2 \, dA + \iint_{R_3} 3 \, dA \\ &= 1A(R_1) + 2A(R_2) + 3A(R_3) \\ &= 1(3) + 2(2) + 3(3) = 16 \end{aligned}$$

In this formula we also used the fact that the value of  $f$  on the boundary of any rectangle does not affect the value of the integral.  $\blacksquare$

Example 1 was a minor accomplishment, and to be honest we cannot do much more without more tools. (One of the ways that we will see is to use Riemann sums.) In a Riemann sum, in general, we can expect to approximate the value of the line integral by using the partition we use.

**EXAMPLE 3** Approximate  $\iint_R f(x, y) \, dA$  where

$$f(x, y) = \frac{y(1 - x + y)}{16}$$

and

$$R = \{(x, y) \mid x \leq y \leq 4 - x, 0 \leq x \leq 2\}$$

Do this by calculating the Riemann sum obtained by dividing  $R$  into eight equal squares and using the center of each square as the sample point (Figure 7).

**SOLUTION** The values of the function at the required sample points are as follows:

$$(1) \quad f(x_1, y_1) = f(1, 1) = \frac{57}{16},$$

$$(5) \quad f(x_5, y_5) = f(3, 1) = \frac{4}{16}$$

$$(2) \quad f(x_2, y_2) = f(1, 3) = \frac{65}{16},$$

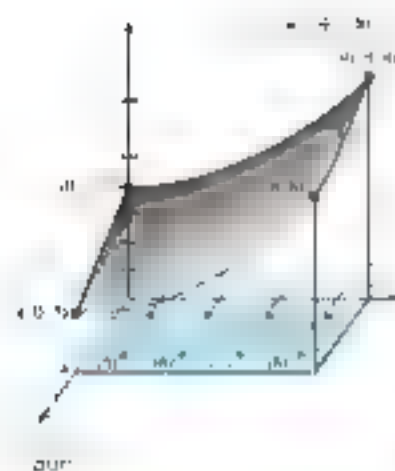
$$(6) \quad f(x_6, y_6) = f(3, 3) = \frac{49}{16}$$

$$(3) \quad f(x_3, y_3) = f(1, 5) = \frac{51}{16},$$

$$(7) \quad f(x_7, y_7) = f(3, 5) = \frac{65}{16}$$

$$(4) \quad f(x_4, y_4) = f(1, 7) = \frac{105}{16},$$

$$(8) \quad f(x_8, y_8) = f(3, 7) = \frac{89}{16}$$



Thus, since  $\Delta A_1 = 4$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}\iint_R (x + y) \, dA &= \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i + y_i) \Delta A_i \\ &= 4 \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i + y_i) \\ &= 4(5^2 + 65 + 81 + 105 + 41 + 49 + 65 + 84) = 36^2.\end{aligned}$$

In Section 13.2 we shall learn how to find the exact value of the integral  $\iint_R (x + y) \, dA$  in  $36^2$ .

## Concepts Review

1. A function  $f(x, y)$  is continuous on the rectangle  $R$  with sample points  $\bar{x}_i, \bar{y}_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ . Then  $\iint_R f(x, y) \, dA = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$ .
2. If  $f(x, y) \geq 0$  on  $R$ , then  $\iint_R f(x, y) \, dA$  can be interpreted geometrically as  $\underline{\hspace{2cm}}$ .
3.  $\iint_R f(x, y) \, dA$  is  $\underline{\hspace{2cm}}$  on  $R$  if  $f$  is always  $\underline{\hspace{2cm}}$  on  $R$ .
4. If  $f(x, y) = 6$  on the rectangle  $R = \{(x, y) \mid 1 \leq x \leq 2, 1 \leq y \leq 2\}$ , then  $\iint_R \underline{\hspace{2cm}} \, dA$  is the value  $\underline{\hspace{2cm}}$ .

## Problem Set 13.1

In Problems 1–10,  $R = \{(x, y) \mid a \leq x \leq b, c \leq y \leq d\}$ . Find  $\iint_R f(x, y) \, dA$ , where  $f$  is the given function. Express the answer in simplest form.

1.  $f(x, y) = x + y$
2.  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$
3.  $f(x, y) = \begin{cases} x + y & \text{if } x + y \leq 1 \\ 1 & \text{if } x + y > 1 \end{cases}$
4.  $f(x, y) = \begin{cases} x + y & \text{if } x + y \leq 1 \\ x - y & \text{if } x + y > 1 \end{cases}$

Suppose that  $R = \{(x, y) \mid 0 \leq x \leq 1, 0 \leq y \leq 1\}$ .  
 $R$  is divided into four subrectangles by the lines  $x = \frac{1}{2}$  and  $y = \frac{1}{2}$ .  
 $R$  is divided into four subrectangles by the lines  $x = \frac{1}{3}$  and  $y = \frac{1}{3}$ .  
 $R$  is divided into four subrectangles by the lines  $x = \frac{1}{4}$  and  $y = \frac{1}{4}$ .  
 $R$  is divided into four subrectangles by the lines  $x = \frac{1}{5}$  and  $y = \frac{1}{5}$ .  
 $R$  is divided into four subrectangles by the lines  $x = \frac{1}{6}$  and  $y = \frac{1}{6}$ .  
 $R$  is divided into four subrectangles by the lines  $x = \frac{1}{7}$  and  $y = \frac{1}{7}$ .  
 $R$  is divided into four subrectangles by the lines  $x = \frac{1}{8}$  and  $y = \frac{1}{8}$ .  
 $R$  is divided into four subrectangles by the lines  $x = \frac{1}{9}$  and  $y = \frac{1}{9}$ .  
 $R$  is divided into four subrectangles by the lines  $x = \frac{1}{10}$  and  $y = \frac{1}{10}$ .

For the problems 11–14, use the given function  $f(x, y)$  to find the value of the double integral  $\iint_R f(x, y) \, dA$ .

5.  $\iint_R [3f(x, y) - g(x, y)] \, dA$
6.  $\iint_R (x^2 + y^2) \, dA$
7.  $\iint_R g(x, y) \, dA$
8.  $\iint_R [g(x, y) - 3] \, dA$

In Problems 9–14,  $R = \{(x, y) \mid 0 \leq x \leq 1, 0 \leq y \leq 1\}$ . Find  $\iint_R f(x, y) \, dA$ , where  $f$  is the given function. Express the answer in simplest form.

9.  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$
10.  $f(x, y) = x + y$
11.  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$
12.  $f(x, y) = (x + y)^2$
13.  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$
14.  $f(x, y) = x + y$

In Problems 15–21, use the given function  $f(x, y)$  to find the value of the double integral  $\iint_R f(x, y) \, dA$ .

15.  $\iint_R (x + y) \, dA$
16.  $\iint_R (x + y)^2 \, dA$
17.  $\iint_R (x + y) \, dA$
18.  $\iint_R (x + y)^2 \, dA$
19.  $\iint_R (x + y) \, dA$
20.  $\iint_R (x + y)^2 \, dA$
21. Calculate  $\iint_R (6 - x) \, dA$ , where  $R = \{(x, y) \mid 0 \leq x \leq 1, 0 \leq y \leq 1\}$ .

For the problems 22–24, use the given function  $f(x, y)$  to find the value of the double integral  $\iint_R f(x, y) \, dA$ .

22.  $\iint_R (x + y) \, dA$
23.  $\iint_R (x + y)^2 \, dA$
24.  $\iint_R (x + y) \, dA$

21. Calculate  $\iint_R (1+x) \, dA$  where  $R = \{(x, y) : 0 \leq x \leq 2, 0 \leq y \leq 1\}$ . See Exercise 19 for a hint.

22. Use the comparison property of double integrals to show that  $\iint_R \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \, dA \geq \frac{1}{2} \iint_R (x^2 + y^2) \, dA$ .

23. Use the comparison property of double integrals to show that  $\iint_R \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \, dA \leq \frac{1}{2} \iint_R (x^2 + y^2) \, dA$ .

24. Suppose that  $f(x, y) \leq M$  on  $R$ . Show that

$$\iint_R f(x, y) \, dA \leq M \cdot A(R)$$

25. Let  $R$  be the rectangle shown in Figure 8. For the indicated partition into 12 equal squares, calculate the smallest and largest Riemann sums for  $\iint_R \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \, dA$  and thereby obtain numbers  $c$  and  $C$  such that

$$c \leq \iint_R \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \, dA \leq C$$

14



Figure 8

26. Evaluate  $\int_0^1 \int_0^2 \cos^2(\pi y) \, dA$ , where  $R$  is the rectangle in Figure 8. How does the graph of the integrand have any kind of symmetry?

27. Recall that  $[x]$  is the greatest integer function. For  $R$  of Figure 9 evaluate

$$a) \int_0^1 \int_0^1 [x+y] \, dA$$

$$b) \int_0^1 \int_0^1 [x-y] \, dA$$

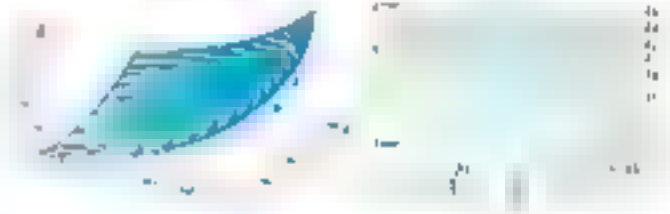
28. Suppose that the rectangle of Figure 8 represents a thin slab, 1 cm thick, whose mass density at  $(x, y)$  is  $\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$  g/cm<sup>3</sup>. What does  $\iint_R \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \, dA$  represent?

29. Colorado is a rectangular state if we ignore the area near the coast. Let  $f(x, y)$  be the number of inches of rainfall during 2015 at the point  $(x, y)$  in that state. What does  $\iint_R f(x, y) \, dA$  represent? What does this number divided by  $A(R)$  represent?

30. Let  $x$  and  $y$  be both  $x$  and  $y$  are rational numbers, not all  $x$  and  $y$  are rational. Show that  $f(x, y)$  is not integrable over the rectangle  $R$  in Figure 8.

31. Use the two graphs in Figure 9 to approximate

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^1 (x+y) \, dA$$



32. Evaluate  $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 (x+y) \, dA$ . 1.  $\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{1}{n^2} (x_i + y_j)$  2. the volume of the solid under  $z = f(x, y)$  and above  $R$ . 3. compute over 4. 12

## 13.2

### Iterated Integrals

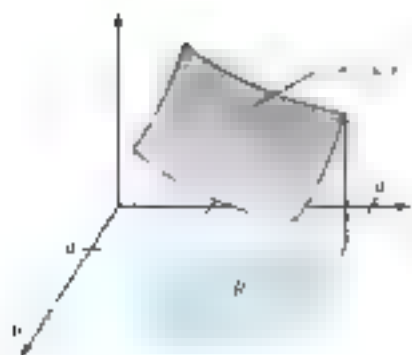


Figure 10

Now we focus on solving the problem of evaluating  $\iint_R f(x, y) \, dA$ , where  $R$  is a rectangle.

$$R = \{(x, y) : a \leq x \leq b, c \leq y \leq d\}$$

Suppose, for the time being, that  $f(x, y) \geq 0$  on  $R$ . So far we may interpret the double integral as the volume  $V$  of the solid under the surface (Figure 10).

$$V = \iint_R f(x, y) \, dA$$

There is another way to calculate the volume of this solid which at first intuitively seems just as valid. Slice the solid into thin slabs by means of planes parallel to the  $xy$ -plane. A typical such slab is shown in Figure 11. The area of the face of this slab depends on how far it is from the  $xy$ -plane; that is, depends on  $y$ . Therefore we denote this area by  $A(y)$  (see Figure 2b).

The volume  $\Delta V$  of the slab is given approximately by

$$\Delta V \approx A(y) \Delta y$$



**SOLUTION** In the inner integration,  $y$  is a constant so

$$\int_1^4 (2x + 3y) \, dx = \left[ x^2 + 3yx \right]_1^4 = 4 + 6y - (1 + 3y) = 3 + 3y$$

Consequently,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^2 \int_1^4 (2x + 3y) \, dx \, dy &= \int_0^2 (3 + 3y) \, dy = \left[ 3y + \frac{3}{2}y^2 \right]_0^2 \\ &= 6 + \frac{6}{2} = 9. \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 3** Evaluate  $\int_0^2 \int_1^4 (y + 3x) \, dy \, dx$ .

**SOLUTION** Note that we have simply reversed the order of integration with Example 2. We expect the same answer as in that example:

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^2 \int_1^4 (y + 3x) \, dy &= \left[ \frac{1}{2}y^2 + 3xy \right]_1^4 \\ &= \frac{15}{2} + 3x. \end{aligned}$$

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^2 \int_1^4 (y + 3x) \, dy \, dx &= \int_0^2 \left( \frac{15}{2} + 3x \right) dx = \left[ \frac{15}{2}x + \frac{3}{2}x^2 \right]_0^2 \\ &= \frac{15}{2}(2) + \frac{6}{2} = 15. \end{aligned}$$

From now on we shall usually omit the brackets in the iterated integral. ■

**EXAMPLE 4** Evaluate  $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \frac{1}{4x^2 + 4xy + y^2} \, dx \, dy$ .

**SOLUTION** Note that the integrand in this example is the double of each of Examples 1 and 2 for which we found the answer 15. We will not attempt to evaluate this iterated integral the other way because we will work it out from the inside out.

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^1 \int_0^1 \frac{1}{4x^2 + 4xy + y^2} \, dx \, dy &= \int_0^1 \int_0^1 \frac{1}{(2x + y)^2} \, dx \, dy \\ &= \int_0^1 \left[ -\frac{1}{2x + y} \right]_0^1 \, dy \\ &= \int_0^1 \left( -\frac{1}{2 + y} + \frac{1}{y} \right) dy \\ &= \left[ -\ln|2 + y| + \ln|y| \right]_0^1 \\ &= 90 + \frac{512}{12} = 138\frac{2}{3}. \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 5** Now we can calculate volumes of a wide variety of solids.

**EXAMPLE 6** Find the volume  $V$  of the solid under the surface  $z = 4 - x^2 - y$  and over the rectangle  $R = \{(x, y) : 0 \leq x \leq 1, 0 \leq y \leq 2\}$  (see Figure 7).

#### A Note on Notation

The order of  $dx$  and  $dy$  is important because it specifies which integration is to be done first. The first letter denotes the inner integral; the integral symbol closest to it on the left, and the first letter of the symbol on its right. We will sometimes refer to the integral as the *inner integral* and its value as the *inner integration*.

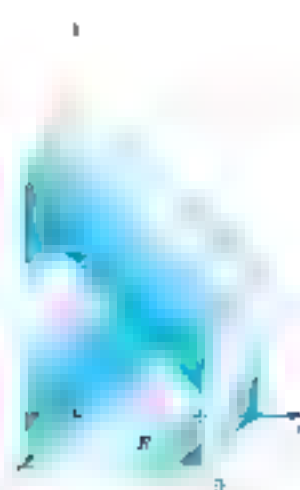


FIGURE 7

**SOLUTION** Let's estimate this volume by assuming that the solid has constant height 7.5, giving it a volume of  $(7.5)(2) = 15$ . If the following calculation gives an answer that is not close to 15, we will know we have made a mistake.

$$\begin{aligned} V &= \iint_R (4 - x^2 - y) \, dA = \int_0^2 \int_0^1 (4 - x^2 - y) \, dx \, dy \\ &= \int_0^2 \left[ 4x - \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{1}{2}y^2 \right]_{x=0}^{x=1} dy = \int_0^2 \left( 4 - \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{2}y^2 \right) dy \\ &= \left[ \left( 4 - \frac{1}{3} \right)y - \frac{1}{6}y^3 \right]_{y=0}^{y=2} = \frac{26}{3} \approx 8.67 \end{aligned}$$

## Concepts Review

- The expression  $\iint_R f(x, y) \, dA$  is called a **double integral**.
- Let  $R = \{(x, y) : 1 \leq x \leq 2, 0 \leq y \leq 7\}$ . Then  $\iint_R x, y \, dA$  can be expressed as an iterated integral  $I$  either as  $\int \int \dots$  or as  $\int \int \dots$ .
- For a given function  $f(x, y)$ , let  $V = \iint_R f(x, y) \, dA$ . If  $f(x, y) \geq 0$ , then  $V$  represents the **volume** of the solid between the surface  $z = f(x, y)$  and the  $xy$ -plane; the term above the plane gets a **positive** sign, the part below, a **negative** sign.
- Thus, a double integral turns out to have a negative value we know that more than half of the solid

## Problem Set 13.2

In Problems 1–16, evaluate each of the iterated integrals.

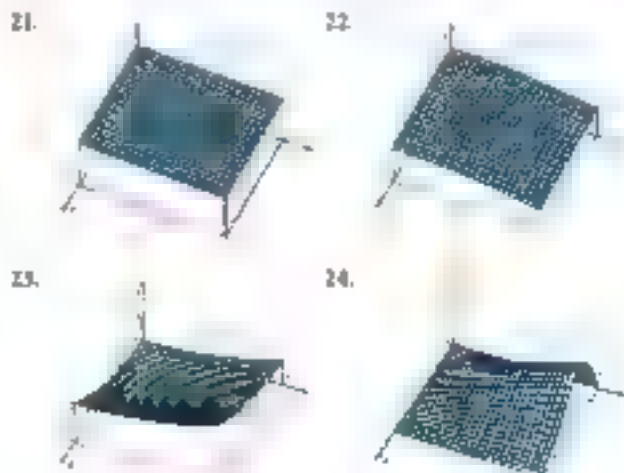
- $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 (x + y) \, dy \, dx$
- $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 (y + x^2) \, dx \, dy$
- $\int_0^2 \int_0^1 x^2 y \, dy \, dx$
- $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 (x + y) \, dx \, dy$
- $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 (xy + y^2) \, dx \, dy$
- $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 (x + y) \, dy \, dx$
- $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 (x + y) \, dx \, dy$
- $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 (x + y) \, dx \, dy$
- $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \sin(x + y) \, dy \, dx$
- $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 (x + y) \, dy \, dx$
- $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 2x\sqrt{x^2 + y} \, dx \, dy$
- $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 (x + y) \, dx \, dy$
- $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 xyx^{y^2} \, dy \, dx$
- $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 (x + y) \, dx \, dy$
- $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 y \cos^2 x \, dy \, dx$
- $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 xe^{xy} \, dx \, dy$

In Problems 17–20, evaluate the indicated double integral over  $R$ .

- $\iint_R xy^2 \, dA$ ;  $R = \{(x, y) : 0 \leq x \leq 1, -1 \leq y \leq 1\}$
- $\iint_R (x + y) \, dA$ ;  $R = \{(x, y) : 0 \leq x \leq 1, 0 \leq y \leq 1\}$

- $\iint_R \cos(x + y) \, dA$ ;  $R = \{(x, y) : 0 \leq x \leq \pi, 0 \leq y \leq \pi\}$
- $\iint_R (1 + x + y) \, dA$ ;  $R = \{(x, y) : 0 \leq x \leq 1, 0 \leq y \leq 1\}$

In Problems 21–24, find the volume under the surface in each figure.



16. In Problems 25–28, describe the solid whose volume is the indicated iterated integral.

25.  $\int_0^1 \int_0^{1-x} \sqrt{xy} \, dy \, dx$

26.  $\int_0^1 \int_0^{1-x} (x+y) \, dy \, dx$

27.  $\int_0^1 \int_0^x x \sqrt{1+y} \, dy \, dx$

28.  $\int_0^1 \int_0^{1-x} 4 - x - y \, dy \, dx$

17. In Problems 9–12, find the volume of the given solid. First, sketch the solid; then estimate its volume; finally, determine its exact volume.

9. Solid under the plane  $z = x + y + 1$  over  $R = [1, 2] \times [1, 2]$

10.  $z = 2 - x - y$

11. Solid under the plane  $z = 2 - 2x$  and over  $R = \{(x, y) \mid x > 0, y > 0, x + y < 1\}$

12.  $z = 1 - x - y$

13. Solid between  $z = x^2 + y^2 + 2$  and  $z = 1$  and lying above  $R = \{(x, y) \mid x^2 + y^2 \leq 1\}$

14. Solid in the first octant enclosed by  $x = 1$ ,  $y = 1$ , and  $z = 1$

15. Show that  $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 (x+y) \, dy \, dx = \int_0^1 \int_0^1 (x+y) \, dx \, dy$

16.  $\int_0^1 \int_0^{1-x} (1+y) \, dy \, dx = \int_0^1 \int_0^1 (1+y) \, dy \, dx$

17. Use Problem 13 to evaluate

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^{1-x} \frac{xy^2}{1+y^2} \, dy \, dx$$

18. Evaluate

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^{1-x} (x+y) \, dy \, dx$$

19. Find the volume of the solid trapped between the surface  $z = \cos x \cos y$  and the  $xy$ -plane, where  $0 \leq x \leq \pi$ ,  $0 \leq y \leq \pi$ .

In Problems 39–40, evaluate each iterated integral.

39.  $\int_0^1 \int_0^{1-x} x \sqrt{xy} \, dy \, dx$

40.  $\int_0^1 \int_0^{1-x} (x+y) \, dy \, dx$

41.  $\int_0^1 \int_0^{1-x} (x+y) \, dy \, dx$

42. Evaluate  $\int_0^1 \int_0^{1-x} \frac{1}{1+y} \, dy \, dx$  by (a) Fubini's Theorem and (b) the change of integration.

43. Prove the Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality for Integrals:

$$\left| \int_a^b f(x)g(x) \, dx \right| \leq \left( \int_a^b f(x)^2 \, dx \right)^{1/2} \left( \int_a^b g(x)^2 \, dx \right)^{1/2}$$

(Use Fubini's Theorem and the double integral.)

$$F(x, y) = [f(x)g(y) - f(y)g(x)]^2$$

over the rectangle  $R = [a, b] \times [a, b]$ .

44. Suppose that  $f$  is the density of a thin plate  $\int_a^b \int_a^b f(x, y) \, dy \, dx$

Prove that

$$\frac{\int_a^b \int_a^b f(x, y) \, dy \, dx}{\int_a^b f(x) \, dx} = \frac{1}{b-a}$$

and give a physical interpretation of this result. (See Fig. 13.1.1.)

Answer: (a)  $\frac{1}{b-a}$  (b)  $\frac{1}{b-a}$

45.  $\int_0^1 \int_0^{1-x} (x+y) \, dy \, dx = \int_0^1 \int_0^1 (x+y) \, dy \, dx$

46.  $\int_0^1 \int_0^{1-x} (x+y) \, dy \, dx = \int_0^1 \int_0^1 (x+y) \, dy \, dx$

## 13.2 Double Integrals over Nonrectangular Regions

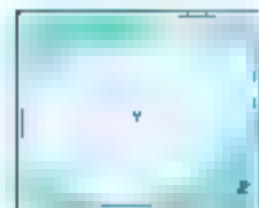


Figure 13.2.1

Consider an arbitrary closed bounded set  $S$  in the plane. Suppose  $S$  lies in the  $xy$ -plane with sides parallel to the coordinate axes. Figure 13.2.1 shows one such set. Given  $x$  in  $S$ , and define  $y_1(x)$  and  $y_2(x)$  as the  $y$ -coordinates of the points where the vertical line through  $x$  intersects  $S$  (Figure 2). We say that  $S$  is *regular in  $y$*  if  $S$  is the union of  $R$  and  $W$ , where

$$\iint_R f(x, y) \, dy \, dx = \iint_W f(x, y) \, dy \, dx$$

We assert that the double integral on a general set  $S$  is equal to the double integral over  $R$  and  $W$  separately, and  $W$  satisfies the important property (see Section 13.1)

1.  $W$  is a union of a finite number of sets  $S_i$ , each of which is *y-simple*. Such a boundary can be very complicated. For our purpose, it will be sufficient to consider a simple set  $S$  and a simple set  $S_i$  and find a formula for such sets. A set  $S$  is *y-simple* if, for simple  $x$ , the intersection of the vertical line through  $x$  with  $S$  is a single interval (or point or not at all). For a set  $S$  to be *y-simple* (Figure 13.2.2) if there are functions  $\phi_1$  and  $\phi_2$  on  $[a, b]$  such that

$$S = \{(x, y) \mid \phi_1(x) \leq y \leq \phi_2(x), a \leq x \leq b\}$$



Figure 2

A set  $S$  is  **$x$ -simple** (Figure 4) if there are functions  $\phi_1$  ( $\phi_1$  is the Greek letter psi) and  $\phi_2$  on  $[c, d]$  such that

$$S = \{(x, y) : \phi_1(y) \leq x \leq \phi_2(y), c \leq y \leq d\}$$

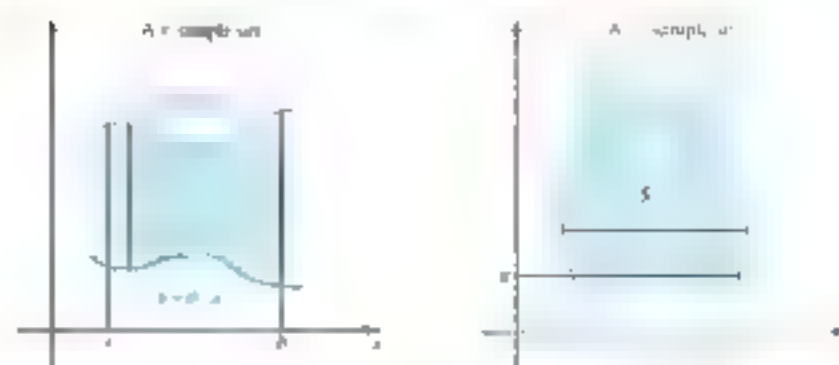
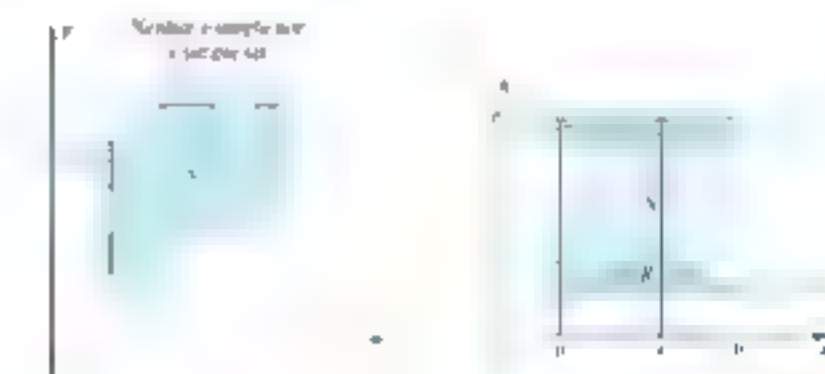
Figure 3 exhibits a set that is neither  $x$ -simple nor  $y$ -simple.

Figure 4

Now suppose that we wish to evaluate the double integral of a function  $f(x, y)$  over a simple set  $S$ . We enclose  $S$  in a rectangle  $R$  (Figure 6) and make  $f(x, y) = 0$  outside  $S$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \iint_R f(x, y) \, dA &= \iint_S f(x, y) \, dA = \int_c^d \left[ \int_a^{h(y)} f(x, y) \, dx \right] dy \\ &= \int_c^d A(y) \, dy. \end{aligned}$$

In summary,

$$\iint_R f(x, y) \, dA = \int_c^d \int_a^{h(y)} f(x, y) \, dx \, dy$$

In the inner integration  $x$  is held fixed; thus this integration is along the heavy vertical line of Figure 6. This integration yields the line  $A(y)$  in the cross section shown in Figure 7. Finally,  $A(y)$  is integrated from  $c$  to  $d$ .

If the set  $S$  is  $x$ -simple (Figure 4), similar reasoning leads to the formula



$$\iint_S f(x, y) \, dA = \int_a^b \int_{g_1(x)}^{g_2(x)} f(x, y) \, dy \, dx$$

If the set  $S$  is neither  $x$ -simple nor  $y$ -simple (Figure 5), it can usually be considered as a union of pieces that have one or the other of these properties. For example, the annular region  $S$  is not simple in either direction, but it can be divided into two  $x$ -simple sets  $S_1$  and  $S_2$ . The integrals on these pieces can be calculated and added together to obtain the integral over  $S$ .



**EXAMPLE 1** Let  $w$  be a function of  $x$  and  $y$ . We evaluate the double integral, where the limits on the inner integral sign are variables.

**EXAMPLE 1** Evaluate the iterated integral

$$\int_2^3 \int_{-x}^x (4x + 10y) \, dy \, dx$$

**SOLUTION** We first perform the inner integration with respect to  $y$ , temporarily thinking of  $x$  as constant (see Figure 9), and obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \int_2^3 \int_{-x}^x (4x + 10y) \, dy \, dx &= \int_2^3 [4xy + 5y^2]_{-x}^x \, dx \\ &= \int_2^3 [(4x^2 + 5x^2) - (-4x^2 + 5x^2)] \, dx \\ &= \int_2^3 (8x + 10x) \, dx = \int_2^3 18x \, dx \\ &= \frac{18}{2}x^2 \Big|_2^3 = 9(9 - 4) = 45 \end{aligned}$$

Notice that for iterated integrals, the outer integral cannot have limits that depend on either variable of integration.

**EXAMPLE 2** Evaluate the iterated integral

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^x 2ye^x \, dx \, dy$$

**SOLUTION** The region of integration is shown in Figure 10.

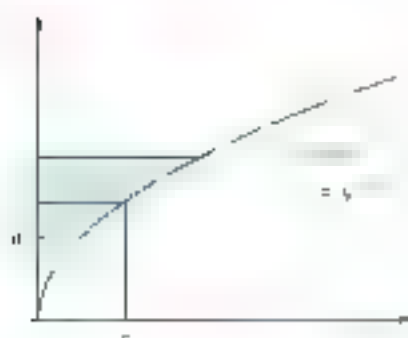
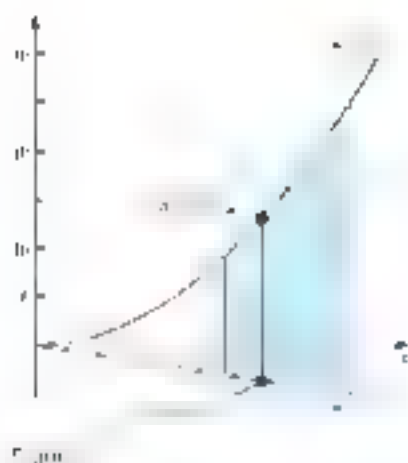


Figure 10

$$\begin{aligned}
 \int_0^1 \int_0^{1-y} 2ye^x \, dx \, dy &= \int_0^1 \left[ \int_0^{1-y} 2ye^x \, dx \right] dy \\
 &= \int_0^1 \left[ 2ye^x \right]_0^{1-y} dy = \int_0^1 (2ye^{1-y} - 2y e^0) dy \\
 &= \int_0^1 e^x (2y \, du) = 2 \int_0^1 y \, dy \\
 &= 2 \left[ \frac{y^2}{2} \right]_0^1 = 1.
 \end{aligned}$$

We turn to the problem of calculating volumes by means of iterated integrals.

**EXAMPLE 1** Find the volume of the solid in the first octant bounded by the coordinate planes and the plane  $3x + 6y + 4z = 12 = 0$ .

**SOLUTION** Denote by  $S$  the triangular region in the  $xy$ -plane that forms the base—the projection of the solid—of the solid. We seek the volume under the surface  $z = \frac{3}{4}(4 - x - 2y)$  and above the region  $S$ .

The given plane intersects the  $xy$ -plane at the line  $x + 2y = 4 = 0$ , a segment of which belongs to the boundary of  $S$ . Since this equation can be written  $y = 2 - x/2$  and  $x = 4 - 2y$ ,  $S$  can be thought of as the  $y$ -simple set

$$S = \{(x, y) \mid 0 \leq x \leq 4 - 2y, 0 \leq y \leq 2\}$$

or as the  $x$ -simple set

$$S = \{(x, y) \mid 0 \leq y \leq 4 - x/2, 0 \leq x \leq 4\}.$$

We will treat  $S$  as a  $y$ -simple set; the final result would be the same either way as you should verify.

The volume  $V$  of the solid is

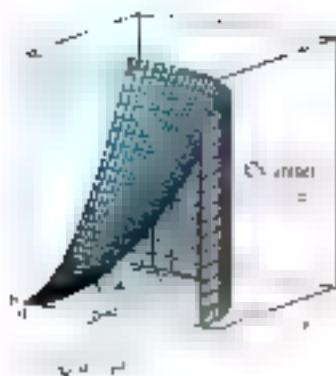
$$V = \iint_S \frac{3}{4}(4 - x - 2y) \, dA.$$

In writing this as an iterated integral we first integrate along a line (Figure 12) from  $y = 0$  to  $y = 2 - x/2$ , and then integrate the result from  $x = 0$  to 4. Thus

$$\begin{aligned}
 V &= \int_0^4 \int_0^{2-x/2} \frac{3}{4}(4 - x - 2y) \, dy \, dx \\
 &= \int_0^4 \left[ \frac{3}{4} \left( 4y - xy - y^2 \right) \right]_0^{2-x/2} dx \\
 &= \int_0^4 \frac{3}{4} \left( 4y - xy - y^2 \right) \Big|_0^{2-x/2} dx \\
 &= \frac{3}{4} \int_0^4 (16 - 8x - x^2) \, dx \\
 &= \frac{3}{4} \left[ 16x - 4x^2 - \frac{x^3}{3} \right]_0^4 = 4.
 \end{aligned}$$

You may recall that the volume of a tetrahedron is one-third the area of its base times its height. In this case the base is a triangle with area 4. This confirms our answer.

**EXAMPLE 2** Find the volume of the solid in the first octant  $(x \geq 0, y \geq 0, z \geq 0)$  bounded by the circular paraboloid  $z = x + y^2$  and the cylinder  $x = 4 - y^2$  and the coordinate planes (Figure 1).



**SOLUTION** The region  $S$  in the first quadrant of the  $xy$ -plane is bounded by a quarter of the circle  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$  and the lines  $x = 0$  and  $y = 0$ . Although  $V$  can be thought of as either a  $y$ -simple or an  $x$ -simple region, we choose to describe  $S$  as  $y$ -simple and write its boundary curves as  $x = \sqrt{4 - y^2}$ ,  $x = 0$ , and  $y = 0$ . Thus,

$$S = \{(x, y) \mid 0 \leq x \leq \sqrt{4 - y^2}, 0 \leq y \leq 2\}.$$

Figure 14 shows the region  $S$  in the  $xy$ -plane. Now our goal is to calculate

$$V = \iint_S (x^2 + y^2) \, dA$$

by means of an iterated integral. This time we integrate first in  $x$  (parallel to a line in Figure 14) from  $x = 0$  to  $x = \sqrt{4 - y^2}$  and then integrate the result from  $y = 0$  to  $y = 2$ .

$$\begin{aligned} V &= \iint_S (x^2 + y^2) \, dA = \int_0^2 \int_0^{\sqrt{4-y^2}} (x^2 + y^2) \, dx \, dy \\ &= \int_0^2 \left[ \frac{1}{3}x^3 + y^2x \right]_0^{\sqrt{4-y^2}} dy \end{aligned}$$

By the trigonometric substitution  $y = 2 \sin \theta$ , the latter integral can be written as

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^2 \left[ \frac{1}{3}x^3 + y^2x \right]_0^{\sqrt{4-y^2}} dy &= \int_0^{\pi/2} \left[ \frac{16}{3} \cos^3 \theta + 16 \sin^2 \theta \cos \theta \right] d\theta \\ &= \frac{16}{3} \int_0^{\pi/2} (\cos^3 \theta + 3 \cos \theta - 4 \cos^3 \theta) d\theta \\ &= \frac{16}{3} \int_0^{\pi/2} (3 \cos \theta - 2 \cos^3 \theta) d\theta \\ &= \frac{16}{3} \left[ 3 \sin \theta - \frac{2}{4} \sin^4 2\theta \right] d\theta \\ &= \frac{16}{3} \left[ 3 \sin \theta - \frac{1}{2} \sin^4 2\theta \right] d\theta = \frac{16}{3} \left[ 3 - \frac{1}{2} \right] = \frac{40}{3}. \end{aligned}$$

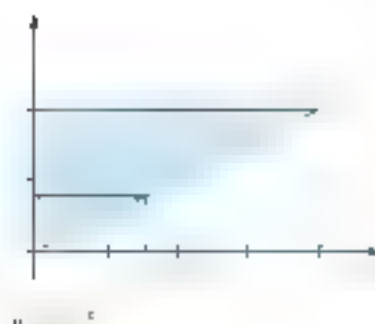
Is this answer reasonable? Note that the volume of the entire quarter cylinder in Figure 14 is  $\frac{1}{4}\pi r^2 h = \frac{1}{4}\pi(2^2)(4) = 4\pi$ . One-half this number is certainly a reasonable value for the required volume. ■

**EXAMPLE 5** By changing the order of integration, evaluate

$$\int_0^2 \int_{x^2}^x e^{xy} \, dy \, dx$$

**SOLUTION** The inner integral cannot be evaluated in closed form because  $e^{xy}$  does not have an antiderivative in terms of elementary functions. However, we recognize that the given iterated integral is equal to

$$\iint_R e^{xy} \, dA$$



where  $S = \{(x, y): x/2 \leq y \leq 2, 0 \leq x \leq 4\} = \{(x, y): 0 \leq x \leq 2, 0 \leq y \leq 2\}$  (see Figure 17). If we write this double integral as an iterated integral with the integration performed first, we get

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^4 \int_{x/2}^2 e^x dx dy &= \int_0^4 [xe^x]_{x/2}^2 dy \\ &= \int_0^4 2ye^x dy = e^x \Big|_0^2 = e^4 - 1 \end{aligned}$$

## CONCEPT REVIEW

- For an arbitrary set  $S$ , we define  $\iint_S f(x, y) dA = \iint_R f(x, y) dA$  where  $R =$  \_\_\_\_\_ and  $f(x, y) =$  \_\_\_\_\_ over all of the set  $S$ .
- A set  $S$  is called a *simple* set if there are functions  $\phi_1$  and  $\phi_2$  such that  $\phi_1(x) \leq y \leq \phi_2(x)$  and  $a \leq x \leq b$ .
- If  $S$  is a simple set as in Question 2, then the double integral over  $S$  can be written as the iterated integral  $\iint_S f(x, y) dA = \int_a^b \int_{\phi_1(x)}^{\phi_2(x)} f(x, y) dy dx$ .
- If  $S$  is the triangle in the first quadrant bounded by  $x = 0$ ,  $y = 2$ , and  $y = x$ , then  $\iint_S f(x, y) dA$  can be written as the iterated integral \_\_\_\_\_ which has  $\int$  for \_\_\_\_\_.

## Problem Set 13.3

Evaluate the iterated integrals in Problems 1–14.

- $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 (x+y) dx dy$
- $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 (x^2 + y^2) dx dy$
- $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 xy^2 dx dy$
- $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 (x^2 + y^2) dy dx$
- $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \cos(\pi x^2) dx dy$
- $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2} dx dy$
- $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \cos(\pi x^2) dy dx$
- $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2} dy dx$
- $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \sin(\pi x^2) dx dy$
- $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2} dy dx$
- $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \sin(\pi x^2) dy dx$
- $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2} dy dx$
- $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \sin(\pi x^2) dy dx$
- $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2} dy dx$

In Problems 15–20, evaluate the given double integral by changing it to an iterated integral.

- $\iint_S xy dA$ ;  $S$  is the region bounded by  $y = x^2$  and  $y = 1$ .
- $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 x dy$ ;  $S$  is the triangular region with vertices  $(0, 0)$ ,  $(1, 1)$ , and  $(0, 1)$ .
- $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 y dx$ ;  $S$  is the region between  $x = 1$  and  $\sqrt{y}$ .

- $\iint_S (x^2 - xy) dA$ ;  $S$  is the region between  $y = x$  and  $y = x^2$ .
- $\iint_S \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2} dA$ ;  $S$  is the triangular region with vertices  $(0, 0)$ ,  $(1, 1)$ , and  $(0, 1)$ .
- $\iint_S x dA$ ;  $S$  is the region between  $y = x$  and  $y = x^2$ .

(Note that  $S$  has two parts.)

In Problems 21–32, describe the indicated solid. Then find its volume by an iterated integration.

- Tetrahedron bounded by the coordinate planes and the plane  $x + y + z = 1$ .
- Tetrahedron bounded by the coordinate planes and the plane  $3x + 4y + z = 1$ .
- Wedge bounded by the coordinate planes and the planes  $x = 1$  and  $z = 1$ .
- Solid in the first octant bounded by the coordinate planes and the planes  $2x = 1$  and  $z = 1$ .
- Solid in the first octant bounded by the coordinate planes and the planes  $2x = 1$  and  $z = 1$ .
- Solid in the first octant bounded by the coordinate planes and the planes  $2x = 1$  and  $z = 1$ .
- Solid in the first octant bounded by the cylinder  $y = x^2$  and the planes  $x = 0$ ,  $y = 1$ , and  $z = 1$ .

28. Solid bounded by the parabolic cylinder  $z = 4x$  and the planes  $x = 1$  and  $z = 0$ ,  $y = 0$ ,  $z = 4$ .

29. Solid in the first octant bounded by the cylinder  $z = \tan x^2$  and the planes  $x = y$ ,  $x = 1$  and  $y = 0$ .

30. Solid in the first octant bounded by the surface  $z = x^2 + y^2$  and the planes  $x = 1$ ,  $y = 1$  and the coordinate planes.

31. Solid in the first octant bounded by the surface  $4x = 76 - 4x^2 - 4y^2$  and the coordinate planes.

32. Solid in the first octant bounded by the circular cylinders  $x^2 + y^2 = 16$  and  $y^2 + z^2 = 16$  and the coordinate planes.

In Problems 33–36, write the given double integral as an iterated integral with the order of integration interchanged. *Hint:* Begin by sketching a region  $S$  and representing it in two ways, as in Example 5.

33.  $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 f(x, y) dy dx$       34.  $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 f(x, y) dx dy$

35.  $\int_0^1 \int_0^{1-x} f(x, y) dy dx$       36.  $\int_0^1 \int_0^{1-x} f(x, y) dy dx$

37.  $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 f(x, y) dx dy$       38.  $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 f(x, y) dx dy$

39. Evaluate  $\iint_S xy^2 dA$ , where  $S$  is the region shown in

Figure 16.

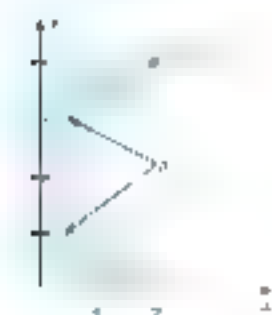


Figure 16



Figure 17

40. Evaluate  $\iint_S xy dA$ , where  $S$  is the region in Figure

41. Evaluate  $\iint_S (x^2 - y^2) dA$ , where  $S = \{(x, y) : x^2 + y^2 \leq 4\}$ . *Hint:* Use symmetry to reduce the problem to evaluating

$\iint_S (x^2 - y^2) dA$ , where  $S = \{(x, y) : x^2 + y^2 \leq 4, x \geq 0, y \geq 0\}$ .



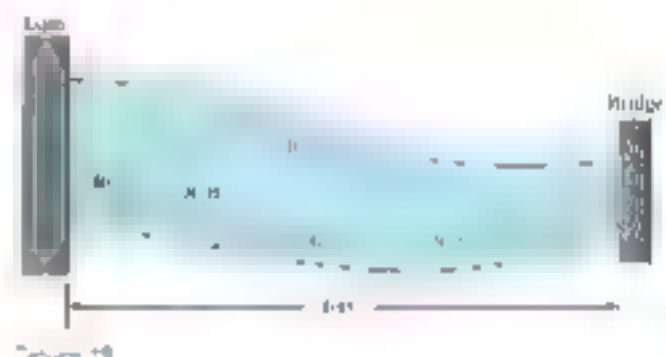
Figure 18

42. Evaluate  $\iint_S \sin x dy dx$ , where  $S$  is the region bounded by  $x = y$ ,  $x = 1$ ,  $y = 0$ , and  $z = 0$ . *Hint:* Use symmetry to reduce the problem to evaluating

43. Evaluate  $\iint_S \sin x dy dx$ , where  $S$  is the region bounded by  $x = \sqrt{y}$ ,  $y = 1$  and  $x = 0$ . *Hint:* Use one order of integration that is not more complicated.

44. Evaluate  $\iint_S x^2 dA$ , where  $S$  is the region between the ellipse  $x^2 - 2y^2 = 4$  and the circle  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$ .

45. Figure 19 shows a contour map for the depth of a river between a dam and a bridge. Approximate the volume of water between the dam and the bridge. *Hint:* Slice the river into eleven 10-foot sections parallel to the bridge and assume that cross-sections are rectangles. The river is approximately 300 feet wide by the dam and 175 feet wide by the bridge.



46. Suppose that  $f$  is a continuous function defined on a region  $R$  that is closed and bounded. Show that there is an  $m$  and  $M$  such that

$$m \leq f(x, y) \leq M \text{ for all } (x, y) \in R.$$

This result is called the **Mean Value Theorem for Double Integrals**. *Hint:* You will need the Intermediate Value Theorem (Section 1.1).

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{Let } f \text{ be a continuous function on a region } R \\ & \text{in the } xy\text{-plane. Then} \\ & \iint_R f(x, y) dA = \iint_R f(x, y) dA \end{aligned}$$

### 13.4 Double Integrals in Polar Coordinates

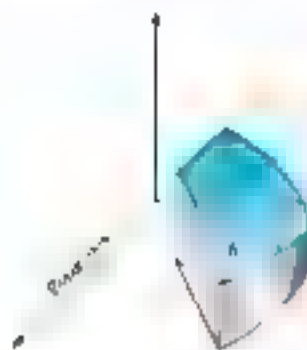
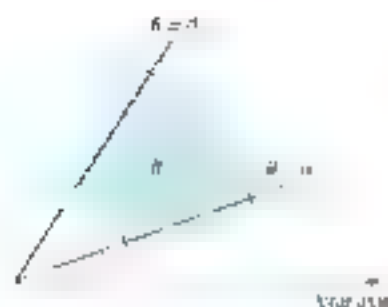
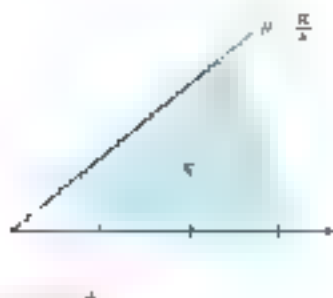


Figure 3



Certain curves in the plane—such as circles, cardioids, and roses—are easier to describe in terms of polar coordinates than in Cartesian coordinates. Thus we can specify that double integrals over regions enclosed by such curves are more easily evaluated using polar coordinates. In Section 3.1 we will see how to make more general transformations. For now we study in depth only the polar coordinate transformation from rectangular to polar coordinates, because this technique is so useful.

Let  $R$  have the shape shown in Figure 1, which we call a *polar rectangle* (this will describe accurately in a moment). Let  $z = f(x, y)$  describe a surface above  $R$  and suppose that  $f$  is continuous and nonnegative. Then the volume  $V$  of the solid under this surface and above  $R$  (Figure 2) is given by

$$(1) \quad V = \iint_R f(x, y) \, dA.$$

In polar coordinates, a polar rectangle  $R$  has the form

$$R = \{(r, \theta) : a \leq r \leq b, \alpha \leq \theta \leq \beta\}$$

where  $a > 0$  and  $\beta - \alpha \leq 2\pi$ . Also, the equation  $z = f(x, y)$  can be written as

$$z = f(x, y) = f(r \cos \theta, r \sin \theta) = F(r, \theta).$$

We are going to approximate the volume  $V$  in a new way using polar coordinates.

Partition  $R$  into smaller polar rectangles  $R_1, R_2, \dots, R_n$ , as in Figure 3. Suppose that  $R_k$  has dimensions  $\Delta r_k$  and  $\Delta \theta_k$ . Also, let  $r_k$  denote the average radius of the typical polar rectangle  $R_k$  as shown in Figure 3. The area  $A(R_k)$  is given by (see Problem 40)

$$A(R_k) = r_k \Delta r_k \Delta \theta_k,$$

where  $r_k$  is the average radius of  $R_k$ . Thus

$$V \approx \sum_{k=1}^n F(r_k, \theta_k) r_k \Delta r_k \Delta \theta_k.$$

When we take the limit as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  of the partial sum approximation (2), we might get the actual volume. This limit is a double integral.

$$(2) \quad \iint_R f(x, y) \, dA = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n F(r_k, \theta_k) r_k \Delta r_k \Delta \theta_k.$$

Now we have two expressions for  $V$  (that is, for (2)). Equating them yields

$$\iint_R f(x, y) \, dA = \iint_R f(r \cos \theta, r \sin \theta) r \, dr \, d\theta.$$

The boxed result was derived under the assumption that  $f$  was nonnegative, but it works for very general functions (in particular for continuous functions, of either sign).

**EXAMPLE 1** The result announced above becomes useful when we write the polar double integral as an iterated integral. A situation we now illustrate.

**EXAMPLE 2** Find the volume  $V$  of the solid above the polar rectangle  $R = \{(r, \theta) : 1 \leq r \leq 3, 0 \leq \theta \leq \pi/4\}$  (Figure 4) and under the surface

**SOLUTION** Since  $r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} I &= \iint_D x^2 \, dA \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi} \int_1^2 r^2 \cos^2 \theta \, r \, dr \, d\theta \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{1}{3} r^3 \cos^2 \theta \Big|_1^2 \, d\theta \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{1}{3} (2^3 - 1) \cos^2 \theta \, d\theta = \frac{\pi}{3} (2^3 - 1) = \frac{7\pi}{3}. \end{aligned}$$

Without the help of polar coordinates, we could not have done this problem. Note how the extra factor of  $r$  was just what we needed in order to obtain a definite integral.

**EXAMPLE 3** Recall how we extended the double integral to an arbitrary region  $R$  in the integral over a general set  $S$ . We simply enclosed  $S$  in a rectangle  $R$  and gave the integral value 0 outside  $S$ . In some cases, we can do this same thing for double integrals in polar coordinates even when  $S$  does not have a rectangular shape. For example, if  $S$  is a circular sector, then we would assert that the boxed result stated earlier holds for general sets  $S$ .



**FIGURE 5** (a) special interest for polar integration (b) what we show if  $S$  is not a circular sector

$$S = \{(r, \theta) : \phi_1(\theta) \leq r \leq \phi_2(\theta), \alpha \leq \theta \leq \beta\}$$

and call it  **$\theta$ -simple** if it has the form (Figure 6)

$$S = \{(r, \theta) : a \leq r \leq b, \psi_1(r) \leq \theta \leq \psi_2(r)\}$$

**EXAMPLE 4** Evaluate

$$\iint_S y \, dA$$

where  $S$  is the region in the first quadrant that is outside the circle  $r = 1$  and inside the cardioid  $r = 2(1 + \cos \theta)$  (see Figure 7).

**SOLUTION** Since  $S$  is an  $r$ -simple set, we write the given integral as an iterated polar integral, with  $r$  as the inner variable of integration. In this inner integration  $\theta$  is held fixed, so the integrator is actually the function  $y = r \sin \theta$  (Figure 7). On  $r = 2(1 + \cos \theta)$

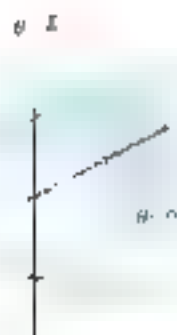
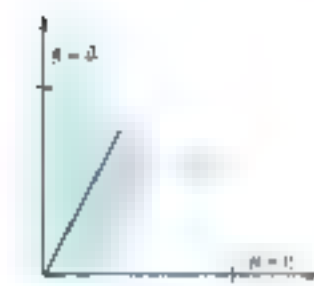
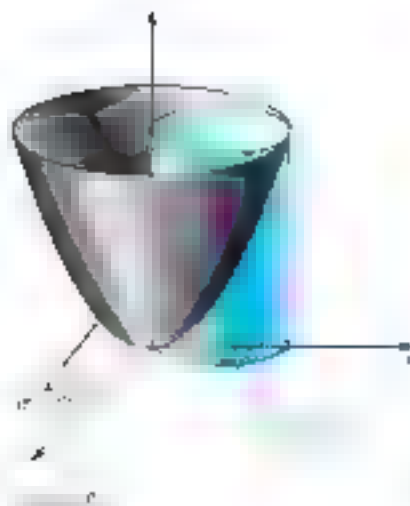
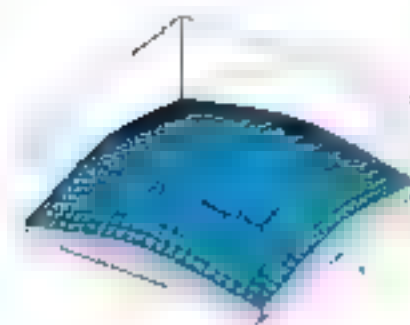


Figure 6



### Common Set-Up

To estimate the volume in Example 3, note that the height of the cylinder sketched in Figure 8 is  $4 - (x^2 + y^2)$ . Thus, the sketched volume is somewhat less than half the volume of a cylinder of radius 1 and height 4, that is less than  $\frac{1}{2}(\pi)(1)^2(4) = 2\pi$ . The answer we got is  $\frac{16}{3}\pi \approx 16.76$ , so clearly



$$\begin{aligned} \iint_D y \, dA &= \int_0^{\pi/2} \int_2^{2(1-\cos\theta)} (r \sin\theta) r \, dr \, d\theta \\ &= \int_0^{\pi/2} \frac{r^3}{3} \sin\theta \bigg|_2^{2(1-\cos\theta)} d\theta \\ &= \frac{K}{3} \int_0^{\pi/2} [(1 + \cos\theta)^3 \sin\theta - \sin\theta] d\theta \\ &= \frac{5}{3} \left[ \frac{1}{4} (1 + \cos\theta)^4 + \cos\theta \right]_0^{\pi/2} \\ &= \frac{5}{3} \left[ \frac{1}{4} (1 + 0)^4 + 0 - \left( \frac{1}{4} (1 + 1)^4 + 1 \right) \right] = \frac{16}{3}\pi \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 3** Find the volume of the solid under the surface  $z = 1 - x^2 - y^2$  above the  $xy$ -plane and inside the cylinder  $x^2 + y^2 = 2x$  (Figure 9).

**SOLUTION** From symmetry we can double the volume in the  $xy$ -plane. When we use  $x = r \cos\theta$  and  $y = r \sin\theta$ , the equation of the surface becomes  $z = 1 - r^2$  and that of the cylinder  $r = 2 \sin\theta$ . The region in the  $xy$ -plane is shown in Figure 10. The required volume  $V$  is given by

$$\begin{aligned} V &= 2 \iint_D (1 - r^2) \, dA = 2 \int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^{2 \sin\theta} (1 - r^2) r \, dr \, d\theta \\ &= 2 \int_0^{\pi/2} \left[ \frac{1}{2} r^2 - \frac{1}{4} r^4 \right]_0^{2 \sin\theta} d\theta = \pi \int_0^{\pi/2} (\sin^2\theta - \sin^4\theta) d\theta \\ &= \pi \left[ \frac{1}{2} \theta - \frac{3}{8} \sin 2\theta \right]_0^{\pi/2} = \frac{16}{3}\pi \end{aligned}$$

The double integral was evaluated by means of Formula 13.4.4. It is possible to integrate in the  $xy$ -plane of the book.

**EXAMPLE 4** In a chapter we discussed the surface of a thin, physically density function

$$z = 1 - x^2 - y^2$$

At that time we assumed that the density was constant. In the next two examples we will prove this result.

**EXAMPLE 4** Show that  $I = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-x^2} \, dx = \sqrt{\pi}$ .

**SOLUTION** We are going to break up, in this problem, the  $x$ -axis into two decidedly ingenious ways. First recall that

$$I = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-x^2} \, dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-b}^b e^{-x^2} \, dx$$

Now let  $V_b$  be the volume of the solid (Figure 10) that lies under the surface  $z = e^{-x^2 - y^2}$  and above the square with vertices  $(\pm b, \pm b)$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} V_b &= \int_{-b}^b \int_{-b}^b e^{-x^2 - y^2} \, dy \, dx = \int_{-b}^b e^{-x^2} \left[ \int_{-b}^b e^{-y^2} \, dy \right] dx \\ &= \int_{-b}^b e^{-x^2} \left( \int_{-b}^b e^{-y^2} \, dy \right) dx = \left[ \int_{-b}^b e^{-x^2} \, dx \right] \left[ \int_{-b}^b e^{-y^2} \, dy \right] \end{aligned}$$



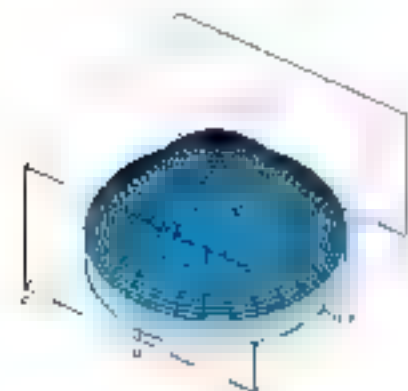


Figure 13.4

It follows that the volume of the region under  $z = 4 - x^2 - y^2$  above the whole  $xy$ -plane is

$$(1) \quad V = \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} V_2 = \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} 4 \int_0^R \int_0^R (4 - x^2 - y^2) \, dx \, dy = 4 \int_0^\infty (4 - x^2) \, dx = 4I$$

On the other hand, we can also calculate  $V$  using polar coordinates. Here  $V$  is the same as  $V_2$  as  $x = r \cos \theta$  and  $y = r \sin \theta$ , the volume of the solid under the surface above the circular region of radius  $R$  centered at the origin (Figure 13.5).

$$(2) \quad V = \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} V_2 = \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^R (4 - r^2) r \, dr \, d\theta = \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^{2\pi} \left[ 2r^2 - \frac{1}{3}r^3 \right]_0^R d\theta \\ = \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^{2\pi} \left( 2R^2 - \frac{1}{3}R^3 \right) d\theta = \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \left( 2 - \frac{1}{3}R \right) \int_0^{2\pi} d\theta = \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} (2 - \frac{1}{3}R) 2\pi$$

Equating the two values obtained for  $V$  in (1) and (2) yields  $4I = \pi$  or  $I = \frac{\pi}{4}$ , as desired. ■

**EXAMPLE 13.4.1** Show that  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+x^2}} \, dx = \pi$ .

**SOLUTION** By symmetry

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+x^2}} \, dx = 2 \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+x^2}} \, dx$$

Now we make the substitution  $u = x\sqrt{2}$  so that  $du = \sqrt{2} \, dx$ . The limits in the integral remain the same, so we have

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+x^2}} \, dx = 2 \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+u^2/2}} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \, du \\ = \frac{2\sqrt{2}}{\sqrt{2}} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2+u^2}} \, du \\ = 2 \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2+u^2}} \, du$$

To get the last line we used the result of Example 13.4.1. ■

## Concepts Review

1. A point  $(x, y)$  in  $R$  has the  $n$ th power  $r^n$ .
2. The  $dy \, dx$  or  $dx \, dy$  integrals in Cartesian (rectangular) coordinates are equivalent to the  $r \, dr \, d\theta$  or  $d\theta \, dr$  integrals in polar coordinates.

3. The integral  $\iint_R r \, dr \, d\theta = \frac{\pi}{4}$  if  $R$  is the sector of a circle of radius 1 in the first quadrant.

where  $\theta$  is the angle measured from the  $x$ -axis. The value of the integral in polar coordinates is  $\frac{\pi}{4}$ .

4. The value of the integral in Question 3 is  $\frac{\pi}{4}$ .

## Problem Set 13.4

**16 Problems** 1–16 Evaluate the iterated integrals.

1.  $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 (x+y) \, dy \, dx$
2.  $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 (x^2 + y^2) \, dy \, dx$
3.  $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 (x^2 + y^2) \, dx \, dy$
4.  $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 (x^2 + y^2) \, dx \, dy$
5.  $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 (x^2 + y^2) \, dy \, dx$
6.  $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 (x^2 + y^2) \, dx \, dy$

**17 Problems** 17–20 Find the area of the given region  $R$  by calculating the double integral  $\iint_R 1 \, dA$  in polar coordinates.

17.  $R$  is the region inside the circle  $r = 4 \cos \theta$  and outside the circle  $r = 2$ .
18.  $R$  is the smaller region bounded by  $\theta = \pi/6$  and  $\theta = 5\pi/6$  and  $r = 4 \cos \theta$ .

9.  $S$  is one leaf of the four-leaved rose  $r = 2 \cos 2\theta$ .  
 10.  $S$  is the region inside the cardioid  $r = 6 - 6 \sin \theta$ .  
 11.  $S$  is the region inside the larger loop of the limaçon  $r = 7 + 3 \sin \theta$ .  
 12.  $S$  is the region outside the circle  $r = 2$  and inside the lemniscate  $r = 4 \cos 2\theta$ .

In Problems 13–18, use iterated integrals in polar coordinates to evaluate. Sketch the region whose area is given by the iterated integral and evaluate the integral, thereby finding the area of the region.

13.  $\int_0^{\pi/4} \int_0^{2\cos\theta} r \, dr \, d\theta$       14.  $\int_0^{\pi/4} \int_0^{2\sin\theta} r \, dr \, d\theta$   
 15.  $\int_0^{\pi/4} \int_0^{2\cos\theta} r \, dr \, d\theta$       16.  $\int_0^{\pi/4} \int_0^{2\sin\theta} r \, dr \, d\theta$   
 17.  $\int_0^{\pi/4} \int_0^{2\cos\theta} r \, dr \, d\theta$       18.  $\int_0^{\pi/4} \int_0^{2\sin\theta} r \, dr \, d\theta$

In Problems 19–26, evaluate by using polar coordinates. Sketch the region of integration first.

19.  $\iint_D e^{x^2 + y^2} \, dA$ , where  $S$  is the region enclosed by  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$ .  
 20.  $\iint_D \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \, dA$ , where  $S$  is the first quadrant sector of the circle  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$  between  $y = 0$  and  $y = x$ .  
 21.  $\iint_D \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2} \, dA$ , where  $S$  is as in Problem 20.  
 22.  $\iint_D \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \, dA$ , where  $S$  is the first quadrant polar rectangle, outside  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$  and inside  $x^2 + y^2 = 9$ .  
 23.  $\int_0^1 \int_0^{\sqrt{1-x^2}} (1 - x^2 - y^2)^{3/2} \, dy \, dx$ .  
 24.  $\int_0^1 \int_0^{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \sin(x - y^2) \, dy \, dx$ .  
 25.  $\int_0^1 \int_0^{\sqrt{1-x^2}} x \, dy \, dx$ .  
 26.  $\int_0^1 \int_0^{\sqrt{1-x^2}} (x^2 + y^2) \, dy \, dx$ .

27. Find the volume of the solid in the first octant under the paraboloid  $z = x^2 + y^2$  and inside the cylinder  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$  (in rectangular coordinates).

28. Using polar coordinates, find the volume of the solid bounded above by  $2x^2 + 2y^2 + z = 4$  below by  $z = 0$  and laterally by  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$ .

29. Switch to rectangular coordinates and then evaluate

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^{\sqrt{1-x^2}} (x^2 + y^2) \, dy \, dx$$

30. Let  $V = \iint_D (1 - x^2 - y^2) \, dA$  and  $W =$

$$\iint_D \ln \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \, dA, \text{ where } S \text{ is the region inside the circle } x^2 + y^2 = 4.$$

(a) Without calculation, determine the sign of  $V$ .

(b) Evaluate  $V$ . (c) Evaluate  $W$ .

31. The centers of two spheres of radius  $a$  are  $2a$  units apart with  $b \leq a$ . Find the volume of their intersection in terms of  $a$  and  $b$ .

32. The depth (in feet) of water distributed by a rotating lawn sprinkler is  $h \sin \theta$  hours, where  $h$  is the distance from the sprinkler and  $\theta$  is a constant. Determine  $h$  if 100 cubic feet of water is distributed in 1 hour.

33. Find the volume of the solid cut from the sphere  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = a^2$  by the cylinder  $x^2 + y^2 = a \sin \theta$ .

34. Find the volume of the wooden cap from a right circular cylinder of radius  $a$  by a plane through a diameter of its base and making an angle  $\theta$  ( $0 < \theta < \pi/2$ ) with the base. (Compare Problem 33.)

35. Consider the cap  $A$  of height  $2a \sin \theta$  in a sphere of radius  $a$  when a hole of radius  $a \cos \theta$  is bored through the center of the sphere (Figure 12). Show that the volume of  $A$  is  $4\pi a^3 \sin^3 \theta$ , which is remarkable for two reasons: It is independent of the radius  $a$ , and it is the same as the volume of a sphere of radius  $a \sin \theta$ .



36. There is a simple explanation for the remarkable result in Problem 35. Show that a horizontal plane that intersects the cap in Figure 12 and a sphere of radius  $a \sin \theta$  held to it will intersect in equal areas. Then apply Cavalieri's Principle for volume. (See Problem 46 in Section 6.2.)

37. Show that

$$\int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^{\pi/2} \frac{1}{(1 + x^2 + y^2)^{3/2}} \, dx \, dy = \frac{\pi}{2}$$

38. Recall the formula for the area of a sector of a circle of radius  $r$  and central angle  $\theta$  radians (Section 9.2). Use this to obtain the formula

$$A = \frac{r^2}{2} (\theta_2 - \theta_1) \quad \text{for } \theta_1 \leq \theta \leq \theta_2$$

for the area of the polar rectangle (Figure 13):  $A = \frac{r^2}{2} (\theta_2 - \theta_1)$  for  $\theta_1 \leq \theta \leq \theta_2$ .

39. Show that

$$\int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^{\pi/2} \frac{1}{(1 + x^2 + y^2)^{3/2}} \, dx \, dy = \frac{\pi}{2}$$

for all  $\mu$  and for all  $\mu > 0$ . Hint: Use the result of Example 5.

Answers to Concepts Review 1.  $a \leq r \leq b$ ,  $0 \leq \theta \leq 2\pi$

$$2. \int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^{\pi/2} r^2 \, dr \, d\theta = 4. \quad 3. \pi$$

### 13.5 Applications of Double Integrals

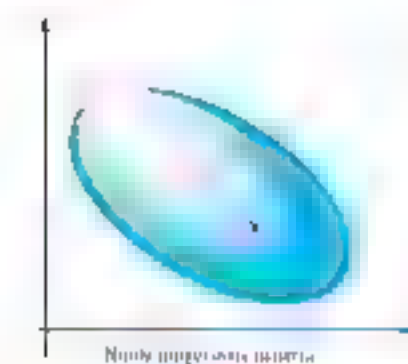


FIGURE 1

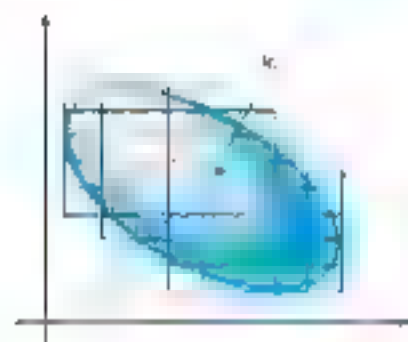


FIGURE 2

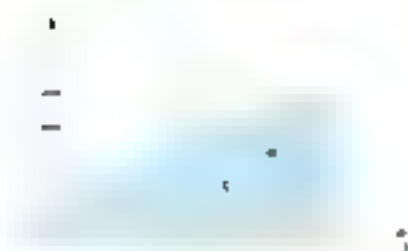


FIGURE 3

The most obvious application of double integrals is in calculating volumes of solids. This use of double integrals has been mentioned already, so now we turn to other applications: mass, center of mass, moments of inertia, and radius of gyration.

Consider a flat plate that is so thin that we may consider it to be two-dimensional. In Section 5.6, we called such a sheet a lamina, but there we considered only laminas of constant density. Here we wish to study laminas of variable density, that is, laminas made of inhomogeneous material (Figure 1).

Suppose that a lamina  $S$  is a region  $S$  in the  $xy$ -plane and that its density (mass per unit area) at  $(x, y)$  be denoted by  $\delta(x, y)$ . Partition  $S$  into  $n$  small rectangles  $R_1, R_2, \dots, R_n$  as shown in Figure 2. Pick a point  $(x_k, y_k)$  in  $R_k$ . Then the mass of  $R_k$  is approximately  $\delta(x_k, y_k)A(R_k)$  and the total mass of the lamina is approximately

$$m \approx \sum_{k=1}^n \delta(x_k, y_k)A(R_k).$$

The actual mass  $m$  is obtained by taking the limit of the above expression as the norm of the partition approaches zero, which, in our setting, yields (Equation 1)

$$m = \iint_S \delta(x, y) \, dA.$$

**EXAMPLE 1** A lamina with density  $\delta(x, y) = xy$  is bounded by the  $y$ -axis, the line  $x = 6$ , and the curve  $y = x^{-3}$  (Figure 3). Find its total mass.

**SOLUTION**

$$\begin{aligned} m &= \iint_S xy \, dA = \int_0^6 \int_0^{x^{-3}} xy \, dy \, dx \\ &= \int_0^6 \left[ \frac{xy^2}{2} \right]_0^{x^{-3}} dx = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^6 x^{-5} dx \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left[ -\frac{1}{4} x^{-4} \right]_0^6 = -\frac{268}{2} = -134. \end{aligned}$$

**REMARK 1** We suggest that you rereview the concept of center of mass from Section 5.6. There we learned that if  $m_1, m_2, \dots, m_n$  is a collection of point masses situated at  $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$ , respectively, then the total moments with respect to the  $y$ -axis and the  $x$ -axis are given by

$$M_y = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i m_i, \quad M_x = \sum_{i=1}^n y_i m_i.$$

Moreover, the coordinates  $(\bar{x}, \bar{y})$  of the center of mass balance them so that

$$\bar{x} = \frac{M_y}{m} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i m_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n m_i}, \quad \bar{y} = \frac{M_x}{m} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n y_i m_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n m_i}.$$

Consider now a lamina of variable density  $\delta(x, y)$  covering a region  $S$  in the  $xy$ -plane (see Figure 1). Partition the lamina (see Figure 2) and assume as an approximation that the mass of each  $R_k$  is concentrated at  $(x_k, y_k)$ ,  $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$ . Finally take the limit as the norm of the partition tends to zero. This leads to the formulas

$$\begin{aligned} M &= \iint_R \rho(x, y) \, dA & M &= \int_a^b \rho(y) \, dy \\ m &= \iint_R \delta(x, y) \, dA & m &= \int_a^b \delta(y) \, dy \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 3** Find the center of mass of the lamina of Example 2.

**SOLUTION** In Example 1 we showed that the mass  $m$  of this lamina is  $\frac{768}{5}$ . The moments  $M_x$  and  $M_y$  with respect to the  $y$ -axis and  $x$ -axis are

$$\begin{aligned} M_x &= \iint_R x \delta(x, y) \, dA = \int_0^3 \int_0^{1-x} x^2 y \, dy \, dx \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^3 x^2 y^2 \, dx = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1}{3} x^3 y^2 \right) \bigg|_0^{1-x} = \frac{1}{6} (1-x)^2 x^3 \\ M_y &= \iint_R y \delta(x, y) \, dA = \int_0^1 \int_0^{1-x} y^2 \, dx \, dy \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^1 y^2 \, dy = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1}{3} y^3 \right) \bigg|_0^1 = \frac{1}{6} \end{aligned}$$

We conclude that

$$\bar{x} = \frac{M_y}{m} = \frac{m}{13} = \frac{6}{13} \approx .462 \quad \bar{y} = \frac{M_x}{m} = \frac{20}{9} \approx 2.22$$

Notice in Figure 3 that the center of mass  $(\bar{x}, \bar{y})$  is on the upper right portion of the lamina, as to be expected, since the density is higher the further the point is from the  $x$ - and  $y$ -axes.  $\blacksquare$

**EXAMPLE 4** Find the center of mass of a lamina in the shape of a quarter-circle of radius  $a$  whose density is proportional to the distance from the center of the circle (Figure 4).

**SOLUTION** By assumption,  $\rho(x, y) = k\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ , where  $k$  is a constant. The shape of  $S$  suggests the use of polar coordinates.

$$\begin{aligned} m &= \iint_R k\sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \, dA = k \int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^a r^2 \, dr \, d\theta \\ &= k \int_0^{\pi/2} \left( \frac{r^3}{3} \right) \bigg|_0^a d\theta = \frac{k\pi a^3}{6} \end{aligned}$$

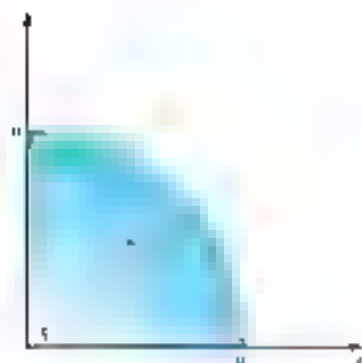
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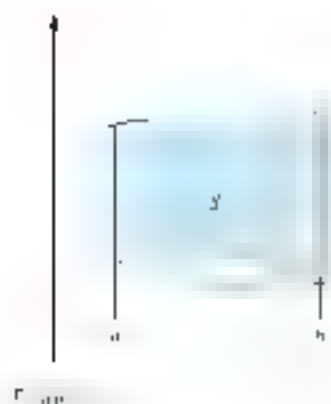
$$\begin{aligned} M_y &= \iint_R x\sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \, dA = k \int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^a r^2 \cos \theta \, dr \, d\theta \\ &= k \int_0^{\pi/2} \left( \frac{r^3}{3} \right) \cos \theta \, d\theta = \left[ \frac{k a^3}{3} \sin \theta \right]_0^{\pi/2} = \frac{k a^3}{3} \end{aligned}$$

We conclude that

$$\bar{x} = \frac{M_y}{m} = \frac{a/3}{k\pi a^3/6} = \frac{2}{\pi}$$

Because of the symmetry of the lamina, we recognize that  $\bar{y} = \bar{x}$ , so no further calculation is needed.  $\blacksquare$





A perceptive reader might well ask a question at this point: What if a lamina is nonhomogeneous, that is, what if  $\delta(x, y, z) \neq \text{constant}$ ? While the formula derived in this section which involves double integrals applies with no modification, which involves only a single integral. The answer is yes. To give a partial justification, consider calculating  $M_y$  for a  $y$ -simple region  $S$  (Figure 6.6).

$$M_y = \iint_S x\delta(x, y) \, dA = \delta \int_a^b \int_0^{f(x)} x \, dy \, dx = \delta \int_a^b x[f(x) - 0] \, dx = \delta \int_a^b xf(x) \, dx$$

The single integral on the right is the one given in Section 5.6.

**Example 6.6.1** From physics we learn that the kinetic energy  $KE$  of a particle of mass  $m$  and velocity  $v$ , moving in a straight line, is

$$(1) \quad KE = \frac{1}{2}mv^2$$

If instead of moving in a straight line, the particle rotates about an axis with an angular velocity of  $\omega$  radians per unit of time, then its velocity is  $v = r\omega$ , where  $r$  is the radius of its circular path. When we substitute this in (1), we obtain

$$KE = \frac{1}{2}(r^2m)\omega^2$$

The expression in parentheses is called the **moment of inertia** of the particle and is denoted by  $I$ . Thus, for a rotating particle,

$$(2) \quad KE = \frac{1}{2}I\omega^2$$

We conclude from (1) and (2) that the moment of inertia of a body of mass  $m$  rotating plays a role similar to the mass of a body in linear motion.

For a system of  $n$  particles in a plane with masses  $m_1, m_2, \dots, m_n$  and distances  $r_1, r_2, \dots, r_n$  from a line  $l$ , the moment of inertia of the system about  $l$  is defined to be

$$I = m_1r_1^2 + m_2r_2^2 + \cdots + m_nr_n^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n m_i r_i^2$$

In other words, we take the moment of inertia of the individual particles.

Now consider a lamina with density  $\delta$  occupying the region  $S$  of the  $xy$ -plane (Figure 6.7). If we treat mass  $\delta \, dA$  as its minute “lump,” estimate the moments of each piece  $\delta \, dA$  and take the total. We are now in a familiar way going to obtain the **moments of inertia** (also called the **second moments**) of the lamina about the  $y$ - and  $x$ -axes are given by

$$I_y = \iint_S x^2 \delta(x, y) \, dA, \quad I_x = \iint_S y^2 \delta(x, y) \, dA$$

$$I_z = \iint_S (x^2 + y^2) \delta(x, y) \, dA, \quad I_z = I_x + I_y$$

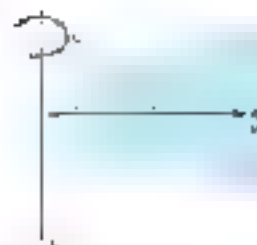
**EXAMPLE 6.6.2** Find the moments of inertia about the  $y$ - and  $z$ -axes of the lamina of Example 6.6.1.

**SOLUTION**

$$I_y = \iint_S x^2 \delta(x, y) \, dA = \int_0^1 \int_0^1 x^2 \delta(x, y) \, dy \, dx = \delta \int_0^1 x^2 \left( \int_0^1 dy \right) dx = \frac{\delta}{3} x^3 \Big|_0^1 = \frac{\delta}{3}$$

$$I_x = \iint_S y^2 \delta(x, y) \, dA = \int_0^1 \int_0^1 y^2 \delta(x, y) \, dx \, dy = \delta \int_0^1 y^2 \left( \int_0^1 dx \right) dy = \frac{\delta}{3}$$

$$I_z = I_x + I_y = \frac{2\delta}{3} = \frac{2}{3} \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m}^2$$



Consider the problem of replacing a general mass system of total mass  $M$  by a single point mass  $m$  at the same moment of inertia  $I$  with respect to the line  $\ell$  (Figure 6). How far should this point be from  $\ell$ ? The answer is  $r$ , where  $mr^2 = I$ . The number

$$r = \sqrt{\frac{I}{m}}$$

is called the **radius of gyration** of the system. Thus, the kinetic energy of the system rotating about  $\ell$  with angular velocity  $\omega$  is

$$KE = \frac{1}{2}m\bar{r}^2\omega^2$$

## Concepts Review

1. If the density at  $(x, y)$  is  $x^2y^2$ , then the mass  $m$  of the lamina  $S$  is given by  $m =$  \_\_\_\_\_.
2. The y-coordinate of the center of mass of the lamina of Example 1 is given by  $\bar{y} =$  \_\_\_\_\_.

3. The moment of inertia with respect to the  $y$ -axis of the lamina  $S$  of Question 1 is given by  $I_y =$  \_\_\_\_\_.

4. If  $S = \{(x, y) : 0 \leq x \leq 1, 0 \leq y \leq 1\}$ , then geometrically we get  $\bar{x} = \bar{y} =$  \_\_\_\_\_,  $I_x =$  \_\_\_\_\_,  $I_y =$  \_\_\_\_\_,  $I_{xy} =$  \_\_\_\_\_, and  $I =$  \_\_\_\_\_.

## Problem Set 13.5

In Problems 1–10, find the mass  $m$  and center of mass  $(\bar{x}, \bar{y})$  of the lamina bounded by the given curves and with the indicated density.

1.  $y = \sqrt{x}$ ,  $x = 0$ ,  $x = 1$ ,  $y = 0$ ;  $\delta(x, y) = 1$
2.  $y = \sqrt{x}$ ,  $x = 0$ ,  $x = 1$ ,  $y = 0$ ;  $\delta(x, y) = x$
3.  $y = \sqrt{x}$ ,  $x = 0$ ,  $x = 1$ ,  $y = 0$ ;  $\delta(x, y) = y$
4.  $y = \sqrt{x}$ ,  $x = 0$ ,  $x = 1$ ,  $y = 0$ ;  $\delta(x, y) = x + y$
5.  $y = \sqrt{x}$ ,  $x = 0$ ,  $x = 1$ ,  $y = 0$ ;  $\delta(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$
6.  $y = \sqrt{x}$ ,  $x = 0$ ,  $x = 1$ ,  $y = 0$ ;  $\delta(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$
7.  $y = \sin x$ ,  $x = 0$ ,  $x = \pi$ ,  $y = 0$ ;  $\delta(x, y) = 1$
8.  $y = \sin x$ ,  $x = 0$ ,  $x = \pi$ ,  $y = 0$ ;  $\delta(x, y) = 1$
9.  $y = \sin x$ ,  $x = 0$ ,  $x = \pi$ ,  $y = 0$ ;  $\delta(x, y) = 1$
10.  $y = \sin x$ ,  $x = 0$ ,  $x = \pi$ ,  $y = 0$ ;  $\delta(x, y) = 1$

In Problems 11–14, find the moments of inertia  $I_x$ ,  $I_y$ , and  $I_{xy}$  for the lamina bounded by the given curves and with the indicated density  $\delta$ .

11.  $y = \sqrt{x}$ ,  $x = 0$ ,  $x = 1$ ,  $y = 0$ ;  $\delta(x, y) = x + y$
12.  $y = \sqrt{x}$ ,  $x = 0$ ,  $x = 1$ ,  $y = 0$ ;  $\delta(x, y) = x + y$
13. Square with vertices  $(0, 0)$ ,  $(1, 0)$ ,  $(1, 1)$ ,  $(0, 1)$ ;  $\delta(x, y) = x + y$
14. Triangle with vertices  $(0, 0)$ ,  $(1, 0)$ ,  $(0, 1)$ ;  $\delta(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$

In Problems 15–20, if an iterated integral is given either in rectangular or polar coordinates, the double integral gives the mass of some lamina  $R$ . Sketch the lamina  $R$  and determine the density  $\delta$ . Then find the mass and center of mass.

15.  $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 k \, dy \, dx$
16.  $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 k \, dy \, dx$
17.  $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 k \, dy \, dx$
18.  $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 k \, dy \, dx$
19.  $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 k \, dy \, dx$
20.  $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 k \, dy \, dx$

21. Find the radius of gyration of the lamina of Problem 3 with respect to the  $x$ -axis.

22. Find the radius of gyration of the lamina of Problem 4 with respect to the  $y$ -axis.

23. Find the moment of inertia and radius of gyration of a homogeneous (of a constant) circular lamina of radius  $a$  with the  $y$ -axis as axis of rotation.

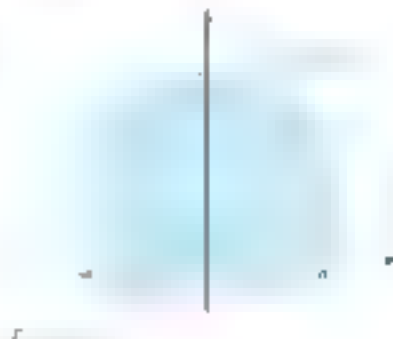
24. Show that the moment of inertia of a homogeneous rectangular lamina with sides of length  $a$  and  $b$  about a perpendicular axis through its center of mass is

$$I = \frac{1}{12}ma^2b + \frac{1}{12}mb^3$$

Here  $k$  is the constant density.

25. Find the moment of inertia of the lamina of Problem 3 about a line tangent to its boundary. *Hint:* Let the circle be  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$  and let the lamina lie in the  $xy$ -plane. Formula 13 in the back of the book may help with the integration.

26. Consider the lamina  $S$  of constant density  $k$  bounded by the cardioid  $r = a(1 + \sin \theta)$ , as shown in Figure 7. Find its center of mass and moments of inertia with respect to the  $x$ -axis. *Hint:* Problem 7 of Section 10.2 suggests the useful fact that  $S$  has a line of symmetry. Formula 13 in the back of the book may prove helpful.



27. Find the center of mass of that part of the circular disk of Problem 26 that is outside the circle  $x = a$ .

28. **Parallel Axis Theorem** Consider a lamina  $S$  of mass  $m$  together with parallel lines  $L$  and  $L'$  in the plane of  $S$ , the line  $L$  passing through the center of mass of  $S$ . Show that if  $I$  and  $I'$  are the moments of inertia of  $S$  about  $L$  and  $L'$  respectively then  $I' = I + d^2m$ , where  $d$  is the distance between  $L$  and  $L'$ . *Hint:* Assume that  $S$  lies in the  $xy$ -plane,  $L$  is the  $y$ -axis, and  $L'$  is the line  $x = a$ .

29. Refer to the lamina of Problems 13 for which we found  $I = 50$ . Find

- (a)  $m$  (b)  $\bar{x}$  (c)  $\bar{y}$

where  $L$  is a line through  $(\bar{x}, \bar{y})$  parallel to the  $x$ -axis (see Problem 28).

30. Use the Parallel Axis Theorem together with Problem 29 to solve Problem 25 another way.

31. Find  $I_x$ ,  $I_y$ , and  $I_0$  for the two-piece lamina of constant density  $\delta$  shown in Figure 8 (see Problems 23 and 29).



Figure 8

32. The Parallel Axis Theorem also holds for lines that are perpendicular in a lamina. Use this fact to find the moment of

inertia of the rectangular lamina of Problem 24 about an axis perpendicular to the lamina and through a corner.

33. Let  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  be disjoint laminae in the  $xy$ -plane of mass  $m_1$  and  $m_2$ , with centers of mass  $(\bar{x}_1, \bar{y}_1)$  and  $(\bar{x}_2, \bar{y}_2)$ . Show that the center of mass  $(\bar{x}, \bar{y})$  of the combined lamina  $S = S_1 \cup S_2$  satisfies

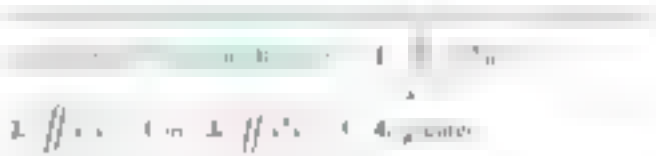
$$\bar{x} = \frac{m_1 \bar{x}_1 + m_2 \bar{x}_2}{m_1 + m_2} \quad \bar{y} = \frac{m_1 \bar{y}_1 + m_2 \bar{y}_2}{m_1 + m_2}$$

with a similar formula for  $\bar{y}$ . Conclude that in finding  $(\bar{x}, \bar{y})$  the two laminae can be treated as if they were point masses at  $(\bar{x}_1, \bar{y}_1)$  and  $(\bar{x}_2, \bar{y}_2)$ .

34. Let  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  be the homogeneous circular laminae of radii  $a$  and  $b$ ,  $a < b$ , centered at  $(a, 0)$  and  $(0, 0)$ , respectively (see Problem 29), and the center of mass is  $(\bar{x}, \bar{y})$ .

35. Let  $S$  be a lamina in the  $xy$ -plane with center of mass at the origin, and let  $L$  be the line  $ax + by = 0$ , which passes through the origin. Show that the signed distance  $d$  of a point  $(x, y)$  from  $L$  is  $d = (ax + by)/\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$  and use this to conclude that the moment of  $S$  with respect to  $L$  is 0. *Note:* This shows that a lamina will balance on any line through its center of mass.

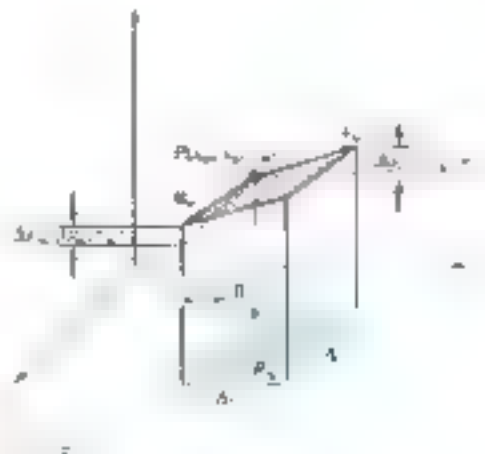
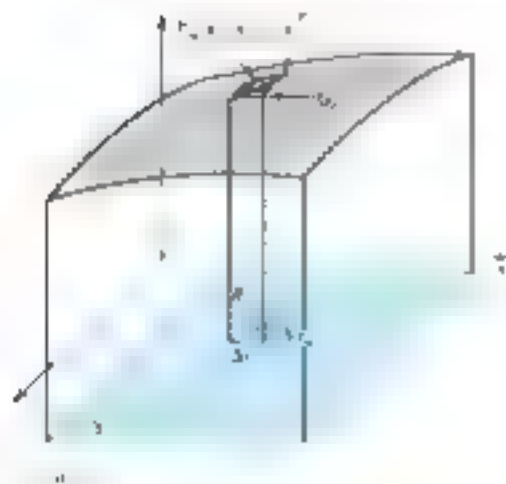
36. For the lamina of Example 3, find the equation of the balancing line that makes an angle of  $135^\circ$  with the positive  $x$ -axis (see Problem 34). Write your answer in the form  $Ax + By = C$ .



## 13.6 Surface Area

We have seen some applications of surface area. For example, in Example 1 of Section 13.4 we found the area of a pyramid in space. We have also seen the theorem proved in Section 5.4 that the surface area of a sphere is  $4\pi r^2$ . This section will develop a formula for the area of a surface defined by  $z = f(x, y)$  over a specified region.

Suppose that  $z = f(x, y)$  is a surface over the region  $R$  in the  $xy$ -plane. Assume that  $f$  has continuous first partial derivatives on  $R$ . We begin by creating a partition  $P$  of the region  $R$  by choosing a grid  $\Delta x, \Delta y$  (see Figure 1). Let  $R_m$ ,  $m = 1, 2, \dots, n$ , denote the resulting rectangles that completely cover  $R$ . For each  $m$ , let  $C_m$  be that part of the surface that projects onto  $R_m$  and



let  $P$  be the point of  $C_m$  that projects onto the corner of  $R_m$  with the smallest  $x$ - and  $y$ -coordinates. Finally let  $T_m$  denote the parallelogram from the tangent plane at  $P_m$  that projects onto  $R_m$ , as shown in Figure 1, and then in more detail in Figure 2.

We next find the area of the parallelogram  $T$ , whose projection is  $R_m$ . Let  $\mathbf{u}_m$  and  $\mathbf{v}_m$  denote the vectors that form the sides of  $T_m$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{u}_m &= \Delta x_m \mathbf{i} + f_x(x_m, y_m) \Delta x_m \mathbf{j} \\ \mathbf{v}_m &= \Delta y_m \mathbf{j} + f_y(x_m, y_m) \Delta y_m \mathbf{k}\end{aligned}$$

From Section 12.6 we know that the area of the parallelogram  $T$  is  $|\mathbf{u}_m \times \mathbf{v}_m|$ , where

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{u}_m \times \mathbf{v}_m &= \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ \Delta x_m & 0 & f_x(x_m, y_m) \Delta x_m \\ 0 & \Delta y_m & f_y(x_m, y_m) \Delta y_m \end{vmatrix} \\ &= (0 - f_y(x_m, y_m) \Delta x_m \Delta y_m) \mathbf{i} - (f_x(x_m, y_m) \Delta x_m \Delta y_m - 0) \mathbf{j} \\ &\quad - (\Delta x_m \Delta y_m - 0) \mathbf{k} \\ &= \Delta x_m \Delta y_m [-f_y(x_m, y_m) \mathbf{i} - f_x(x_m, y_m) \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}] \\ &= A(R_m) [-f_y(x_m, y_m) \mathbf{i} - f_x(x_m, y_m) \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}]\end{aligned}$$

The area of  $T_m$  is therefore

$$A(T_m) = |\mathbf{u}_m \times \mathbf{v}_m| = A(R_m) \sqrt{[f_x(x_m, y_m)]^2 + [f_y(x_m, y_m)]^2 + 1}.$$

We then add the areas of the  $n$  tangent parallelograms  $A(T_m) \approx \Delta A_m$  and take the limit to arrive at the surface area of  $S$ :

$$\begin{aligned}A(S) &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{m=1}^n A(T_m) \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{m=1}^n \sqrt{[f_x(x_m, y_m)]^2 + [f_y(x_m, y_m)]^2 + 1} \Delta A_m \\ &= \iint_D \sqrt{[f_x(x, y)]^2 + [f_y(x, y)]^2 + 1} \, dA\end{aligned}$$

or, more compactly,

$$A(S) = \iint_D \sqrt{f_x^2 + f_y^2 + 1} \, dA.$$

In the next chapter, and the section  $\Delta$  in this one, we will see that  $S$  need not be the case. Figure 3 shows what happens when  $S$  is not a rectangle.

**EXAMPLE 1** Find the area of the part of the cylinder  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$  that projects onto  $\Delta$  (Figure 4).

**SOLUTION** Let  $f(x, y) = \sqrt{4 - x^2}$ . Then  $f_x = -x/\sqrt{4 - x^2}$ ,  $f_y = 0$ , and

$$\begin{aligned}A(S) &= \iint_D \sqrt{f_x^2 + f_y^2 + 1} \, dA = \iint_D \sqrt{\frac{x^2}{4 - x^2} + 1} \, dA = \iint_D \frac{2}{\sqrt{4 - x^2}} \, dA \\ &= \int_0^1 \int_{-\sqrt{4 - x^2}}^{\sqrt{4 - x^2}} \frac{2}{\sqrt{4 - x^2}} \, dy \, dx = 4 \int_0^1 \sqrt{4 - x^2} \, dx = 4 \left[ x \sqrt{4 - x^2} + 2 \sin^{-1} \frac{x}{2} \right]_0^1 = 2\pi.\end{aligned}$$

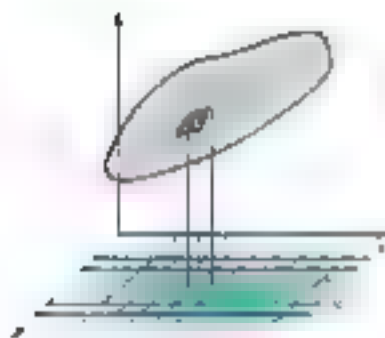


FIGURE 1

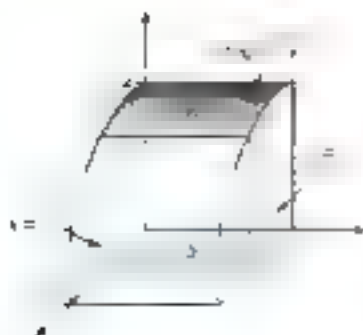
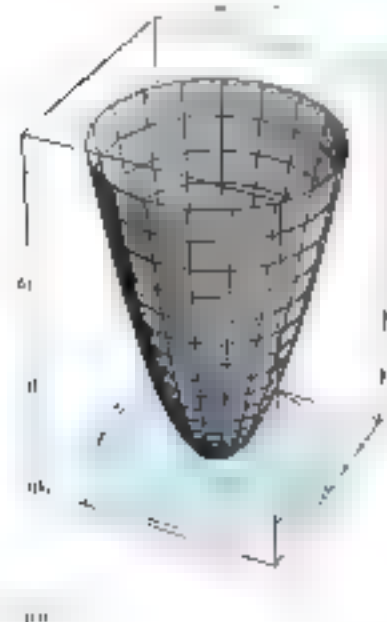


FIGURE 3

FIGURE 4





**EXAMPLE 6** Find the area of the surface  $z = 9 - 4x^2 - 4y^2$ .

*Answer:* See Figure 7.

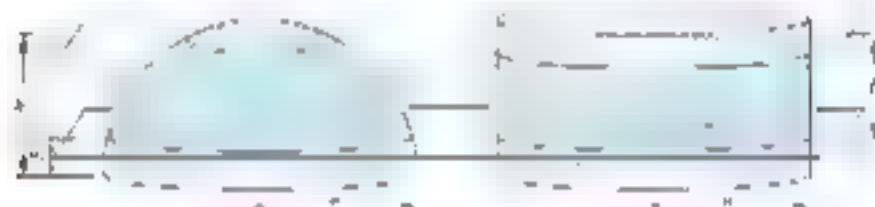
**SOLUTION** The downward part of the surface projects into the  $xy$ -plane onto the disk  $x^2 + y^2 \leq 9$  (Figure 7). Let  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$ . Then  $\nabla f = \langle 2x, 2y, 0 \rangle$ , so

$$A(G) = \iint_D \sqrt{4x^2 + 4y^2 + 1} \, dA$$

The shape of  $D$  suggests use of polar coordinates.

$$\begin{aligned} A(G) &= \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^3 \sqrt{4r^2 + 1} \, r \, dr \, d\theta \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{1}{6} \left[ \frac{2}{3} (4r^2 + 1)^{3/2} \right]_0^3 d\theta \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{1}{12} (37^{3/2} - 1) \, d\theta = \frac{\pi}{6} (37^{3/2} - 1) \approx 113.32 \end{aligned}$$

A solid circular cylinder with height equal to  $\pi a^2$  and an inscribed sphere have the remarkable property that the surface areas of the cylinder and sphere are equal. The next example demonstrates this property for a general cylinder, showing that the surface areas of the cylinder and sphere are equal. The steps next are used to show the property holds for a sphere.



**EXAMPLE 7** Show that the area of the surface  $z = \sqrt{a^2 - x^2 - y^2}$  of the hemisphere  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = a^2$ ,  $z \geq 0$ , is the same as the area of the cylinder  $x^2 + y^2 = a^2$  between the planes  $z = h_1$  and  $z = h_2$  ( $0 < h_1 < h_2 < a$ ) in

$$A(G) = 2\pi a(h_2 - h_1).$$

**SOLUTION** Let  $G$  be also the surface area on the right circular cylinder  $x^2 + y^2 = a^2$  between the planes  $z = h_1$  and  $z = h_2$ .

**SOLUTION** Let  $h = h_2 - h_1$ . The surface of the hemisphere is defined by

$$z = \sqrt{a^2 - x^2 - y^2}$$

and its projection  $D$  in the  $xy$ -plane is the annulus  $h_1 \leq x^2 + y^2 \leq a^2$ , where  $\sqrt{a^2 - x^2 - y^2} = h_2$  and  $\sqrt{a^2 - x^2 - y^2} = h_1$  (see Figure 7). The surface area of the hemisphere between the two horizontal planes is

$$\begin{aligned} A(G) &= \iint_D \sqrt{a^2 - x^2 - y^2} \, dA = \iint_D \sqrt{a^2 - x^2 - y^2} \, dA \\ &= \iint_D \sqrt{a^2 - x^2 - y^2} \, dA = \iint_D \sqrt{a^2 - x^2 - y^2} \, dA \\ &= \iint_D \sqrt{a^2 - x^2 - y^2} \, dA \end{aligned}$$



This last integral is too complicated to evaluate using the Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, so we rely on a numerical method. The Parabolic Rule with  $n = 100$  gives an approximation of 4.8363 to this last integral. (Large values of  $n$  give virtually the same approximation.)

In this last example, we were able to evaluate the inner integral by finding an antiderivative and applying the Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus. Then at the end, a numerical approximation was needed to evaluate the integral. Although the lack of numerical methods for approximating double integrals, they are rather cumbersome to use and require evaluations of the function at a large number of points. It is always advantageous to evaluate the inner integral, if this is possible, in order to leave a single integral to be approximated.

## Concepts Review

1. The area of a rectangle with vertices  $(-1, 0)$ ,  $(1, 0)$ ,  $(1, 2)$ , and  $(-1, 2)$  is  $\underline{\hspace{1cm}}$ .
2. More generally, if  $r = f(x, y)$  determines a surface  $z = f(x, y)$  that projects onto the region  $S$  in the  $xy$ -plane, then the area of  $S$  is given by the formula  $\underline{\hspace{1cm}}$ .
3. Applying the cross product  $\underline{\hspace{1cm}}$  with  $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j}$  yields the vector  $\underline{\hspace{1cm}}$ .

is the area of a triangle with vertices  $(0, 0)$ . When the integral is evaluated, we get an area of  $\underline{\hspace{1cm}}$ .

4. Consider a sphere centered in a cylindrical pipe of radius  $a$ . Two planes, both perpendicular to the axis of the cylinder and parallel to each other, intersect the sphere in two circles and the sphere that have area  $\underline{\hspace{1cm}}$ .

## Problem Set 13.6

In Problems 1–12, find the area of the indicated surface. Use a calculator each time.

1. The part of the plane  $3x + 2y + 6z = 12$  that is bounded by the planes  $x = 0$ ,  $y = 0$ , and  $3x + 2z = 12$ .
2. The part of the surface  $z = \sqrt{y}$  that is directly above the square in the  $xy$ -plane with vertices  $(0, 0)$ ,  $(1, 0)$ ,  $(1, 1)$ , and  $(0, 1)$ .
3. The part of the surface  $z = \sqrt{4 - y^2}$  in the first octant that is directly above the arc  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$  in the  $xy$ -plane.
4. The part of the surface  $z = \sqrt{4 - y^2}$  in the first octant that is directly above the arc  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$  in the  $xy$ -plane.
5. The part of the surface  $z = \sqrt{4 - y^2}$  in the first octant that is directly above the rectangle in the  $xy$ -plane with vertices  $(0, 0)$ ,  $(2, 0)$ ,  $(2, 1)$ , and  $(0, 1)$ .
6. The part of the paraboloid  $z = x^2 + y^2$  that is cut off by the plane  $z = 4$ .
7. The part of the conical surface  $x^2 + y^2 = z$  that is directly over the triangle in the  $xy$ -plane with vertices  $(0, 0)$ ,  $(4, 0)$ , and  $(0, 4)$ .
8. The part of the surface  $z = x^2 + 4$  that is cut off by the plane  $z = 8$ .
9. The part of the sphere  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = a^2$  inside the circular cylinder  $x^2 + y^2 = b^2$  where  $a > b > 0$ .
10. The part of the sphere  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = a^2$  inside the elliptical cylinder  $\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$  where  $a > b > 0$ .
11. The part of the sphere  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = a^2$  inside the elliptical cylinder  $\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$  where  $a > b > 0$ .

12. The part of the cylinder  $x^2 + y^2 = ay$  inside the sphere  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 0$ . *Hint: Project to the  $xy$ -plane to get the region of integration.*

13. The part of the saddle  $az = 4 - x^2 - y^2$  inside the cylinder  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$ .
14. The surface of the water that is the inner surface of two solid cylinders  $x^2 + y^2 = a^2$  and  $x^2 + y^2 = b^2$  where  $a > b > 0$ . *Hint: You can use the formula for the area of a surface  $z = f(x, y)$  in the  $xy$ -plane.*
15. The part of  $z = 4 - x^2 - y^2$  above the plane  $z = 0$ .
16. The part of the surface  $z = 4 - x^2 - y^2$  above the plane  $z = 0$ .
17. The part of the plane  $Ax + By + Cz = 1$  where  $A, B, C$  are all positive constants in the first octant.
18. Figure 8 shows the Engineering Building at Southern Illinois University Edwardsville. The spiral staircase visible in the



middle of the photo is in the shape of a right circular cylinder with diameter 36 feet. The roof is slanted at a 45-degree angle. What is the surface area of the roof?

**Problems 19–21** are related to Example 3.

19. Consider that part of the sphere  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = a^2$  between the planes  $z = h_1$  and  $z = h_2$ , where  $0 \leq h_1 < h_2 \leq a$ . Find that value of  $h$  such that the plane  $z = h$  cuts the surface into half.

20. Show that the polar cap (Figure 7) on a sphere of radius  $a$  determined by the spherical angle  $\phi$  has area  $2\pi a^2 \sin \phi$ .

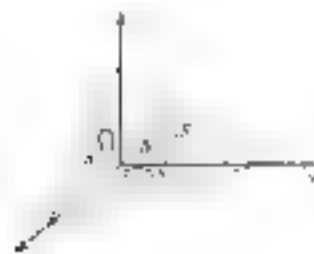


21. Another Old Lion Problem (see Problem Set 10.7) Two goats have grazing areas  $A$ ,  $B$ ,  $C$ , and  $D$ , respectively. The first three goats are each tethered by ropes of length  $b$ , the first on a flat plane, the second on the outside of a sphere of radius  $a$ , and the third on the inside of a sphere of radius  $a$ . The fourth goat must stay inside a flag of radius  $b$  that has been dropped over a sphere of radius  $a$ . Determine formulas for  $A$ ,  $B$ ,  $C$ , and  $D$  and arrange them in order of size. Assume that  $b < a$ .

22. Let  $S$  be a planar region in three space, and let  $S_x$ ,  $S_y$ , and  $S_z$  be the projections on the three coordinate planes (Figure 10). Show that

$$[A(S)]^2 = [A(S_x)]^2 + [A(S_y)]^2 + [A(S_z)]^2$$

23. Assume that the region  $S$  of Figure 10 lies in the plane  $z = f(x, y) = ax + by + c$  and that  $S$  is above the  $xy$ -plane. Show that the volume of the solid cylinder under  $S$  is  $A(S)/\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$ , where  $A(S)$  is the centroid of  $S$ .



24. Joe's house has a rectangular base with a gable roof and Alex's house has the same base with a pyramid-type roof (see Figure 11). The slopes of all parts of both roofs are the same. Whose roof has the smaller area?

25. Show that the surface area of a nonvertical plane over a region  $S$  in the  $xy$ -plane is  $A(S)\sec \gamma$  where  $\gamma$  is the acute angle between a normal vector to the plane and the positive  $z$ -axis.

26. Let  $\gamma = \gamma(x, y, f(x, y))$  be the acute angle between the  $z$ -axis and a normal vector to the surface  $z = f(x, y)$  at the point  $(x, y, f(x, y))$  on the surface. Show that  $\sec \gamma = \sqrt{f_x^2 + f_y^2}$ . (Note that this gives another formula for surface area:  $A(S) = \iint_S \sec \gamma \, dA$ .)

$$\iint_S \sec \gamma \, dA$$

In Problems 27–30, find the surface area of the given surface. If an integral cannot be evaluated using the Surface Parametric Theorem of Calculus, then use the Absolute Rule with  $n = \dots$ .

27. The paraboloid  $z = x^2 + y^2$  over the region

(a) in the first quadrant and inside the circle  $x^2 + y^2 = 9$

(b) inside the triangle with vertices  $(0, 0)$ ,  $(3, 0)$ ,  $(0, 3)$

28. The hyperbolic paraboloid  $z = y^2 - x^2$  over the region

(a) in the first quadrant and inside the circle  $x^2 + y^2 = 9$

(b) inside the triangle with vertices  $(0, 0)$ ,  $(3, 0)$ ,  $(0, 3)$

29. Six surfaces are given below. Without performing any integration, rank the surfaces in order of their surface area from smallest to largest. (Note: There may be some "ties.")

(a) The paraboloid  $z = x^2 + y^2$  over the region in the first quadrant and inside the circle  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$

(b) The hyperbolic paraboloid  $z = x^2 - y^2$  over the region in the first quadrant and inside the circle  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$

(c) The paraboloid  $z = x^2 + y^2$  over the region inside the rectangle with vertices  $(0, 0)$ ,  $(1, 0)$ ,  $(1, 1)$ , and  $(0, 1)$

(d) The hyperbolic paraboloid  $z = x^2 - y^2$  over the region inside the rectangle with vertices  $(0, 0)$ ,  $(1, 0)$ ,  $(1, 1)$ , and  $(0, 1)$

(e) The paraboloid  $z = x^2 + y^2$  over the region inside the triangle with vertices  $(0, 0)$ ,  $(1, 0)$ , and  $(0, 1)$

(f) The hyperbolic paraboloid  $z = x^2 - y^2$  over the region inside the triangle with vertices  $(0, 0)$ ,  $(1, 0)$ , and  $(0, 1)$

$$2. \iint_S \sqrt{1 + 4x^2 + 9y^2} \, dA$$

$$2. \iint_S \sqrt{1 + 4x^2 + 9y^2} \, dA$$

$$2. \int_0^1 \int_{\sqrt{x^2-1}}^{\sqrt{1-x^2}} (x) \sqrt{x^2 - z^2 - y^2} \, dy \, dx =$$

$$\int_0^1 \left[ -\frac{1}{2} (x^2 - z^2 - y^2)^{1/2} \right]_{\sqrt{x^2-1}}^{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx =$$

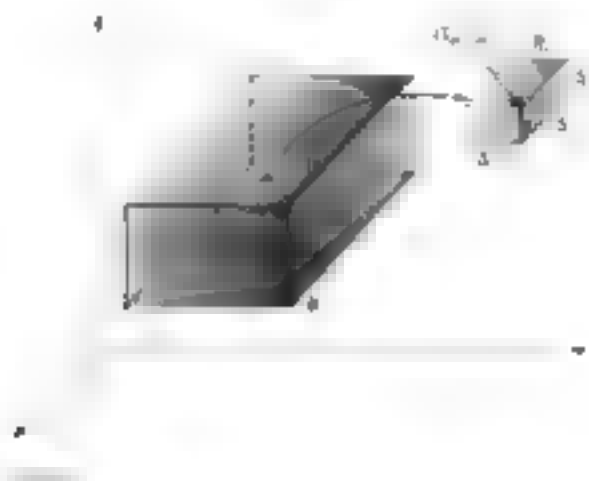
## 13.7

## Triple Integrals in Cartesian Coordinates

The concept embodied in single and double integrals extends in a natural way to triple and even  $n$ -dimensional integrals.

Consider a function  $f$  of three variables defined over a box-shaped region  $B$  with faces parallel to the coordinate planes. We can approximate  $\int_B f(x, y, z) \, dV$  with sums, which would be required, but we can picture  $B$  (Figure 13.7.1). Form a partition  $P$  of  $B$  by passing planes through  $B$  parallel to the coordinate planes, thus cutting  $B$  into subregions  $B_1, B_2, \dots, B_n$ , a typical subbox  $B_k$  is shown in Figure 13.7.2. On  $B_k$  pick a sample point  $(\bar{x}_k, \bar{y}_k, \bar{z}_k)$  and consider the Riemann sum

$$\sum_{k=1}^n f(\bar{x}_k, \bar{y}_k, \bar{z}_k) \Delta V_k$$



where  $\Delta V = \Delta x \Delta y \Delta z$  is the volume of  $B$ . To be certain of the notation, let  $\Delta l$  be the length of the longest diagonal of  $B$ , the subboxes have width at most  $\Delta l$ , and we write the triple integral by

$$\iiint_B f(x, y, z) \, dV = \lim_{\Delta l \rightarrow 0} \sum_{k=1}^n f(\bar{x}_k, \bar{y}_k, \bar{z}_k) \Delta V_k$$

provided that this limit exists.

The question of when a function  $f$  is integrable in this sense here is difficult. Single and double integrals have a more thorough theory, but for  $\Delta l \rightarrow 0$  at a rate we can allow some discontinuities for  $f$  (except on a set of measure zero, which we do not prove this is very difficult, also, but we assume this is so).

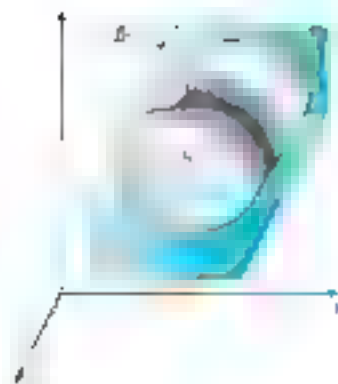
As you would expect, the triple integral has the same properties as line and surface integrals: linearity, the overlap rule for a boundary surface, and the substitution property. Finally, *triple integrals can be written as repeated integrals*, as we now illustrate.

**EXAMPLE 1** Evaluate  $\iiint_B x \sqrt{y} \, dV$ , where  $B$  is the box

$$B = \{(x, y, z) \mid 1 \leq x \leq 2, 0 \leq y \leq 1, 0 \leq z \leq 1\}.$$

**SOLUTION**

$$\begin{aligned} \iiint_B x \sqrt{y} \, dV &= \int_0^1 \int_0^1 \int_1^2 x \sqrt{y} \, dx \, dy \, dz \\ &= \int_0^1 \int_0^1 \left[ \frac{1}{2} x^2 \sqrt{y} \right]_{x=1}^{x=2} dy \, dz = \int_0^1 \int_0^1 \frac{3}{2} \sqrt{y} \, dy \, dz \end{aligned}$$



$$= \left| \int_0^1 \int_0^1 \int_0^1 z^2 \, dz \, dy \, dx \right| = \left| \int_0^1 \int_0^1 \frac{1}{3} \, dy \, dx \right|$$

There are six possible orders of integration. Every one of them will yield the answer. ■

**EXAMPLE 1** Consider a closed bounded set  $S$  in  $xyz$ -space and enclose it in a box  $B$  as shown in Figure 2. Let  $f(x, y, z)$  be defined on  $S$  and give  $f$  the value zero outside  $S$ . Then we define

$$\iiint_S f(x, y, z) \, dV = \iiint_B f(x, y, z) \, dV.$$

The integral on the right was defined in our opening remarks, but that does not mean that it is easy to evaluate. In fact, if the set  $S$  is sufficiently complicated, we may not be able to make the evaluation.

Let  $S$  be a  $xyz$ -simple set (as defined later) in closed  $S$  in a single line segment, and let  $S_{xy}$  be its projection in the  $xy$ -plane (Figure 3). Then

$$\iiint_S f(x, y, z) \, dV = \iint_{S_{xy}} \left[ \int_{g_1(x, y)}^{g_2(x, y)} f(x, y, z) \, dz \right] dA.$$

If, in addition,  $S$  is a  $y$ -simple set (as shown in Figure 5), we can rewrite the iterated integral as an iterated integral.

$$\iiint_S f(x, y, z) \, dV = \int_a^b \int_c^d \int_{h_1(x)}^{h_2(x)} f(x, y, z) \, dz \, dy \, dx.$$

Other orders of integration may be possible depending on the shape of  $S$ ; in each case we should expect the limits on the inner integral to be functions of the variables those on the middle integral to be constants and if possible the outer integral to be a constant.

We give several examples. The first simply illustrates evaluation of a triple integral.

**EXAMPLE 2** Evaluate the iterated integral

$$\int_{-2}^3 \int_0^{2x} \int_1^{x+2} 4 \, dz \, dy \, dx.$$

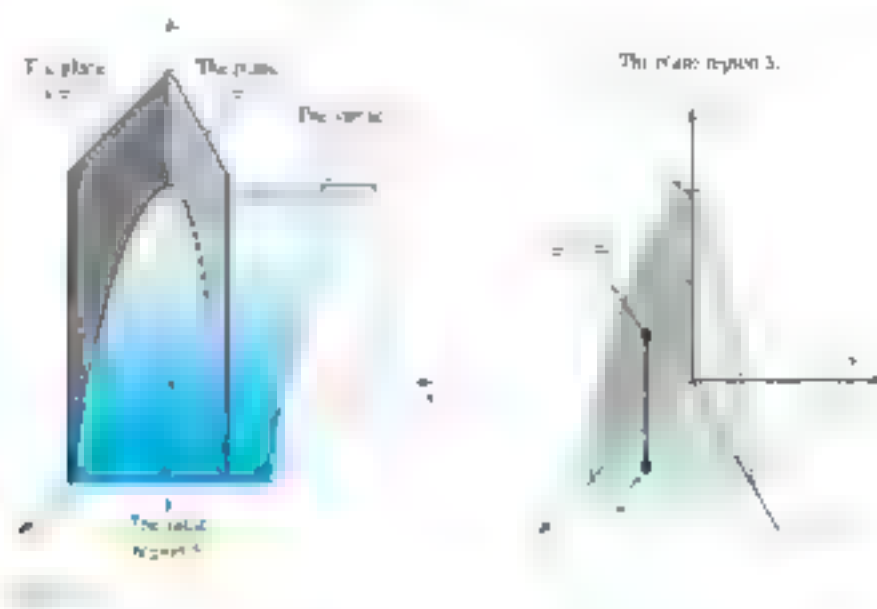
**SOLUTION**

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-2}^3 \int_0^{2x} \int_1^{x+2} 4 \, dz \, dy \, dx &= \int_{-2}^3 \int_0^{2x} \left[ 4z \right]_1^{x+2} dy \, dx \\ &= \int_{-2}^3 \int_0^{2x} [4x + 8] dy \, dx \\ &= \int_{-2}^3 [4xy + 8y]_0^{2x} dx \\ &= \int_{-2}^3 (-6x^2 + 24x) dx = -10. \end{aligned}$$

#### Limits of Integration

The limits of integration on the iterated integral may depend on both the outer and inner variables. The limits of integration on the middle integral may depend only on the outermost variable of integration. Finally the limits of integration on the outermost integral may not depend on any of the variables of integration.

**EXAMPLE 3** Evaluate the triple integral of  $f(x, y, z) = 2xyz$  over the solid region  $V$  in the first octant that is bounded by the parabolic cylinder  $z = 2 - x^2$  and the planes  $x = 0$ ,  $y = 1$ , and  $z = 0$ .



**FIGURE 4** The solid region  $V$  is shown in Figure 4. The triple integral

$$\iiint_V 2xyz \, dV$$

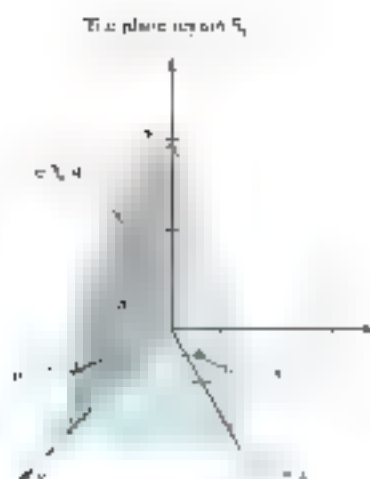
can be evaluated by an iterated integral.

As a first step, let  $V$  be a simple solid and the domain  $R$  of  $V$  in the  $xy$ -plane. Then  $R$  is a simple region in the  $xy$ -plane. In the first integration,  $x$  and  $y$  are fixed, and we integrate at height  $z$  ranging from  $0$  to  $z = 2 - x^2$ . The result is then integrated over the set  $R$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \iiint_V xyz \, dV &= \int_0^1 \int_0^1 \int_0^{2-x^2} xyz \, dz \, dy \, dx \\ &= \int_0^1 \int_0^1 \left( \frac{1}{2} x^2 z^2 \right)_0^{2-x^2} dy \, dx \\ &= \int_0^1 \int_0^1 \left( \frac{1}{2} x^2 (2-x^2)^2 - \frac{1}{2} x^2 (0)^2 \right) dy \, dx \\ &= \int_0^1 \left( \frac{1}{2} x^2 (2-x^2)^2 - \frac{1}{2} x^2 (0)^2 \right) dx = \frac{4}{3}. \end{aligned}$$

Many different orders of integration are possible in Example 3. We illustrate another way to do this problem.

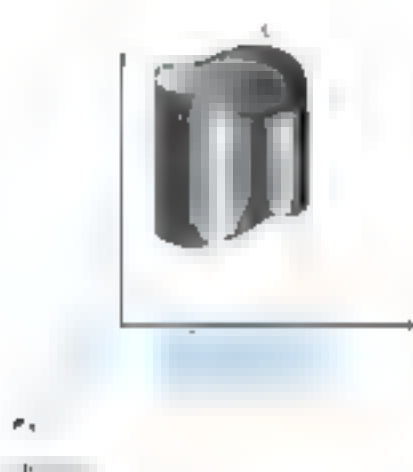
**EXAMPLE 4** Evaluate the integral of Example 3 by doing the integration in the order  $dy \, dx \, dz$ .



**FIGURE 13.7.1** Note that the solid  $S$  is simple and that  $S$  projects onto the plane set  $S_x$  shown in Figure 8. We first integrate along a horizontal line from  $y = 0$  to  $y = 4 - x$ , then we integrate the result over  $S_x$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \iiint_S xz \, dV &= \int_0^4 \int_0^{4-x} \int_0^{4-x-y} xz \, dz \, dy \, dx \\ &= \int_0^4 \int_0^{4-x} \left[ \frac{1}{2}xz^2 \right]_0^{4-x-y} dy \, dx = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^4 \int_0^{4-x} (4-x-y)^2 dy \, dx \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^4 \left[ -(4-x-y)^3 \right]_0^{4-x} dx = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^4 -(4-x)^3 dx = -\frac{1}{8} \left[ (4-x)^4 \right]_0^4 = -\frac{1}{8}(0 - 256) = 32. \end{aligned}$$

**FIGURE 13.7.2** The concepts of mass and center of mass generalize easily to solid regions. By now the process has led us to the correct formula, a very long one, and we can summarize it as follows: *slice, approximate, integrate*. Figure 13.7.3 gives away the whole idea. The symbol  $\delta(x, y, z)$  denotes the density (mass per unit volume) at  $(x, y, z)$ .



Mass of  $dV = \delta(x, y, z) dV$ .  
 Moment of  $dV$   
 about the plane  $x = 0$  is  $\delta(x, y, z)x dV$ .

The corresponding integral formulas for the mass  $M$  of the solid  $S$  and the  $M_x$  of  $S$  with respect to the  $yz$ -plane and  $z$ -coordinate  $\bar{z}$  of the center of mass are

$$\begin{aligned} M &= \iiint_S \delta \, dV \\ M_x &= \iiint_S x\delta \, dV \\ \bar{z} &= \frac{M_x}{M}. \end{aligned}$$

There are similar formulas for  $M_y$ ,  $M_z$ ,  $\bar{x}$ , and  $\bar{y}$ .

**EXAMPLE 1** Find the mass and center of mass of the solid  $S$  in Figure 13.7.4, assuming that its density is proportional to the distance from its base in the  $xy$ -plane.



**SOLUTION** By hypothesis,  $\delta(x, y, z) = kz$ , where  $k$  is a constant. Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} m &= \iiint_V kz \, dV = \int_0^2 \int_0^x \int_0^{x^2} kz \, dz \, dy \, dx \\ &= k \int_0^2 \int_0^x \left( \frac{1}{2} z^2 \right)_{z=0}^{z=x^2} dy \, dx = \frac{k}{2} \int_0^2 \left( \frac{1}{2} x^4 \right)_{y=0}^{y=x} dy \, dx \\ &= \frac{k}{2} \int_0^2 \left( \frac{1}{2} x^4 - x \cdot \frac{1}{2} x^4 \right) dx = \frac{k}{2} \int_0^2 \left( \frac{x}{2} - \frac{x^5}{10} \right) dx = \frac{\pi}{48} \int_0^2 \left( \frac{4}{3} k \right) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} M_x &= \iiint_V xz \, dV = \int_0^2 \int_0^x \int_0^{x^2} xz \, dz \, dy \, dx \\ &= \frac{k}{2} \int_0^2 \int_0^x \left( \frac{1}{2} z^2 \right)_{z=0}^{z=x^2} dy \, dx \\ &= \frac{k}{2} \int_0^2 \int_0^x \left( \frac{1}{2} x^4 - 0 \right) dy \, dx = \frac{k}{2} \int_0^2 \left( \frac{1}{2} x^4 - 0 \right)_{y=0}^{y=x} dy \, dx \\ &= \frac{k}{2} \int_0^2 \left( \frac{1}{2} x^4 - 0 \right) dx = \frac{k}{2} \int_0^2 \left( \frac{1}{2} x^4 - 0 \right) dx \\ &= \frac{k}{2} \left( \frac{1}{2} x^5 - 0 \right)_{x=0}^{x=2} = \frac{1}{4} \left( \frac{32}{5} - 0 \right) = \frac{4}{5} k \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} M_y &= \iiint_V yz \, dV = \int_0^2 \int_0^x \int_0^{x^2} yz \, dz \, dy \, dx \\ &= \frac{k}{2} \int_0^2 \int_0^x \left( \frac{1}{2} z^2 \right)_{z=0}^{z=x^2} dy \, dx = \frac{k}{2} \int_0^2 \left( \frac{1}{2} x^4 \right)_{y=0}^{y=x} dy \, dx \\ &= \frac{k}{2} \int_0^2 \left( \frac{1}{2} x^4 - 0 \right) dx = \frac{k}{2} \int_0^2 \left( \frac{1}{2} x^4 - 0 \right) dx \\ &= \frac{k}{2} \left( \frac{1}{2} x^5 - 0 \right)_{x=0}^{x=2} = \frac{1}{4} \left( \frac{32}{5} - 0 \right) = \frac{4}{5} k \end{aligned}$$

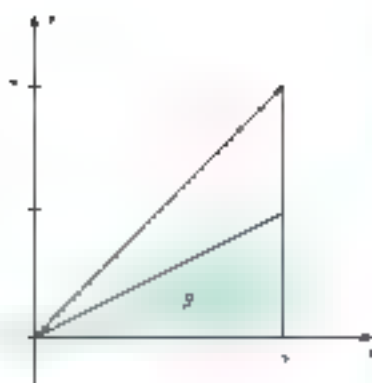
$$\begin{aligned} M_z &= \iiint_V xz \, dV = \int_0^2 \int_0^x \int_0^{x^2} xz \, dz \, dy \, dx \\ &= \frac{k}{2} \int_0^2 \int_0^x \left( \frac{1}{2} z^2 \right)_{z=0}^{z=x^2} dy \, dx \\ &= \frac{k}{2} \int_0^2 \int_0^x \left( \frac{1}{2} x^4 - 0 \right) dy \, dx \\ &= \frac{k}{2} \int_0^2 \left( \frac{1}{2} x^4 - 0 \right) dx \\ &= \frac{k}{2} \left( \frac{1}{2} x^5 - 0 \right)_{x=0}^{x=2} = \frac{1}{4} \left( \frac{32}{5} - 0 \right) = \frac{4}{5} k \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 1** Let  $X$ ,  $Y$ , and  $Z$  be random variables. We saw in Section 5.3 that probability for random variables can be computed as iterated integrals. The probability density function and joint expectations can be computed like moments. These concepts are easily generalized to the case of a pair (or triple) of random variables. A function  $f(x, y, z)$  is a **joint probability density function** (PDF) for the random variables  $(X, Y, Z)$  if  $f(x, y, z) \geq 0$  and all the following hold:

$$\iiint_S f(x, y, z) \, dx \, dy \, dz =$$

where  $S$  is the region of all possible values for  $(X, Y, Z)$ . A probability involving  $(X, Y, Z)$  can then be computed as the triple integral over the appropriate region. The expected value of some function  $g(X, Y, Z)$  is defined to be

$$E[g(X, Y, Z)] = \iiint_S g(x, y, z) f(x, y, z) \, dx \, dy \, dz$$



With obvious modifications, the discussion applies to pairs (or 3-tuples) of random variables.

**EXAMPLE 1** The joint PDF for the random variables  $(X, Y, Z)$  is of the form

$$f(x, y, z) = \begin{cases} kxyz & \text{if } 0 \leq x \leq 1, 0 \leq y \leq 2x, 0 \leq z \leq 1 - x - y \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Find (a)  $P(Y \leq X/2)$ , and (b)  $E(Y)$ .

**SOLUTION**

(a) We notice that  $Y \leq X/2$  and, moreover,  $(X, Y, Z)$  is a three-shaped region  $R$  (Figure 7) and  $0 \leq Z \leq 1$ . Thus

$$P(Y \leq X/2) = \iiint_R kxyz \, dV = \int_0^1 \int_0^{x/2} \int_0^{1-x-y} kxyz \, dz \, dy \, dx = \int_0^1 \int_0^{x/2} \frac{k}{2} xy(1-x-y)^2 \, dy \, dx = \frac{k}{2} \int_0^1 \frac{x^4}{12} \, dx = \frac{k}{24}.$$

(b) The expectation of  $Y$  is

$$\begin{aligned} E(Y) &= \iiint_R y \cdot kxyz \, dV = \int_0^1 \int_0^{1-x} \int_0^{1-x-y} kxy^2z \, dz \, dy \, dx \\ &= \int_0^1 \int_0^{1-x} \frac{k}{2} xy^2(1-x-y)^2 \, dy \, dx \\ &= \int_0^1 \frac{k}{12} x^4 \, dx = \frac{k}{60}. \end{aligned}$$

## Concepts Review

1.  $\iiint_R f(x, y, z) \, dV$  gives the volume of the solid  $R$ .
2. The density of a solid  $R$  is  $\delta(x, y, z)$  when the mass of  $R$  is  $M$ .
3.  $\iiint_R \delta(x, y, z) \, dV$  gives the mass of  $R$ .
4. Let  $S$  be the solid unit sphere centered at the origin. Then, from symmetry we conclude that  $\iiint_S x \, dV = 0$ .

## Problem Set 13.7

In Problems 1–10, evaluate the iterated integrals.

1.  $\int_0^1 \int_0^{1-x} \int_0^{1-x-y} (x+y+z) \, dz \, dy \, dx$
2.  $\int_0^1 \int_0^{1-x} \int_0^{1-x-y} (x+y+z) \, dz \, dy \, dx$
3.  $\int_0^1 \int_0^{1-x} \int_0^{1-x-y} (x+y+z) \, dz \, dy \, dx$
4.  $\int_0^1 \int_0^{1-x} \int_0^{1-x-y} (x+y+z) \, dz \, dy \, dx$
5.  $\int_0^1 \int_0^{1-x} \int_0^{1-x-y} (x+y+z) \, dz \, dy \, dx$
6.  $\int_0^1 \int_0^{1-x} \int_0^{1-x-y} (x+y+z) \, dz \, dy \, dx$
7.  $\int_0^1 \int_0^{1-x} \int_0^{1-x-y} (x+y+z) \, dz \, dy \, dx$
8.  $\int_0^1 \int_0^{1-x} \int_0^{1-x-y} (x+y+z) \, dz \, dy \, dx$
9.  $\int_0^1 \int_0^{1-x} \int_0^{1-x-y} (x+y+z) \, dz \, dy \, dx$
10.  $\int_0^1 \int_0^{1-x} \int_0^{1-x-y} (x+y+z) \, dz \, dy \, dx$

In Problems 11–20, sketch the solid  $R$ . Then write an iterated integral for

$$\iiint_R f(x, y, z) \, dV$$

11.  $S = \{ (x, y, z) : 0 \leq x \leq 1, 0 \leq y \leq 3, 0 \leq z \leq 2 - x - y \}$

12.  $S = \{ (x, y, z) : 0 \leq x \leq \sqrt{4 - y^2}, 0 \leq z \leq y \}$

13.  $S = \{ (x, y, z) : x \leq y \leq x + 1, 0 \leq z \leq 1 - x \}$

14.  $S = \{ (x, y, z) : 0 \leq x \leq \sqrt{y}, 0 \leq z \leq 4 - y, 0 \leq y \leq 1 \}$

15.  $S = \{ (x, y, z) : 0 \leq x \leq 3z, 0 \leq y \leq 4 - z, 0 \leq z \leq 4 \}$

16.  $S = \{ (x, y, z) : 0 \leq x \leq y^2, 0 \leq y \leq \sqrt{z}, 0 \leq z \leq 1 \}$

17.  $S$  is the tetrahedron with vertices  $(0, 0, 0)$ ,  $(5, 2, 0)$ ,  $(0, 3, 0)$ , and  $(0, 0, 7)$ .

18.  $S$  is the region in the first octant bounded by the surface  $z = 9 - x^2 - y^2$  and the coordinate planes.

19.  $S$  is the region in the first octant bounded by the cylinder  $y^2 + z^2 = 1$  and the planes  $x = 1$  and  $x = 4$ .

20.  $S$  is the smaller region bounded by the cylinder  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$  and the planes  $z = 0$  and  $z = 4$ .

In Problems 21–26, use triple iterated integrals to find the indicated quantity.

21. Volume of the solid in the first octant bounded by  $x = y$  and  $y + z = 4$ .

22. Volume of the solid in the first octant bounded by the elliptic cylinder  $y^2 + 4z^2 = 4$  and the plane  $x = 3$ .

23. Volume of the solid bounded by the cylinders  $x^2 = y$  and  $z^2 = y$  and the plane  $y = 1$ .

24. Volume of the solid bounded by the cylinder  $y = x^2 - 2$  and the planes  $x = -1$  and  $x = 1$ .

25. Center of mass of the tetrahedron bounded by the planes  $x + y + z = 1$ ,  $x = 0$ ,  $y = 0$ , and  $z = 0$  if the density is proportional to the sum of the coordinates of the point.

26. Center of mass of the solid bounded by the cylinder  $x^2 + y^2 = 9$  and the planes  $x = 0$  and  $z = 4$  if the density is proportional to the square of the distance from the origin.

27. Center of mass of that part of the solid sphere  $\{ (x, y, z) : x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \leq a^2 \}$  that lies in the first octant, assuming that it has a constant density.

28. Moment of inertia  $I_x$  about the  $x$ -axis of the solid bounded by the cylinder  $y^2 + z^2 = 4$  and the planes  $x = 0$  and  $x = 1$  if the density  $\delta(x, y, z) = z$ . *Hint:* You will need to do volume integrals over tetrahedra to approximate integrals.

In Problems 29–32, write the given iterated integral as an ordered integral with the indicated order of integration.

29.  $\int_0^1 \int_0^{1-x} \int_0^{1-x-y} f(x, y, z) \, dz \, dy \, dx$

30.  $\int_0^1 \int_0^{1-x} \int_0^{1-x-y} f(x, y, z) \, dx \, dy \, dz$

31.  $\int_0^1 \int_0^{1-x} \int_0^{1-x-y} f(x, y, z) \, dx \, dz \, dy$

32.  $\int_0^2 \int_0^y \int_0^{y-z} f(x, y, z) \, dz \, dy \, dx$

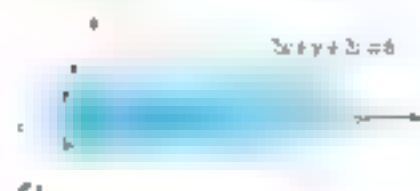
33. Consider the solid (Figure 8) in the first octant cut off from the square cylinder with sides  $x = 0$ ,  $x = 1$ ,  $y = 0$ , and

$z = 1$  by the plane  $1x + y + 2z = 6$ . Find its volume in three ways.

(a) Hard way by a  $dx \, dy \, dz$  integration

(b) Easier way by a  $dy \, dz \, dx$  integration

(c) Easiest way: by Problem 23 of Section 13.6



34. Assume that the density of the solid in Figure 8 is a constant  $\delta$ . Find the moments of inertia of the solid with respect to the  $x$ -axis.

35. If the temperature at  $(x, y, z)$  is  $T(x, y, z) = 30 - z$  degrees, find the average temperature of the solid in Figure 8.

36. Assume that the temperature of the solid in Figure 8 is  $T(x, y, z) = 30 - z$ . Find all points in the solid where the actual temperature equals the average temperature.

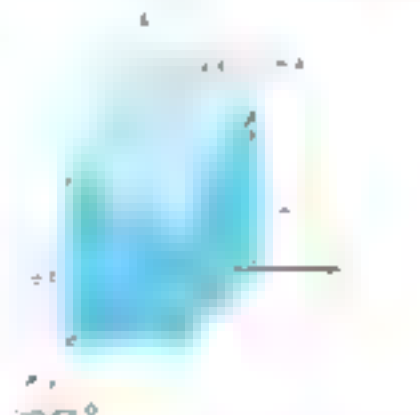
37. Find the center of mass of the tetrahedron solid in Figure 7.

38. Consider the solid (Figure 9) in the first octant cut off from the square cylinder with sides  $y = 0$ ,  $x = 1$ ,  $y = 0$ , and  $z = 1$  by the plane  $x + y + z = 6$ . Find its volume in three ways.

(a) Hard way by a  $dx \, dy \, dz$  integration

(b) Easier way by a  $dy \, dz \, dx$  integration

(c) Easiest way by Problem 23 of Section 13.6



39. Find the center of mass of the tetrahedron solid in Figure 7.

40. Suppose the temperature of the solid in Figure 9 has no  $x$  or  $y$  at the bottom (the  $xy$ -plane) and increases continuously  $z^2$  at each unit above the  $xy$ -plane. Find the average temperature in the solid.

41. **Soda Can Problem** A full soda can of height  $h$  stands on the  $xy$ -plane. Punct a hole in the base and watch  $\bar{z}$  (the  $z$ -coordinate of the center of mass) as the soda trickles away. Start up at  $h/2$ .  $\bar{z}$  gradually drops to a minimum and then rises back to  $h/2$  when the can is empty. Show that  $\bar{z}$  is least when  $h$  matches with the height of the soda. (Do not neglect the mass of the can itself.)

Write the same conclusion both for  $\sin \theta$  and for  $\cos \theta$ . Then calculate  $\sin \theta$  geometrically.

$$\text{41. } \sin \theta = \frac{y}{r} = \frac{y}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} \quad \text{if } (x, y) \neq (0, 0) \quad \text{and } \cos \theta = \frac{x}{r} = \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} \quad \text{if } (x, y) \neq (0, 0)$$

42. Suppose that the random variables  $X$  and  $Y$  have joint PDF

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} 2xy & \text{if } 0 \leq x \leq 1 \text{ and } 0 \leq y \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Find each of the following.

$$(a) P(X \leq 1/2) \quad (b) P(Y \leq 1/2) \quad (c) P(X \leq 1/2, Y \leq 1/2)$$

43. Suppose that the random variables  $(X, Y, Z)$  have joint PDF

$$f(x, y, z) = \begin{cases} kxyz & \text{if } 0 \leq x \leq 1, 0 \leq y \leq 1, 0 \leq z \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Find each of the following.

$$(a) P(X \leq 1/2, Y \leq 1/2, Z \leq 1/2) \quad (b) P(X \leq 1/2, Y \leq 1/2)$$

44. Suppose that the random variables  $(X, Y, Z)$  have joint PDF

$$f(x, y, z) = \begin{cases} 24xyz & \text{if } 0 \leq x \leq 1, 0 \leq y \leq 1, 0 \leq z \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Find each of the following.

$$(a) P(X \leq 1/2, Y \leq 1/2, Z \leq 1/2) \quad (b) P(X \leq 1/2, Y \leq 1/2)$$

45. Suppose that the random variables  $(X, Y)$  have joint probability density function  $f(x, y)$  and the marginal probability density function of  $Y$  is  $g(y)$  for  $y$ .

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} 2xy & \text{if } 0 \leq x \leq 1 \text{ and } 0 \leq y \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where  $a$  and  $b$  are the smallest and largest possible values, respectively, that  $y$  can be for the given  $x$ . Show that

$$(a) P(X \leq 1/2, Y \leq 1/2) = \int_0^{1/2} \int_0^{1/2} 2xy \, dy \, dx$$

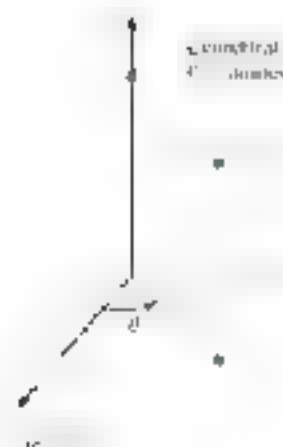
$$(b) P(X \leq 1/2) = \int_0^{1/2} g(y) \, dy$$

46. Find the marginal PDF for the random variable  $X$  in Problem 43 and use it to calculate  $E(X)$ .

47. Find the marginal probability density function PDF of  $Y$  and use it to calculate the marginal PDF of  $Y$  in Problem 44.

$$f(x, y, z) = \begin{cases} 24xyz & \text{if } 0 \leq x \leq 1, 0 \leq y \leq 1, 0 \leq z \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

## 13.8 Triple Integrals in Cylindrical and Spherical Coordinates



When a solid region  $S$  in three-space has an area of volume, we can evaluate it by triple integrals over  $S$  using cylindrical coordinates. Suppose  $S$  is a solid region with respect to a point  $(x, y, z)$  in three-space. If we use cylindrical coordinates  $(r, \theta, z)$  to describe  $S$ , then we can describe  $S$  in terms of  $r, \theta,$  and  $z$ . In this section, we will see how to use cylindrical coordinates to evaluate triple integrals. The topic of Section 13.9.

Cylindrical coordinates  $(r, \theta, z)$  are defined as follows. Let  $(x, y, z)$  be the rectangular coordinates and  $(r, \theta, z)$  be the cylindrical coordinates. Then  $(x, y, z)$  and  $(r, \theta, z)$  are related by the equations

$$x = r \cos \theta, \quad y = r \sin \theta, \quad z = z$$

As a result, the function  $f(x, y, z)$  transforms to

$$f(x, y, z) = f(r \cos \theta, r \sin \theta, z) = F(r, \theta, z)$$

when written in cylindrical coordinates.

Suppose now that we wish to evaluate  $\iiint_S f(x, y, z) \, dV$  with  $(x, y, z)$  in solid region  $S$ . To do this, we partition  $S$  by means of a cylindrical grid where the cylinder (volume element) has the shape shown in Figure 7. Since this piece of solid  $S$  (volume element) has volume  $\Delta V = r \, \Delta r \, \Delta \theta \, \Delta z$ , the sum over approximates the integral has the form

$$\sum F(r_i, \theta_i, z_i) \Delta r_i \Delta \theta_i \Delta z_i$$

Taking the limit as the norm of the partition tends to zero leads to a new integral and suggests an important formula for changing  $dV$  in Cartesian to cylindrical coordinates in a triple integral.

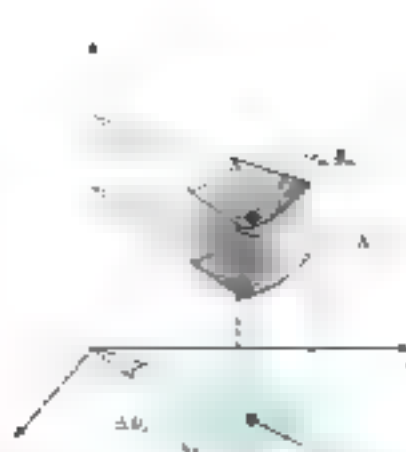


Figure 2

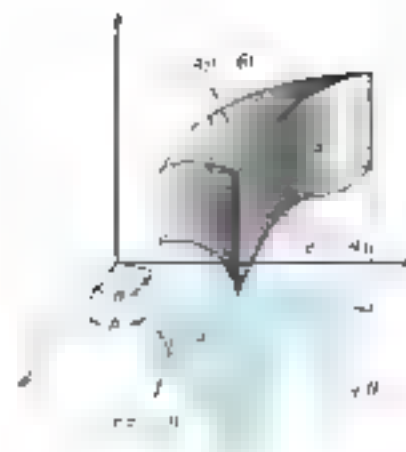


Figure 3

The transition from Cartesian coordinates to 3-space is rather straightforward:

$$x = r \cos \theta, \quad y = r \sin \theta, \quad z = z$$

whereas the reverse operation from Cartesian coordinates to 3-space is cylindrical coordinates:

$$r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}, \quad \theta = \tan^{-1} \frac{y}{x}, \quad z = z$$

In other words, to identify a point in three-space using cylindrical coordinates, we specify the polar coordinates for the ordered pair  $(x, y)$  and then “tuck up” the  $z$ -coordinate. So we

$$dV = r \, dr \, d\theta \, dz$$

we shouldn’t be surprised that

$$\iint_R \iint_C f(x, y, z) \, dV = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^a \int_0^b f(r \cos \theta, r \sin \theta, z) \, r \, dz \, dr \, d\theta$$

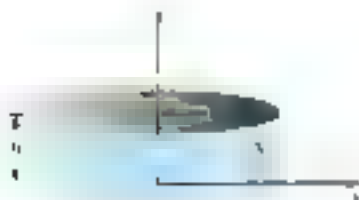


Figure 4

Let  $S$  be a  $z$ -simple solid and suppose that its projection  $S_{xy}$  in the  $xy$ -plane is shown in Figure 3. If  $f$  is continuous on  $S$ , then

$$\iiint_S f(x, y, z) \, dV = \int_a^b \int_R f(x, y, z) \, dA \, dz = \int_a^b \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^r f(r \cos \theta, r \sin \theta, z) \, r \, dr \, d\theta \, dz$$

The key fact here is that the  $dV$  in cylindrical coordinates becomes  $r \, dr \, d\theta \, dz$  in cylindrical coordinates.

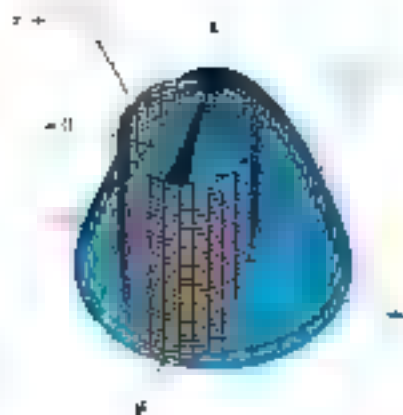
**EXAMPLE 1** Find the mass and center of mass of a solid right circular cone of height  $h$  assuming that the density is proportional to the distance from the base.

**SOLUTION** We can choose  $z$  as shown in Figure 4. We can write the density function as  $\delta(x, y, z) = kz$ , where  $k$  is a constant. Then

$$\begin{aligned} M &= \iiint_S \delta(x, y, z) \, dV = k \int_0^h \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^r r \, dz \, dr \, d\theta \\ &= k \int_0^h \int_0^{2\pi} \left[ \frac{1}{2} r^2 \right]_0^r d\theta = \frac{1}{2} kh \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^r r^2 \, dr \, d\theta \\ &= \frac{1}{2} kh^2 \int_0^{2\pi} \left[ \frac{1}{3} r^3 \right]_0^r d\theta = \frac{1}{6} kh^2 \int_0^{2\pi} r^3 \, d\theta \\ &= \frac{1}{6} kh^2 \int_0^{2\pi} r^3 \, d\theta = \frac{1}{6} kh^2 \pi r^3 \\ &= \frac{M}{\pi r^3} = \frac{kh^2}{2h} = \frac{1}{2} k h \end{aligned}$$

By symmetry  $\bar{x} = \bar{y} = 0$ .

■



**EXAMPLE 5** Find the volume of the solid region  $S$  in the first octant bounded above by the paraboloid  $z = 4 - x^2 - y^2$  and laterally by the cylinder  $x^2 + y^2 = 2x$ , as shown in Figure 5.

**SOLUTION** In cylindrical coordinates, the paraboloid is  $z = 4 - r^2$  and the cylinder is  $r = 2 \cos \theta$ . The solid lies in the first octant, so  $\theta$  ranges from 0 to  $\pi/2$  and  $r$  goes from 0 to  $2 \cos \theta$ . Figure 6 shows the triangular region  $R$  in the  $xy$ -plane that the figure suggests that for a fixed  $\theta$ ,  $r$  goes from 0 to  $2 \cos \theta$  and  $\theta$  goes from 0 to  $\pi/2$ . Thus

$$\begin{aligned} V &= \iiint_S dV = \int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^{2 \cos \theta} \int_0^{4-r^2} r \, dz \, dr \, d\theta \\ &= \int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^{2 \cos \theta} r(4 - r^2) \, dr \, d\theta = \int_0^{\pi/2} \left[ 2r^2 - \frac{1}{4}r^4 \right]_0^{2 \cos \theta} d\theta \\ &= \int_0^{\pi/2} (4 \cos^2 \theta - 4 \cos^4 \theta) \, d\theta \\ &= 4 \left[ \frac{1}{2}\theta + \frac{1}{8}\sin 2\theta \right]_0^{\pi/2} - 4 \left[ \frac{1}{5}\theta + \frac{1}{10}\sin 2\theta \right]_0^{\pi/2} \\ &= 4 \left( \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{\pi}{2} \right) - 4 \left( \frac{1}{5} \cdot \frac{\pi}{2} \right) = \frac{4\pi}{5}. \end{aligned}$$

We use Formula 15 from the table of integrals at the end of the book to make the last calculation. ■

**DEFINITION** Figure 7 serves as a mnemonic for the equations for spherical coordinates, which were introduced in Section 15.7. Here we recall that the equations

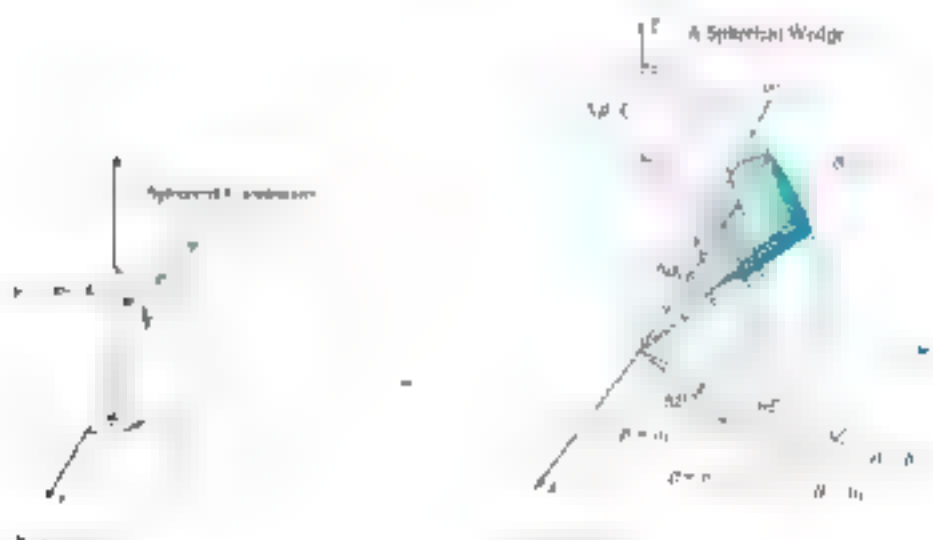
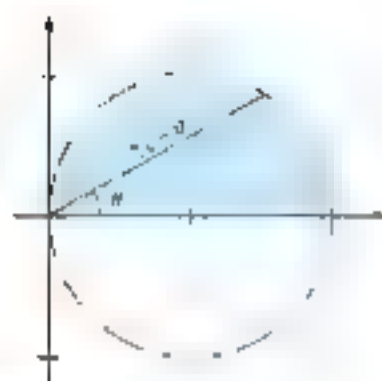
$$x = \rho \sin \phi \cos \theta, \quad y = \rho \sin \phi \sin \theta, \quad z = \rho \cos \phi$$

relate spherical coordinates and Cartesian coordinates. Figure 8 exhibits the relationship between spherical coordinates and the rectangular coordinates. Although we don't prove it, it can be shown that the volume of the infinitesimal spherical wedge is

$$\Delta V = \rho^2 \sin \phi \, \Delta \rho \, \Delta \theta \, \Delta \phi$$

where  $(\rho, \theta, \phi)$  is an appropriately chosen point in the wedge.

Partitioning a solid  $S$  by means of a spherical wedge and summing the appropriate  $\Delta V$ 's and taking the limit leads to an integral and gives which we denote is approximated by  $\rho^2 \sin \phi \, d\rho \, d\theta \, d\phi$ .



$$\iiint_V (x^2 + y^2 + z^2) \, dV = \iiint_{S^2} \rho^3 \sin \phi \cos \phi \, d\rho \, d\phi \, d\theta = \rho^4 \sin \phi \, d\phi \, d\theta \Big|_{\rho=0}^{\rho=a} = \frac{a^4}{4} \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^\pi \sin \phi \, d\phi \, d\theta$$

**EXAMPLE 3** Find the mass of a solid sphere  $S$  if its density  $\delta$  is proportional to the distance from the center.

**SOLUTION** Center the sphere at the origin and let its radius be  $a$ . The density  $\delta$  is given by  $\delta = k\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2} = k\rho$ . Thus, the mass  $m$  is given by

$$\begin{aligned} m &= \iiint_V \delta \, dV = k \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^\pi \int_0^a \rho^2 \sin \phi \, d\rho \, d\phi \, d\theta \\ &= k \frac{\rho^3}{3} \Big|_0^a \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^\pi \sin \phi \, d\phi \, d\theta = \frac{1}{3} k \pi a^3 \int_0^{2\pi} \sin \phi \, d\phi \\ &= \frac{2}{3} \pi a^3 k. \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 4** Find the volume and center of mass of the homogeneous solid  $V$  that is bounded above by a cone, by  $\rho = \rho_0 \cos \phi$ , and by the cone  $\phi = \phi_0$ , where  $\rho_0$  and  $\phi_0$  are constants (Figure 9).

**SOLUTION** The volume  $V$  is given by

$$\begin{aligned} V &= \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\phi_0} \int_0^{\rho_0 \cos \phi} \rho^2 \sin \phi \, d\rho \, d\phi \, d\theta \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\phi_0} \left( \frac{\rho^3}{3} \sin \phi \right) \Big|_0^{\rho_0 \cos \phi} d\phi \, d\theta \\ &= \frac{\rho_0^3}{3} \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\phi_0} \cos^3 \phi \, d\phi \, d\theta = \frac{2\pi \rho_0^3}{3} \cos \phi_0. \end{aligned}$$

It follows that the mass  $m$  of the solid is

$$m = \delta V = \frac{2\pi \rho_0^3 \delta}{3} \cos \phi_0$$

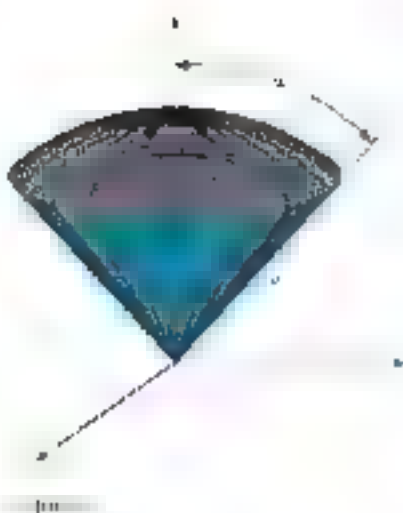
where  $\delta$  is the constant density.

From symmetry, the center of mass is on the  $z$ -axis, that is,  $\bar{x} = \bar{y} = 0$ . In Figure 10, we first calculate  $M_{xy}$ .

$$\begin{aligned} M_{xy} &= \iiint_V k z \, dV = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\phi_0} \int_0^{\rho_0 \cos \phi} k \rho^2 \sin \phi \cos \phi \, d\rho \, d\phi \, d\theta \\ &= k \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\phi_0} \left( \frac{\rho^3}{3} \sin \phi \cos \phi \right) \Big|_0^{\rho_0 \cos \phi} d\phi \, d\theta \\ &= k \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\phi_0} \frac{1}{3} \rho_0^3 \cos^4 \phi \sin \phi \, d\phi \, d\theta \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi} \left( -\frac{1}{15} \rho_0^3 \cos^5 \phi \right) \Big|_0^{\phi_0} d\theta = \frac{1}{15} \rho_0^3 k \sin^5 \phi_0. \end{aligned}$$

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{z} &= \frac{1}{m} \frac{1}{3} \rho_0^3 k \sin^5 \phi_0 = \frac{\rho_0 \sin^5 \phi_0}{3 \cos \phi_0} \\ &= \frac{1}{3} \rho_0 \tan^5 \phi_0 \sec \phi_0 = \frac{\rho_0}{3} \tan^5 \phi_0 \sec \phi_0. \end{aligned}$$



## Concepts Review

1. If  $\iiint_R f(x, y, z) \, dV$  takes the form  $\int_0^h \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^r f(r, \theta, z) \, r \, dr \, d\theta \, dz$  in cylindrical coordinates and the form  $\int_0^{\phi} \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\rho} f(\rho, \theta, \phi) \, \rho^2 \sin \phi \, d\rho \, d\theta \, d\phi$  in spherical coordinates.

2. If  $\iiint_R f(x, y, z) \, dV$  becomes  $\int_0^h \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^r f(r, \theta, z) \, r \, dr \, d\theta \, dz$  in cylindrical coordinates.

## Problem Set 11.8

In Problems 1–6, evaluate the integral which is given in cylindrical or spherical coordinates and describe the region  $R$  of integration.

1.  $\int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^2 r \, dr \, d\theta \, dz$       2.  $\int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^2 r \, dr \, d\theta \, dz$

3.  $\int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^2 r \, dr \, d\theta \, dz$       4.  $\int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^2 r \, dr \, d\theta \, dz$

5.  $\int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^2 r \, dr \, d\theta \, dz$

6.  $\int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^2 r \, dr \, d\theta \, dz$

In Problems 7–14, use cylindrical coordinates to find the indicated quantity.

7. Volume of the solid bounded by the paraboloid  $z = x^2 + y^2$  and the plane  $z = 4$ .

8. Volume of the solid bounded above by the sphere  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 9$ , below by the plane  $z = 0$ , and laterally by the cylinder  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$ .

9. Volume of the solid bounded above by the sphere centered at the origin having radius 5 and below by the plane  $z = 4$ .

10. Volume of the solid bounded above by the plane  $z = y + 4$ , below by the  $xy$ -plane, and laterally by the right circular cylinder having radius 1 and whose axis is the  $x$ -axis.

11. Volume of the solid bounded above by the sphere  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 5$  and below by the paraboloid  $z = 4x^2$ .

12. Volume of the solid above the surface  $z = xy$  above the  $xy$ -plane and within the cylinder  $x^2 + y^2 = 2x$ .

13. Center of mass of the homogeneous solid bounded above by  $z = 12 - 2x^2 - 2y^2$  and below by  $z = x^2 + y^2$ .

14. Center of mass of the homogeneous solid inside the cylinder  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$  below  $z = 12 - x^2 - y^2$  and above

In Problem 15–22, use spherical coordinates to find the indicated quantity.

15. Mass of the solid inside the sphere  $\rho = b$  and outside the sphere  $\rho = a$ ,  $a < b$ , if the density is proportional to the distance from the origin.

16. Mass of a solid inside a sphere of radius 3a and outside a circular cylinder of radius a whose axis is a diameter of the

sphere if the density is proportional to the square of the distance from the center of the sphere.

17. Center of mass of a solid hemisphere of radius a, if the density is proportional to the distance from the center of the sphere.

18. Center of mass of a solid hemisphere of radius a, if the density is proportional to the distance from the axis of symmetry.

19. Moment of inertia of the solid of Problem 18 with respect to the  $x$ -axis.

20. Volume of the solid within the sphere  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 16$ , outside the cone  $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$  and above the  $xy$ -plane.

21. Volume of the smaller wedge cut from the unit sphere by two planes that meet at a diameter at an angle of 30°.

22. Find the volume of the solid bounded above by the plane  $z = y$  and below by the paraboloid  $z = x^2 + y^2$ . [Hint: In cylindrical coordinates the plane has equation  $z = r \sin \theta$  and the paraboloid has equation  $z = r^2$ . Solve simultaneously to get the projection in the  $xy$ -plane.]

23. Find the volume of the solid inside both of the spheres  $\rho = 2 \cos \theta$  and  $\rho = 4 \cos \theta$ .

24. For a solid sphere of radius a find each average distance:

(a) From its center.

(b) From a diameter.

(c) From a point on its boundary (consider  $\rho = 2a \cos \phi$ ).

25. For any homogeneous solid  $S$ , show that the average value of the linear function  $f(x, y, z) = ax + by + cz + d$  on  $S$  is  $f(\bar{x}, \bar{y}, \bar{z})$  where  $(\bar{x}, \bar{y}, \bar{z})$  is the center of mass.

26. A homogeneous solid sphere of radius  $a$  is centered at the origin. For the sector  $S$  bounded by the half-planes  $\theta = 0$  and  $\theta = \alpha$  (like a sector of an orange), find each value:

(a)  $x$ -coordinate of the center of mass.

(b) Average distance from the  $z$ -axis.

27. All spheres in this problem have radius  $a$ , constant density  $k$ , and mass  $m$ . Find in terms of  $a$  and  $m$  the moments of inertia:

(a)  $I_x = I_y = I_z$  (spherical).

(b) A solid sphere about a diameter.

(c) A solid sphere about a tangent line to its boundary (the Pappus–Guldinus Theorem holds also for solids; see Problem 3d of Section 11.5).





FIGURE 13.9.1

FIGURE 13.9.2 The two spheres used in Figure 13.9.3 about the  $y$ -axis

29. Suppose that the left sphere in Figure 13.9.2 has density  $\rho_1$  and the right sphere density  $\rho_2$ . Find the  $y$ -coordinate of the center of mass of this two-sphere “dumbbell” centered about the  $y$ -axis. (Problem 28 of Section 6.3 is also relevant.)

**Answers to Concepts Review:** 1.  $r \, dy \, dr \, d\theta$

$$2. \iint_R f(x, y) \, dA = 2 \int_0^{\pi} \int_0^{\pi/2} (4 \sin \theta \cos \theta) \, d\theta \, d\phi$$

$$3. \int_0^{\pi} \int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^2 \rho^3 \sin \theta \, d\rho \, d\theta \, d\phi = 4\pi$$

## 13.9

### Change of Variables in Multiple Integrals

The formulas

$$dx \, dy = r \, dr \, d\theta$$

$$dx \, dy \, dz = r \, dr \, d\theta \, dz$$

$$dx \, dy \, dz = \rho \sin \phi \, d\rho \, d\theta \, d\phi$$

are specific cases of a change-of-variable formula. They illustrate a general result that we develop in this section. Here,  $x$  represents one of the  $n$  multiple integrals; we review the concept of change of variables as substitutions in single integrals.

If  $u$  is a one-to-one function of a single variable, then  $g$  is an inverse of  $u$  if we know from Chapter 4 that

$$\int_a^b f(x) \, dx = \int_{g(a)}^{g(b)} f(u) \, du$$

Interchanging the roles of  $x$  and  $u$  allows us to write this as

$$\int_a^b f(x) \, dx = \int_{g(a)}^{g(b)} f(g(u)) \, g'(u) \, du$$

This last formula can be seen as the result of making the substitution  $u = g(x)$ . This formula for mapping is due to Jacobian (1834–1901). In this section we will develop an analogous formula for change of variables in multiple integrals. We begin by studying transformations from  $\mathbb{R}^2$  to  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

#### Terminology and Notation

A function  $f$  from a set  $A$  to a set  $B$  is said to be one-to-one if distinct elements  $x$  and  $y$  in  $A$  get mapped to distinct elements  $f(x)$  and  $f(y)$  in  $B$ . The function  $f$  is onto if its range consists of the set  $B$ . A function  $f$  that is one-to-one and onto is called an *isomorphism* (or *isomorphism*). If  $f$  is an isomorphism, then  $f^{-1}$  denotes the inverse of  $f$  and exists only if  $f$  is an isomorphism.



FIGURE 13.9.3

**Transformations from the  $uv$ -Plane to the  $xy$ -Plane** Let

$$x = x(u, v) \quad \text{and} \quad y = y(u, v)$$

and let

$$G(u, v) = (x(u, v), y(u, v))$$

The function  $G$  is a vector-valued function with a vector input. Such a function is called a **transformation** from  $\mathbb{R}^n$  to  $\mathbb{R}^m$ . (The vector input  $\mathbf{u} = (u, v)$  is called the **image** of the point  $(x, y)$  in the domain of  $G$ , and  $(x, y)$  is called the **preimage** of  $\mathbf{u}$ .) The **image** of a set  $S$  in the  $xy$ -plane is equal to the set of points  $\mathbf{r}$  in the  $uv$ -plane satisfying  $\mathbf{r} = G(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v})$  where  $(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v})$  is in  $S$ . The function  $G$  cannot be expressed in the ordinary way because it would require a two-dimensional image. We substitute the function as a mapping from points in the  $xy$ -plane to points in the  $uv$ -plane; the mapping is illustrated in Figure 13.9.1. This figure shows a grid in the  $xy$ -plane with lines parallel to the  $x$ - and  $y$ -axes and a mapping from points in the  $xy$ -plane to points in the  $uv$ -plane. The images of the  $x$ - and  $y$ -lines in the  $uv$ -plane are called  **$u$ -curves** if  $x$  is constant. The images of the  $x$ - and  $y$ -lines in the  $uv$ -plane are called  **$v$ -curves** if  $y$  is constant. Analogously, the images of functions  $G$  from  $\mathbb{R}^n$  to  $\mathbb{R}^m$  are called  **$u$ -curves** if  $x$

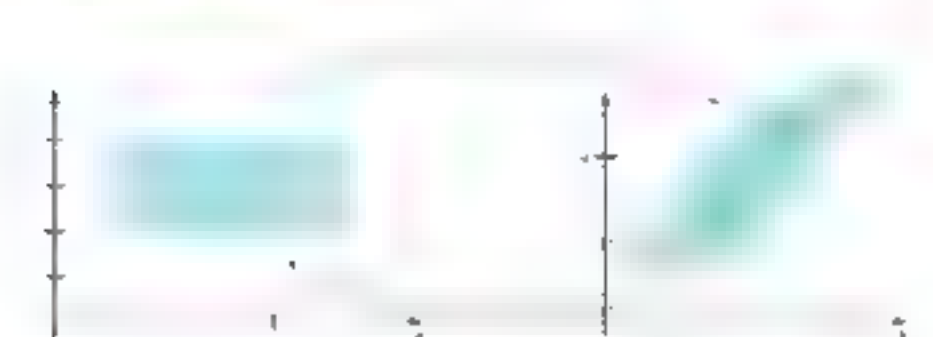


Figure 13.9.1

### EXAMPLE 13.9.1

**PROBLEM** Let  $G(u, v) = (x(u, v), y(u, v))$  be the transformation from the  $uv$ -plane to the  $xy$ -plane defined by  $x(u, v) = 2u + v$  and  $y(u, v) = u + 2v$ . Find and graph the  $u$ -curves and  $v$ -curves for  $G$  for the grids  $\{(u, v) : (u = 3, 4, 5 \text{ and } 1 \leq v \leq 4) \text{ or } (v = 1, 2, 3, 4 \text{ and } 3 \leq u \leq 5)\}$ .

**SOLUTION** If we solve the system

$$\begin{aligned} x &= 2u + v \\ y &= u + 2v \end{aligned}$$

for  $u$  and  $v$ , we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} u &= \frac{1}{3}x - \frac{1}{3}y \\ v &= \frac{1}{3}x + \frac{2}{3}y \end{aligned}$$

The  $u$ -curves are determined by

$$\frac{1}{3}x - \frac{1}{3}y = c \quad (c = 3, 4, 5)$$

This leads to the curves

$$x - y = 3c \quad (c = 3, 4, 5)$$

These are parallel lines, each having a slope of 1. Similarly, the  $v$ -curves are obtained by solving the equations

$$\frac{1}{3}x + \frac{2}{3}y = c \quad (c = 1, 2, 3, 4)$$

for  $y$  when  $C = 1, 2, 3$ , and  $4$ . The solution is

$$x = \frac{y^2}{4} - \frac{y}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + C.$$

These are also parallel lines, each having slope  $\frac{1}{2}$ . Figure 3 shows these curves. The  $u$ -curve for  $u = 1$  and the  $v$ -curve for  $v = 2$  are dashed.

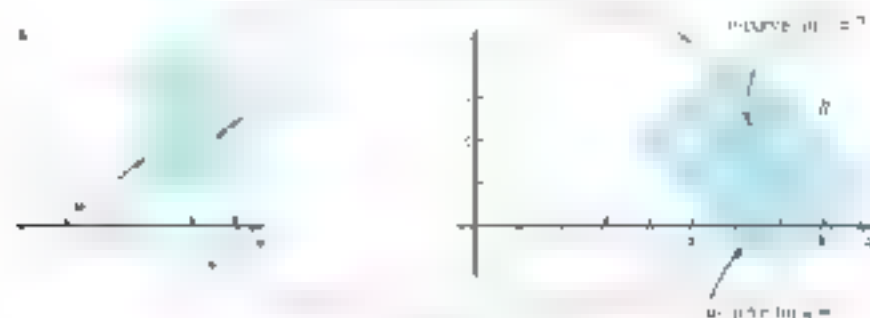


Figure 3

**EXAMPLE 2** For  $a > 0$  and  $v > 0$ , let

$$x = x(u, v) = u^2 + v^2$$

$$y = y(u, v) = uv$$

and

$$G(u, v) = \{x(u, v), y(u, v)\}.$$

(a) and graph the  $u$ -curves and  $v$ -curves for  $G$  for the grid  $u = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5$  and  $0 \leq v \leq 5$  in  $(u = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5$  and  $0 \leq v \leq 5)$  and identify the  $u$ -curve for  $u = 4$ .

**SOLUTION** In order to solve the system

$$x = u^2 + v^2$$

$$y = uv$$

for  $u$  and  $v$ , we solve the second equation for  $v$  in terms of  $u$  using the quadratic formula. Substituting this result into the first equation gives

$$x = u^2 + \frac{y^2}{u^2}$$

which is equivalent to

$$u^4 - xu^2 + y^2 = 0.$$

This is a quadratic equation in  $u^2$ , so we can apply the quadratic formula to obtain

$$u^2 = \frac{x \pm \sqrt{x^2 + 4y^2}}{2}.$$

(We may take the positive sign in the quadratic formula, otherwise the expression on the right side will be negative.) Thus,

$$u = \sqrt{\frac{x \pm \sqrt{x^2 + 4y^2}}{2}}$$

$$v = \frac{y}{u} = \frac{y}{\sqrt{\frac{x \pm \sqrt{x^2 + 4y^2}}{2}}}$$

These formulas apply so long as  $x = x(u, v) \neq 0$ . We leave it as an exercise to show that  $x(u, v) = 0$  if and only if  $u^2 + v^2 = 0$ . The  $u$ -curves are determined by

$$u = \sqrt{1 + \sqrt{x^2 + 4y^2}} \quad (u = 2, 3, 4, 5)$$

which simplifies as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} u^2 - 1 &= \sqrt{x^2 + 4y^2} \\ 4u^4 - 4u^2x + x^2 &= x^2 + 4y^2 \\ y^2 &= \frac{u^4 - u^2}{2} \end{aligned}$$

for  $u = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5$ . These are horizontal parabolas opening to the left. Similarly, the  $v$ -curves are determined by

$$\begin{aligned} v &= \sqrt{u^2 - 1} \\ v^2 + 1 &= u^2 \\ u^2 - v^2 &= 1 \\ \frac{u^4 - v^4}{(u^2 + v^2)^2} &= \frac{4x^2}{(u^2 + v^2)^2} \\ u^2 - v^2 &= 4x^2 \end{aligned}$$

These are horizontal parabolas opening to the right. The  $u$ - and  $v$ -curves are shown in Figure 4.

The curve corresponding to  $u = 4$  is  $u = 5$  is

$$u^2 - 1 = \sqrt{x^2 + 4y^2} \quad \frac{1}{4} = \sqrt{x^2 + 4y^2} \quad (u = 2)$$

This curve is the dashed curve in Figure 4.

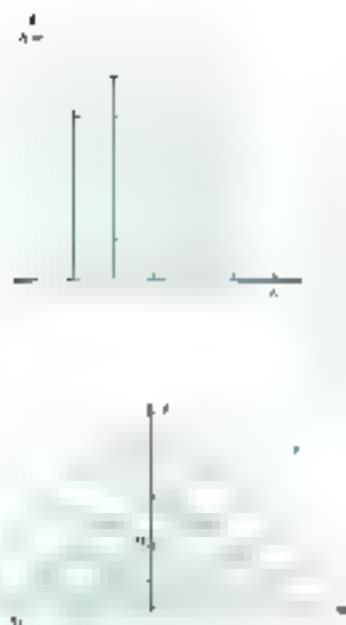
When making a change of variable in a single integral, such as  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ , we must take account

1. the integrand  $f(x)$ ,
2. the differential  $dx$ , and
3. the limits of integration.

For double integrals, such as  $\iint_R f(x, y) dx dy$ , the procedure is similar. We must take into account

1. the integrand  $f(x, y)$ ,
2. the differential  $dx dy$ , and
3. the region of integration.

The main result is given in the next theorem.



**Theorem 7.1** Change of Variables for Double Integrals

Suppose  $G$  is a one-to-one transformation from  $\mathcal{D}$  in the  $uv$ -plane which maps the bounded region  $\mathcal{D}$  in the  $uv$ -plane onto the bounded region  $R$  in the  $xy$ -plane. If  $G$  is of the form  $G(u, v) = (x(u, v), y(u, v))$ , then

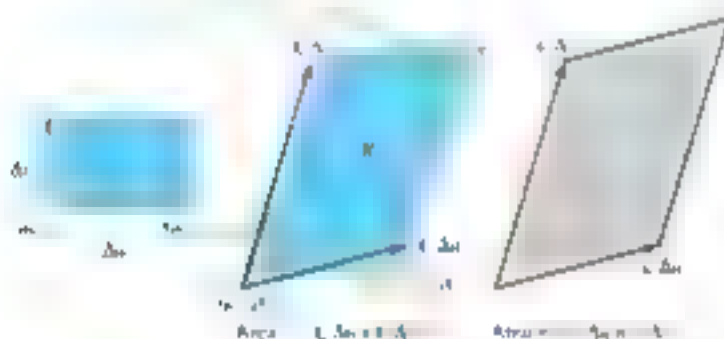
$$\iint_R f(x, y) dx dy = \iint_{\mathcal{D}} f(x(u, v), y(u, v)) |J(u, v)| du dv$$

where  $J(u, v)$ , called the **Jacobian**, is equal to the determinant

$$J(u, v) = \begin{vmatrix} x_u & x_v \\ y_u & y_v \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial v} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial v} \end{vmatrix}.$$

**Sketch of Proof** We begin in the  $xy$ -plane by taking a region partitioned by a partition in  $u$  of constant  $\Delta u$  and  $\Delta v$  of a rectangle containing  $\mathcal{D}$ . The image of this partition will be a grid with the region  $R$  at the center. In general, the  $u$ -curves and  $v$ -curves are not parallel to the  $x$ - and  $y$ -axes. In fact, the  $u$ -curves and the  $v$ -curves are usually not lines. Let  $(u_i, v_i)$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots$ , be over a corner of the first rectangle and let  $(x_i, y_i)$  be the image of  $(u_i, v_i)$  under the transformation  $G$ . Let  $\mathcal{R}_i$  denote the  $i$ th rectangle in the partition of the region  $\mathcal{D}$  and let  $R_i$  be its image in the  $xy$ -plane. See Figure 5. The double integral of  $f(x, y)$  is over  $R$  is then

$$\iint_R f(x, y) dx dy = \sum_{i=1}^n \iint_{R_i} f(x, y) dx dy \approx \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i, y_i) \Delta A_i$$



where  $\Delta A_i$  is the area of  $R_i$ . Although the region  $R_i$  is not a rectangle, however, resembles a parallelogram, so its area is found by finding a suitable parallelogram. In Section 12.6 we showed how we get the area of a parallelogram using the cross product of the two vectors that make up two sides. We must, here, find the two vectors that are tangent to the  $u$ -curve and the  $v$ -curve at  $(u_i, v_i)$ . We will show how the tangent vector to the  $u$ -curve is obtained; the tangent to the  $v$ -curve is obtained similarly. Suppose the  $(u_{i+1}, v_{i+1})$  is the image of  $(u_i, v_i)$  as shown in Figure 5. The vector from  $(u_i, v_i)$  to  $(u_{i+1}, v_{i+1})$  is then

$$\begin{aligned} (u_{i+1} - u_i)\mathbf{i} + (v_{i+1} - v_i)\mathbf{j} &= [x(u_{i+1}, v_{i+1}) - x(u_i, v_i)]\mathbf{i} \\ &\quad + [y(u_{i+1}, v_{i+1}) - y(u_i, v_i)]\mathbf{j} \\ &\approx \Delta u \frac{\partial x}{\partial u}(u_i, v_i)\mathbf{i} + \Delta u \frac{\partial y}{\partial u}(u_i, v_i)\mathbf{j} \\ &= \Delta u \left( \frac{\partial x}{\partial u}(u_i, v_i)\mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial y}{\partial u}(u_i, v_i)\mathbf{j} \right), \end{aligned}$$

The vector in parentheses which we will call  $\mathbf{t}_1$  is tangent to the  $u$ -curve through  $(x_2, y_2)$ . Similarly the vector

$$\mathbf{t}_2 = \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial v}(u_2, v_2) \mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial v}(u_2, v_2) \mathbf{j}$$

is tangent to the  $v$ -curve through  $(x_2, y_2)$ . The area  $\Delta A_2$  of the region  $R_2$  is therefore

$$\Delta A_2 \approx |\Delta u \mathbf{t}_1 \times \Delta v \mathbf{t}_2|$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ \Delta u \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial u}(u_2, v_2) & \Delta v \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial v}(u_2, v_2) & 0 \\ \Delta u \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial u}(u_1, v_1) & \Delta v \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial v}(u_1, v_1) & 0 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$\Delta u \Delta v \begin{vmatrix} u_2 & v_2 & 0 \\ u_1 & v_1 & 0 \\ u_1 & v_1 & 0 \end{vmatrix} \mathbf{k}$$

$$\Delta u \Delta v \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial u} \\ \frac{\partial x}{\partial v} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial v} \end{vmatrix} \mathbf{k}$$

$$J(u_2, v_2) \Delta u \Delta v$$

Thus we have

$$\begin{aligned} \iint_R f(x, y) \, dA &= \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i, y_i) \Delta A_i \\ &\approx \sum_{i=1}^n f(u_i, v_i) J(u_i, v_i) \Delta u \Delta v \\ &= \iint_R f(x(u, v), y(u, v)) |J(u, v)| \, du \, dv \end{aligned}$$

This completes the sketch of the proof.  $\blacksquare$

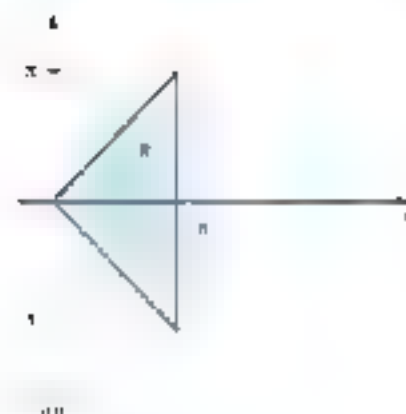
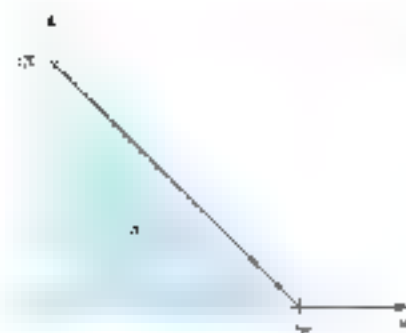
**EXAMPLE 1** Evaluate  $\iint_R \cos(x^2 + y^2) \, dA$ , where  $R$  is the triangle with vertices  $(0, 0)$ ,  $(\pi, -\pi)$ , and  $(\pi, \pi)$ .

**SOLUTION** Let  $x = u - v$  and  $y = u + v$ . Solving for  $u$  and  $v$  gives  $u = (x + y)/2$  and  $v = (y - x)/2$ . The region  $R$  can be specified as

$$\begin{aligned} u &\geq 0 \\ 0 &\leq v \leq u \end{aligned}$$

Substituting  $u$  and  $v$  gives

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^\pi \int_0^u \cos(u^2 - v^2) \, dv \, du &= \int_0^\pi \int_0^\pi \cos(u^2 - v^2) \, dv \, du \\ &= \int_0^\pi \int_0^\pi \cos(u^2 - v^2) \, dv \, du \end{aligned}$$



which reduces to

$$\begin{aligned}u &\leq 4 \quad r = 4 \\0 &\leq u + v \leq 2\pi\end{aligned}$$

This is the region  $S$  in the  $uv$ -plane (see Figure 6). The description of this region is

$$S = \left\{ (u, v) \mid \begin{array}{l} -4 \leq u \leq 4 \\ -4 \leq v \leq 4 \\ u + v \geq 0 \end{array} \right\}.$$

Thus

$$\begin{aligned}\iint_R (\cos u - 1) \sin v \, dA &= \iint_S (\cos u - 1) \sin v \, r \, du \, dv \\&= \frac{1}{2} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \int_{-4}^4 (\cos u - 1) \sin v \, du \, dv \\&= \frac{1}{2} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \left( \sin v \left[ \sin u - u \right]_{-4}^4 \right) dv \\&= \frac{1}{2} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} (\cos 4 - \cos v) \sin v \, dv \\&= \frac{1}{2} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} (\cos 4 - \cos^2 v) \, dv \\&= \frac{1}{2} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \left( \cos 4 - \frac{1 + \cos 2v}{2} \right) dv \\&= \frac{1}{2} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \left( \cos 4 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \cos 2v \right) dv \\&= \frac{1}{2} \left( \sin v - \frac{v}{2} + \frac{1}{4} \sin 2v \right) \Big|_{-\pi}^{\pi} = \frac{1}{2} \pi. \quad \blacksquare\end{aligned}$$

The region of integration often suggests a good choice for the next example.

**EXAMPLE 7.4** Find the center of mass of the region  $R$  in the first quadrant, bounded by

$$x^2 + y^2 = 16 \quad y^2 - x^2 = 9$$

if the density is proportional to the square of the distance from the origin.

**SOLUTION** The mass is  $\iint_R k(x^2 + y^2) \, dx \, dy$ . Although the integrand is simple, this is a difficult integral to evaluate because the limits are complicated. However, the substitutions  $u = x^2 + y^2$  and  $v = y^2 - x^2$  transform the region  $R$  to the region  $S$ , which in the  $uv$ -plane is the rectangle

$$9 \leq u \leq 16 \quad \text{and} \quad 0 \leq v \leq 9$$

(See Figure 7.) Solving for  $x$  and  $y$  in the system  $u = x^2 + y^2$  and  $v = y^2 - x^2$  gives



The Jacobian for the transformation is therefore

$$J(u, v) = \begin{vmatrix} x_u & x_v \\ y_u & y_v \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} u & v \\ v & u \end{vmatrix} = u^2 - v^2 = \sqrt{u^2 - v^2} \cdot \sqrt{u^2 - v^2} = 4\sqrt{u^2 - v^2}$$

The region  $R$  is then

$$\begin{aligned} M_1 &= \iint_R (x^2 + y^2) \, dx \, dy = k \iint_D (u^2 + v^2) \, du \, dv \\ &= \frac{k}{2} \int_0^1 \int_0^u \frac{u^2 + v^2}{\sqrt{u^2 - v^2}} \, dv \, du \\ &= \frac{k}{2} \int_0^1 \left( \sqrt{u^2 - v^2} + u^2 \right) \, dv \\ &= \frac{k}{2} \int_0^1 \left( \sqrt{16 - v^2} + \sqrt{41 - v^2} \right) \, dv \\ &= \frac{k}{2} \left( \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{16}{\sqrt{16}} + 2\sqrt{16} \right) \arcsin \frac{v}{4} + \frac{41}{2} \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{41}} + \frac{2}{\sqrt{41}} \right) \arcsin \frac{v}{\sqrt{41}} \right) \Big|_0^1 \\ &= 128 \arcsin \frac{1}{16} + 2\sqrt{41} + \frac{81}{2} \arcsin \frac{1}{9} \approx 16.343k \end{aligned}$$

The integral in the third line here could be evaluated using Formula 54 from the table of integrals at the back of the book, or with a CAS; the moments are

$$\begin{aligned} M_1 &= \iint_R k(x^2 + y^2) \, dx \, dy = k \iint_D \frac{u^2 + v^2}{\sqrt{u^2 - v^2}} \, du \, dv \\ &= \frac{k}{4\sqrt{2}} \int_0^{16} \int_0^u \frac{u\sqrt{u^2 - v^2}}{\sqrt{u^2 - v^2}} \, dv \, du \\ &= \frac{k}{4\sqrt{2}} \int_0^{16} \int_0^u \frac{u}{\sqrt{u^2 - v^2}} \, dv \, du \\ &= \frac{k}{4\sqrt{2}} \int_0^{16} \left( u\sqrt{u^2 - v^2} + u\sqrt{u^2 - v^2} \right) \, dv \\ &= \frac{k}{2} \left( \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{16}{\sqrt{16}} + 2\sqrt{16} \right) \arcsin \frac{v}{4} + \frac{41}{2} \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{41}} + \frac{2}{\sqrt{41}} \right) \arcsin \frac{v}{\sqrt{41}} \right) \Big|_0^1 \approx 16.343k \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} M_2 &= \iint_R k(x^2 + y^2) \, dx \, dy = k \iint_D \frac{u^2 + v^2}{\sqrt{u^2 - v^2}} \, du \, dv \\ &= \frac{k}{4\sqrt{2}} \int_0^{16} \int_0^u \frac{u\sqrt{u^2 - v^2}}{\sqrt{u^2 - v^2}} \, dv \, du \\ &= \frac{k}{4\sqrt{2}} \int_0^{16} \int_0^u \frac{u}{\sqrt{u^2 - v^2}} \, dv \, du \\ &= \frac{k}{2\sqrt{2}} \int_0^{16} \left( u\sqrt{u^2 - v^2} + u\sqrt{u^2 - v^2} \right) \, dv \\ &= \frac{k}{2\sqrt{2}} \left( \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{16}{\sqrt{16}} + 2\sqrt{16} \right) \arcsin \frac{v}{4} + \frac{41}{2} \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{41}} + \frac{2}{\sqrt{41}} \right) \arcsin \frac{v}{\sqrt{41}} \right) \Big|_0^1 \approx 48.376k \end{aligned}$$



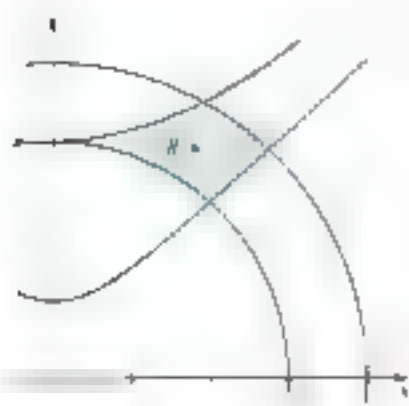


FIGURE 13.6.1

The integrals on the third line can be evaluated using Formula 26 from the table of integrals or by using a CAS. The coordinates of the center of mass are

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{x} &= \frac{M_y}{m} \approx \frac{29.6618}{16.3436} \approx 1.814 \\ \bar{y} &= \frac{M_x}{m} \approx \frac{48.5768}{16.3436} \approx 2.960\end{aligned}$$

The point  $(\bar{x}, \bar{y}) = (1.814, 2.960)$  is shown in Figure 2.

**THEOREM 13.6.1 (The Change of Variables Formula)** **THEOREM A** generalizes the triple integral in higher-dimensional spaces. Let  $T$  be a one-to-one transformation from  $T$  in  $uvw$ -space to  $R$  in  $xyz$ -space, and if  $G$  is in the form  $G(x, y, z) = f(u, v, w)$ , then

$$\iiint_R f(x, y, z) \, dx \, dy \, dz = \iiint_T f(x(u, v, w), y(u, v, w), z(u, v, w)) |J(u, v, w)| \, du \, dv \, dw$$

where  $J(u, v, w)$  is the Jacobian.

$$J(u, v, w) = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial v} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial w} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial v} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial w} \\ \frac{\partial z}{\partial u} & \frac{\partial z}{\partial v} & \frac{\partial z}{\partial w} \end{vmatrix}$$

**EXAMPLE 13.6.1** Derive the change of variable formula  $dx \, dy \, dz = r \, dr \, d\theta \, dz$  for the transformation to cylindrical coordinates.

**SOLUTION** Since the change of variables is  $x = r \cos \theta$ ,  $y = r \sin \theta$ , and  $z = z$ , the Jacobian is

$$\begin{aligned}J(r, \theta, z) &= \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial \theta} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial z} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial \theta} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial z} \\ \frac{\partial z}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial z}{\partial \theta} & \frac{\partial z}{\partial z} \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} \cos \theta & -r \sin \theta & 0 \\ \sin \theta & r \cos \theta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} \\ &= \begin{vmatrix} r \cos \theta & 0 \\ r \sin \theta & 0 \end{vmatrix} = r \cos \theta \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} - r \sin \theta \begin{vmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{vmatrix} \\ &= r \cos \theta - r \sin \theta = r\end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$dx \, dy \, dz = J(r, \theta, z) \, dr \, d\theta \, dz = r \, dr \, d\theta \, dz$$

We leave it as an exercise (Problem 2) to derive the relationship  $dx \, dy \, dz = \rho \, d\rho \, d\phi \, d\psi$  for spherical coordinates.

## Concepts Review

1. Under a transformation from the  $xy$ -plane to the  $uv$ -plane, the image of a vertical line is called a          and the image of a horizontal line is called a         .

2. A change of variable for a double integral must take into account          and         .

3. The Jacobian of the transformation  $u = u(x, y)$  and  $v = v(x, y)$  is called the         .
4. The formula for a change of variable in a double integral is  $\iint_R f(x, y) \, dx \, dy = \iint_{R'} f(u, v) \left| \frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(u, v)} \right| \, du \, dv$ .

## Problem Set 13.9

1. For the transformation  $u = x + y$ ,  $v = x - y$ , sketch the  $u$ -curves and  $v$ -curves for the grid  $\{(u, v) : u = 2, 3, 4, 5 \text{ and } 1 \leq v \leq 3 \text{ or } (v = 1, 2, 3 \text{ and } 2 \leq u \leq 5)\}$ .

2. For the transformation  $x = 2u + v$ ,  $y = u - v$ , sketch the  $u$ -curves and  $v$ -curves for the grid  $\{(u, v) : u = 2, 3, 4, 5 \text{ and } 1 \leq v \leq 3 \text{ or } (v = 1, 2, 3 \text{ and } 2 \leq u \leq 5)\}$ .

3. For the transformation  $x = u \cos v$ ,  $y = u \sin v$ , sketch the  $u$ -curves and  $v$ -curves for the grid  $\{(u, v) : u = 1, 2, 3 \text{ and } 0 \leq v \leq \pi \text{ or } v = 0, 2, \pi \text{ and } 1 \leq u \leq 3\}$ .

4. For the transformation  $u = u \cos v$ ,  $y = u \sin v$ , sketch the  $u$ -curves and  $v$ -curves for the grid  $\{(u, v) : u = 1, 2, 3 \text{ and } 0 \leq v \leq 2\pi \text{ or } v = 0, 2\pi \text{ and } 1 \leq u \leq 3\}$ .

5. For the transformation  $x = u/(u^2 + v^2)$ ,  $y = v/(u^2 + v^2)$ , sketch the  $u$ -curves and  $v$ -curves for the grid  $\{(u, v) : u = 0, 1, 2, 3 \text{ and } 1 \leq v \leq 3\}$  or  $\{(v = 1, 2, 3 \text{ and } 1 \leq u \leq 3)\}$ .

6. For the transformation  $u = u/(u^2 + v^2)$ ,  $y = v/(u^2 + v^2)$ , sketch the  $u$ -curves and  $v$ -curves for the grid  $\{(u, v) : u = -2, -1, 0, 1, 2 \text{ and } 1 \leq v \leq 3\}$  or  $\{(v = 1, 2, 3 \text{ and } 1 \leq u \leq 3)\}$ .

In Problems 7–10, find the image of the rectangle with the given corners and find the Jacobian of the transformation.

7.  $x = u + v$ ,  $y = u - v$ ,  $(0, 0)$ ,  $(1, 0)$ ,  $(1, 1)$ ,  $(0, 1)$
8.  $x = u + v$ ,  $y = u - v$ ,  $(0, 0)$ ,  $(1, 0)$ ,  $(1, 1)$ ,  $(0, 1)$
9.  $x = u + v$ ,  $y = u - v$ ,  $(0, 0)$ ,  $(1, 0)$ ,  $(1, 1)$ ,  $(0, 1)$
10.  $x = u + v$ ,  $y = u - v$ ,  $(0, 0)$ ,  $(1, 0)$ ,  $(1, 1)$ ,  $(0, 1)$

In Problems 11–16, find the transformation from the  $xy$ -plane to the  $uv$ -plane and find the Jacobian. Assume that  $x \geq 0$  and  $y \geq 0$ .

11.  $u = x + y$ ,  $v = x - y$
12.  $x = u + v$ ,  $y = u - v$
13.  $u = x + y$ ,  $v = x - y$
14.  $u = x + y$ ,  $v = x - y$
15.  $u = x + y$ ,  $v = x - y$
16.  $u = x + y$ ,  $v = x - y$

In Problems 17–20, find the transformation from the  $xy$ -plane to the  $uv$ -plane and find the Jacobian. Assume that  $x \geq 0$  and  $y \geq 0$ .

17.  $u = x + y$ ,  $v = x - y$

18.  $\iint_R \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} \, dx \, dy$
19.  $\iint_R \sin(2x - y) \cos(\pi(y - x)) \, dx \, dy$
20.  $\iint_R (2x - y) \cos(y - 2x) \, dx \, dy$

21. Find the Jacobian for the transformation from rectangular coordinates to spherical coordinates.

22. Find the volume of the ellipsoid  $A^2 x^2 + B^2 y^2 + C^2 z^2 = 1$  by making the change of variables  $x = au$ ,  $y = bv$ , and  $z = cw$ . Also find the moment of inertia of the solid about the  $z$ -axis assuming that it has constant density  $\delta$ .

23. Suppose  $X$  and  $Y$  are continuous random variables with joint PDF  $f(x, y)$  and suppose  $U$  and  $V$  are random variables that are functions of  $X$  and  $Y$  such that the transformation

$$U = u(X, Y) \quad \text{and} \quad V = v(X, Y)$$

is one-to-one. Show that the joint PDF of  $U$  and  $V$  is

$$g(u, v) = f(x(u, v), y(u, v)) \left| \frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(u, v)} \right|$$

Hint: Let  $R$  be a region in the  $xy$ -plane and let  $S$  be its preimage. Show that  $P((X, Y) \in R) = P((U, V) \in S)$  and get your desired integral for each of these.

24. Suppose that the random variables  $X$  and  $Y$  have joint PDF

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} 2 & \text{if } 0 \leq x \leq 1 \text{ and } 0 \leq y \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

that is,  $X$  and  $Y$  are uniformly distributed over the square  $0 \leq x \leq 1$ ,  $0 \leq y \leq 1$ .

- (a) the joint PDF of  $U = X + Y$  and  $V = X - Y$  and  
(b) the marginal PDF of  $U$ .

25. Suppose  $X$  and  $Y$  have joint PDF

$$f(x, y) = \begin{cases} 2 & \text{if } 0 \leq x \leq 1 \text{ and } 0 \leq y \leq 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Find

- (a) the joint PDF of  $U = X + Y$  and  $V = X - Y$   
(b) the marginal PDF of  $U$ .

In Problems 26–28, find the transformation from the  $xy$ -plane to the  $uv$ -plane and find the Jacobian. Assume that  $x \geq 0$  and  $y \geq 0$ .

26. Find the volume of the solid  $z = 1 - x^2 - y^2$  above the  $xy$ -plane. Use the transformation  $u = x + y$ ,  $v = x - y$ .

## 13.10 Chapter Review

## Concepts Test

Respond with true or false to each of the following statements. Be prepared to defend your answer.

- $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 x^2 y^2 \, dx \, dy = \int_0^1 \int_0^1 x^2 y^2 \, dy \, dx$
- $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 f(x, y) \, dy \, dx = \int_0^1 \int_0^1 f(x, y) \, dx \, dy$
- $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \sin(\pi^2 y^2) \, dx \, dy =$
- $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 (x^2 + y^2) \, dx \, dy = 2 \int_0^1 \int_0^1 x^2 \, dx \, dy$
- $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \sin^2(xy) \, dx \, dy =$
- If  $f$  is continuous and nonnegative on  $R$  and  $(x_0, y_0) > 0$ , where  $(x_0, y_0)$  is an interior point of  $R$ , then  $\iint_R f(x, y) \, dA > 0$ .
- If  $\iint_R f(x, y) \, dA \leq \iint_R g(x, y) \, dA$ , then  $f(x, y) \leq g(x, y)$  on  $R$ .
- If  $f(x, y) \geq 0$  on  $R$  and  $\iint_R f(x, y) \, dA = 0$ , then  $f(x, y) = 0$  for all  $(x, y)$  in  $R$ .
- If  $R: x, y = k$  gives the density of a lamina at  $(x, y)$ , the coordinates of the center of mass of the lamina do not involve  $k$ .
- If  $R: x, y = y/(1 - x^2)$  gives the density of the lamina  $\{(x, y): 0 \leq x \leq 1, 0 \leq y \leq 1\}$ , we know without calculating that  $\bar{x} < \frac{1}{2}$  and  $\bar{y} > \frac{1}{2}$ .
- If  $S = \{(x, y, z): 1 \leq x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \leq 16\}$ , then  $\iiint_S dV = 16\pi$ .
- If the top of a right circular cylinder of radius 1 is sliced off by a plane that makes an angle of  $60^\circ$  with the base of the cylinder, the area of the resulting slanted top is  $2\sqrt{3}$  or 3.
- There are eight possible orders of integration for a triple integral in  $xyz$ -space.
- $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \int_0^1 xyz \, dx \, dy \, dz$  represents the volume of a right circular cylinder of radius 1 and height 1.
- If  $f_x \leq 2$  and  $f_y \leq 2$ , then the surface is determined by  $z = 2x + 2y + c$ , where  $c$  is a constant.
- For the transformation from Cartesian to polar coordinates, the Jacobian is  $J(r, \theta) = r$ .
- For the transformation  $x = 2u, y = v$ , the Jacobian is  $J(u, v) =$

## Sample Test Problems

In Problems 1–4, evaluate each integral.

- $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 (x + y) \, dx \, dy$
- $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 (x + y) \, dy \, dx$
- $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 r \cos \theta \, dr \, d\theta$
- $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2 + z^2} \, dx \, dy \, dz$

In Problems 5–8, rewrite the iterated integral with the indicated order of integration. Make a sketch first.

- $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 f(x, y) \, dy \, dx \, dz \, dy$
- $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \int_0^1 (x + y + z) \, dx \, dy \, dz$
- $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \int_0^1 x^2 \int_0^{1-x} f(x, y) \, dy \, dx \, dz$
- $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2 + z^2} \, dx \, dy \, dz$

9. Write the triple iterated integrals for the volume of a sphere of radius  $a$  in each case.

- Cartesian coordinates
- Cylindrical coordinates

10. Evaluate the iterated integral.

- Evaluate  $\iint_S (x + y) \, dA$ , where  $S$  is the region bounded by  $y = \sin x$  and  $y = 0$  between  $x = 0$  and  $x = \pi$ .

- Evaluate  $\iiint_S z^2 \, dV$ , where  $S$  is the region bounded by  $z = 0$  and  $z = 1 - x - y$ .

- Evaluate  $\iint_S \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2} \, dA$ , where  $S$  is the region between the circles  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$  and  $x^2 + y^2 = 9$ .

- Find the center of mass of the rectangular lamina bounded by  $x = 1, x = 3, y = 0$ , and  $y = 2$  if the density is  $\delta(x, y) = 1 - x$ .

- Find the moment of inertia of the lamina of Problem 13 with respect to the  $x$ -axis.

- Find the area of the surface of the cylinder  $x^2 + y^2 = 9$  lying in the first octant between the planes  $y = 2$  and  $y = 3$ .

- Evaluate by changing to cylindrical or spherical coordinates.

- $\int_0^1 \int_0^{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \int_0^{\sqrt{1-x^2-y^2}} \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \, dz \, dy \, dx$

$$(b) \int_0^2 \int_0^{\sqrt{4-x^2}} \int_0^{\sqrt{4-x^2-y^2}} z \sqrt{4-x^2-y^2} \, dz \, dy \, dx$$

17. Find the mass of the solid between the spheres  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$  and  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 9$  if the density is proportional to the distance from the origin.

18. Find the center of mass of the homogeneous region bounded by the cardioid  $r = 4 + \sin \theta$ .

19. Find the mass of the solid in the first octant under the plane  $x/a + y/b + z/c = 1$ , ( $a, b, c$  positive) if the density is  $\delta(x, y, z) = kx$ .

20. Compute the volume of the solid bounded by  $z = x + y + 1 = 0$ , and  $x + y = 0$ .

21. Use a transformation to evaluate the integral

$$\iint_R \sin(x - y) \cos(x + y) \, dA$$

where  $R$  is the rectangle with vertices  $(0, 0)$ ,  $(\pi/2, \pi/2)$ ,  $(\pi, 0)$ , and  $(\pi/2, \pi/2)$ .

# REVIEW & PREVIEW PROBLEMS

In Problems 1–9, find parametric equations for the given curve. Be sure to give the domain for the parameter  $t$ .

- The circle centered at the origin having radius 3
- The circle centered at  $(-1, 1)$  having radius 1
- The semicircle  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$  with  $y \geq 0$
- The semicircle  $x^2 + y^2 = 9$  with  $y \leq 0$  having a clockwise orientation
- That part of the line  $y = x^2$  between the points  $(-2, 2)$  and  $(3, 9)$
- That part of the line  $y = 9 - x$  that is in the first quadrant with an orientation that is down and to the right
- That part of the line  $y = 9 - x$  that is in the first quadrant with an orientation that is up and to the left
- That part of the parabola  $y = x^2$  that is above the  $x$ -axis having an orientation that is to the right
- That part of the parabola  $y = x^2$  that is above the  $x$ -axis having an orientation that is to the left
- That part of the parabola  $y = x^2$  that is above the  $x$ -axis having an orientation that is to the right
- That part of the parabola  $y = x^2$  that is above the  $x$ -axis having an orientation that is to the left

In Problems 11–16, find the gradient of the given function.

11.  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$

12.  $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$

13.  $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$

14.  $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$

15.  $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$

16.  $f(x, y, z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}}$

Evaluate the integrals in Problems 17–22.

17.  $\int_0^1 \sin x \, dx$

18.  $\int_0^1 \sin x \, dx$

19.  $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 x \, dx \, dy$

20.  $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 x \, dx \, dy$

21.  $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 x \, dx \, dy$

22.  $\int_0^1 \int_0^1 \int_0^1 x \sin x \, dx \, dy \, dz$

23. The integral in Problem 22 represents the volume of some region in three space. What is this region?

24. Find the surface area of that part of the paraboloid  $z = 144 - x^2 - y^2$  that lies above the plane  $z = 4$ .

25. Find a unit normal vector to the graph of  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 16$  at the point  $(3, 4, -2)$ .

- 11 Vector Fields
- 14.1 Line Integrals
- 11.2 Independence of Path
- 11.3 Green's Theorem in the Plane
- 14.2 Surface Integrals
- 11.4 Gauss's Divergence Theorem
- 11.5 Stokes's Theorem

## 14.1

## Vector Fields

The concept of a function has proved a central role in calculus. This concept and the associated calculus has been steadily generalized. Most of the new work in calculus has been in functions where the input is a given number and the output is a real number. In this chapter, we will extend the idea of functions to functions whose input is a real number and whose output is a vector. Then in Chapter 12 we introduced real-valued functions of several variables, that is, functions whose input is a point in triple (or double) space and whose output is a real number. So in this chapter, we study functions whose input is a vector and whose output is a vector. Now is the time to put in the second meaning for  $\mathbf{F}$ .

Consider then a function  $\mathbf{F}$  that associates with each point  $\mathbf{p}$  in  $n$ -space a vector  $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{p})$ . A typical example in two space is

$$\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{p}) = \mathbf{F}(x, y) = -\frac{1}{2}y\mathbf{i} + x\mathbf{j}.$$

For historical reasons, we refer to such a function as a **vector field**, a name passing from vector fields to fields to describe things in fluid mechanics.  $\mathbf{p}$  is a point in  $n$ -space, called a vector  $\mathbf{p}$  emanating from  $\mathbf{p}$ . We cannot draw all these vectors, but a representative sample can give us a good intuitive picture of a field. Figure 1 shows such a picture for the vector field  $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = -\frac{1}{2}y\mathbf{i} + x\mathbf{j}$  in two space. It is the velocity field of a wheel spinning with constant angular velocity per unit of time (see Example 2, Figure 2, right, section 11.4). The velocity at any point  $\mathbf{p}$  is a curve, path.

Other vector fields that give rise physically to motion paths in the plane, in the 3-space, in the  $n$ -space, exist. We will use them in Chapter 12. Now, let us describe the properties of fields where we call them **vector fields**. We consider a vector field a function  $\mathbf{F}$  that takes a number, such points in space, called a **scalar field**. The function that gives the magnitude can be called a **scalar field**. A typical example of a scalar field

**EXAMPLE 1** We can take a representative sample of vectors for the vector field

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y) = \frac{x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j}}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}}.$$

**SOLUTION**  $\mathbf{F}(x, y)$  is a unit vector pointing in the same direction as  $x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j}$  that is, away from the origin. Several such vectors are shown in Figure 3. ■

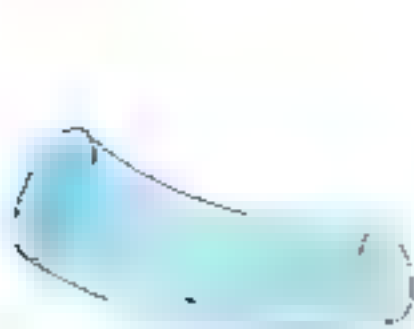
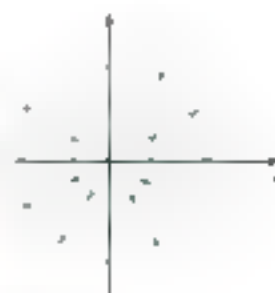


Figure 2



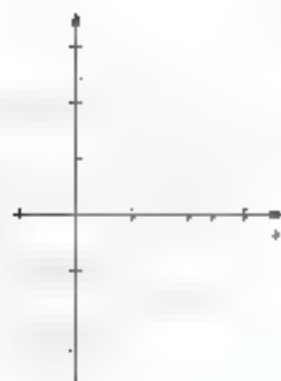


FIGURE 4



FIGURE 5

**EXAMPLE 3** Sketch a representative sample of vectors from the vector field

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y) = -\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{x}\mathbf{i} + \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{y}\mathbf{j}$$

and show that each vector is tangent to a circle centered at the origin and has length equal to one-half the radius of that circle (see Figure 1).

**SOLUTION** Figure 4 shows a plot of the vector field. If  $\mathbf{r} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j}$  is the position vector of the point  $(x, y)$  then

$$\mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{F}(x, y) = -\frac{1}{2}x\sqrt{x} + \frac{1}{2}y\sqrt{y} = 0$$

Thus  $\mathbf{F}(x, y)$  is perpendicular to  $\mathbf{r}$  and is therefore tangent to the circle of radius  $r$ . Finally

$$\|\mathbf{F}(x, y)\| = \sqrt{\left(-\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{x}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{y}\right)^2} = \frac{1}{2}r$$

A measure of Isaac Newton's law of gravitation is the magnitude of the force of attraction between objects of mass  $M$  and  $m$ , respectively, is given by  $G(Mm)/r^2$ , where  $G$  is the constant between the objects and  $r$  is the distance between them. This is the primary law of Newton's law of gravitational attraction. If applied to two objects, an attractive force field is created. Since the vectors represent forces, we will call such a field a **force field**.

**EXAMPLE 4** Suppose that a spherical object of mass  $M$  (e.g., the earth) is centered at the origin. Derive the formula for the gravitational force  $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z)$  exerted by this mass on an object of mass  $m$  located at point  $(x, y, z)$  in space. Then sketch this field.

**SOLUTION** We assume that we are near the object, so we treat it as a point mass located at the origin. Let  $\mathbf{r} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$ . Then  $\mathbf{F}$  has magnitude

$$\|\mathbf{F}\| = \frac{GMm}{r^2}$$

The direction of  $\mathbf{F}$  is toward the origin. That is,  $\mathbf{F}$  has the direction of the unit vector  $-\mathbf{r}/r$ . We conclude that

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = \frac{GMm}{r^2} \left( \frac{-\mathbf{r}}{r} \right) = -\frac{GMm}{r^3} \mathbf{r} = -\frac{GMm}{r^3} (x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k})$$

This field is sketched in Figure 5.

**The Gradient of a Scalar Field** Let  $f(x, y, z)$  determine a scalar field and suppose that  $f$  is differentiable. Then the gradient of  $f$  will lead to  $\nabla f$ , the vector field given by

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = \nabla f(x, y, z) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \mathbf{j} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \mathbf{k}$$

We first met gradient fields in Sections 14.4 and 14.5. There we learned that  $\nabla f(x, y, z)$  points in the direction of greatest increase of  $f(x, y, z)$ . A vector field  $\mathbf{F}$  that is the gradient of a scalar field is called a **conservative vector field**, and  $f$  is its **potential function**. In our previous examples, we have noticed that such fields are then potential functions are important in physics. In particular, fields that obey the inverse-square law (e.g., electric fields and gravitational fields) are conservative, as we now show.

**EXAMPLE 4** Let  $\mathbf{F}$  be the force resulting from an inverse-square law that is electric

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = \frac{q_1 q_2}{r^3} (x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k})$$

where  $c$  is a constant (see Example 3). Show that

$$f(x, y, z) = \frac{c}{2} (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{-1/2}$$

is a potential function for  $\mathbf{F}$  and therefore that  $\mathbf{F}$  is conservative (for  $r \neq 0$ ).

**SOLUTION** We have

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla f(x, y, z) &= \frac{dc}{2} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{-1/2} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{-1/2} + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{-1/2} \right) \\ &= \mathbf{F}(x, y, z).\end{aligned}$$

Example 1 was really too easy since we were given the function  $f$ . A much harder and more significant problem is that of finding a vector field  $\mathbf{F}$  whose circulation is conservative and that is not a potential function. We discuss this problem in Section 14.3.

Associated with a vector field  $\mathbf{F} = M\mathbf{i} + N\mathbf{j} + P\mathbf{k}$  are two other important fields. With a given vector field

$$\mathbf{F} = M(x, y, z)\mathbf{i} + N(x, y, z)\mathbf{j} + P(x, y, z)\mathbf{k}$$

are associated two other important fields. The first, called the **divergence** of  $\mathbf{F}$ , is a scalar field; the second, called the **curl** of  $\mathbf{F}$ , is a vector field.

### Definition: div and curl

Let  $\mathbf{F} = M\mathbf{i} + N\mathbf{j} + P\mathbf{k}$  be a vector field for which the first-order derivatives of  $M$ ,  $N$ , and  $P$  exist. Then

$$\begin{aligned}\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F} &= \frac{\partial M}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial N}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial P}{\partial z} \\ \operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F} &= \left( \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial N}{\partial z} \right) \mathbf{i} - \left( \frac{\partial M}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial x} \right) \mathbf{j} + \left( \frac{\partial N}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial M}{\partial y} \right) \mathbf{k}\end{aligned}$$

At this point, it is hard to see the significance of these fields. However, an important idea is that, in a certain sense, to find out how to calculate  $\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F}$  is to find out how to calculate the divergence of the gradient operator  $\nabla$ . Recall that  $\nabla$  is the operator

$$\nabla = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \mathbf{j} + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \mathbf{k}.$$

When  $\nabla$  operates on a function  $f$ , it produces the gradient  $\nabla f$ , which we will also write as  $\operatorname{grad} f$ . But  $\nabla$  is a **vector** operator, and as such, it can be applied to a vector field  $\mathbf{F}$  as well.

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} &= \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \mathbf{j} + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \mathbf{k} \right) \cdot (M\mathbf{i} + N\mathbf{j} + P\mathbf{k}) \\ &= \frac{\partial M}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial N}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial P}{\partial z} = \operatorname{div} \mathbf{F} \\ \nabla \times \mathbf{F} &= \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ M & N & P \end{vmatrix} \\ &= \left( \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial N}{\partial z} \right) \mathbf{i} - \left( \frac{\partial M}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial x} \right) \mathbf{j} + \left( \frac{\partial N}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial M}{\partial y} \right) \mathbf{k} = \operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F}\end{aligned}$$

Thus,  $\operatorname{grad} f$ ,  $\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F}$ , and  $\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F}$  can all be written in terms of the operator  $\nabla$ . This is the way to remember how these fields are defined.

To help you visualize the divergence and curl of a vector field, think of the flow of a fluid. If  $\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F}$  at a point  $\mathbf{p}$  represents the tendency of that fluid to diverge away from  $\mathbf{p}$ ,  $\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F} > 0$  at accumulates toward  $\mathbf{p}$ ,  $\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F} < 0$ . On the other hand,  $\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F}$  picks out the direction of the axis about which the fluid rotates 'curls,' most rapidly and  $\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F}$  is a measure of the speed of this rotation. The direction of rotation is according to the right-hand rule. We will expand on this discussion later in the chapter.





Figure 6. Calculate the divergence and curl for each of these fields and thereby confirm your answers in parts (a) and (b).



**CAF 36.** Sketch a plot of the vector field  $\mathbf{F} = y\mathbf{i}$  for  $(x, y)$  in the rectangle  $-1 \leq x \leq 1$ ,  $-1 \leq y \leq 1$ . Does  $\mathbf{F}$  describe the flow of water in the pipe? Does  $\mathbf{F}$  describe whether the water is positive, negative, or zero at the point  $(1, 1)$ , and whether it would swirl, change, or would not be changing, counterclockwise or clockwise?

**37.** Sketch a plot of the vector field

$$\mathbf{F} = \frac{y}{x^2 + y^2} \mathbf{i} - \frac{x}{x^2 + y^2} \mathbf{j}.$$

For  $(x, y)$  in the rectangle  $-1 \leq x \leq 1$ ,  $-1 \leq y \leq 1$ . From the plot, use the marginal box that describes the interpretation of the curl to determine whether  $\mathbf{F}$  is positive, negative, or zero at the origin  $(0, 0)$ ; whether a paddle wheel placed at the origin would rotate clockwise, counterclockwise, or not at all. (For the curl think of  $\mathbf{F}$  as being a vector field in 3-space with z-component equal to 0.)

**38.** Consider the velocity field  $\mathbf{v} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  (see Example 7 and Figure 1). Note that  $\mathbf{v}$  is perpendicular to  $x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j}$  and that  $|\mathbf{v}| = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}$ . Thus,  $\mathbf{v}$  describes a fluid that is rotating (like a solid) about the  $z$ -axis with constant angular velocity  $\omega$ . Show that  $\text{div } \mathbf{v} = 0$  and  $\text{curl } \mathbf{v} = 2\omega\mathbf{k}$ .

**39.** A charged  $\pi$ -meson, which is rotating in a circular orbit with constant angular velocity  $\omega$ , is subject to the centripetal force given by

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = m\omega^2 y \mathbf{i} - m\omega^2 x \mathbf{j} + z \mathbf{k}.$$

Show that  $f(x, y, z) = \frac{1}{2}m\omega^2(x^2 - y^2 + z^2)$  is a potential function for  $\mathbf{F}$ .

**40.** The scalar function divergence  $f_1 = \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}$  (also written  $\nabla^2 f$ ) is called the Laplacian and a function  $f$  satisfying  $\nabla^2 f = 0$  is said to be harmonic concepts encountered in physics. Show that  $\nabla^2 f = f_{xx} + f_{yy} + f_{zz}$ . Then find  $\nabla^2 f$  for each of the following functions and decide which are harmonic.

(a)  $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$

(b)  $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2$

(c)  $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2 + 1$

(d)  $f(x, y, z) = x^2$

**41.** Show that

(a)  $\text{div } \mathbf{F} = f_1 + f_2 + f_3$  and  $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{F}_1 + \mathbf{F}_2 + \mathbf{F}_3$

for  $\mathbf{F} = f_1 \mathbf{i} + f_2 \mathbf{j} + f_3 \mathbf{k}$ .

**42.** An isoscalar surface is a set of points in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  such that  $f$  is constant.

(a)  $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$

(b)  $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = x^2 \mathbf{i} + y^2 \mathbf{j} + z^2 \mathbf{k}$

**43.** Let  $\mathbf{F}$  be a vector field in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  and let  $f$  be a scalar field. Let  $\mathbf{F}$  and  $f$  be functions of three real variables or a vector field  $\mathbf{F}$  depends on  $\mathbf{r}$  and  $f$  is a scalar field. Let  $\mathbf{F}$  and  $f$  be functions of  $\mathbf{r}$  and  $\mathbf{F}$  and  $f$  be functions of  $\mathbf{r}$ .

## 14.2 Line Integrals

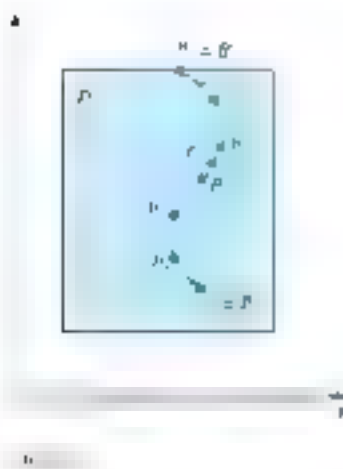
One kind of generalization of the definite integral  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$  is obtained by replacing the set  $[a, b]$  over which we integrate by  $\mathbf{r}(t)$  in three-dimensional space. The two parts of the work and steps of integration  $\mathbf{r}(t) = x(t)\mathbf{i} + y(t)\mathbf{j} + z(t)\mathbf{k}$  are obtained by replacing  $a, b$  with  $a, b$  with  $x, y, z$  and the resulting integral  $\int_a^b f(\mathbf{r}(t)) dt$  is called a **line integral**, but would more properly be called a **curve integral**.

Let  $C$  be a smooth plane curve that is, let  $C$  be given parametrically by

$$x = x(t), \quad y = y(t), \quad a \leq t \leq b$$

where  $x$  and  $y$  are continuous and not simultaneously zero on  $[a, b]$ . We say that  $C$  is **positively oriented** if as  $t$  increases,  $\mathbf{r}(t)$  corresponds to increasing values of  $t$ . We suppose that  $C$  is positively oriented and assume that  $a$  and  $b$  are real numbers with  $a < b$ . Thus  $C$  has initial point  $A = \mathbf{r}(a) = x(a)\mathbf{i} + y(a)\mathbf{j}$  and terminal point  $B = \mathbf{r}(b) = x(b)\mathbf{i} + y(b)\mathbf{j}$ . Consider a population  $P$  of the parameter interval  $a, b$  obtained by choosing the points

$$a = t_0 < t_1 < t_2 < \cdots < t_n = b$$



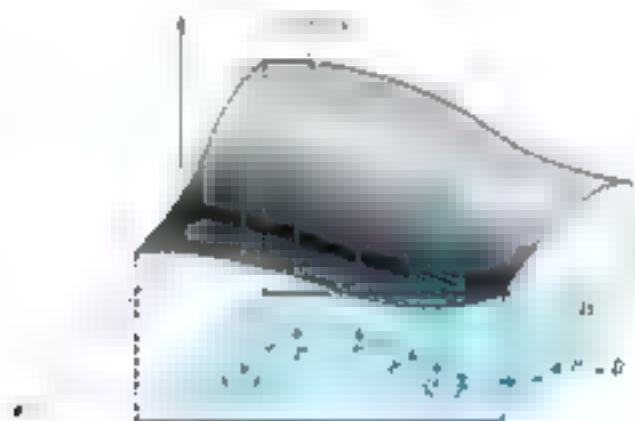
The partition of  $a$  to  $b$  results in a division of the curve  $C$  into  $n$  subarcs  $P_{j-1}P_j$ , where the point  $P_j$  corresponds to  $t = t_j$ . Let  $\Delta s_j$  denote the length of the arc  $P_{j-1}P_j$ , and let  $Q_j$  be the point of the partition  $P$  that is, let  $Q_j$  be the largest  $\Delta x_j = x_j - x_{j-1}$ . Finally, choose a sample point  $Q_j(x_j, y_j)$  on the subarc  $P_{j-1}P_j$  (see Figure 1).

Now consider the Riemann sum

$$\sum_{j=1}^n f(x_j, y_j) \Delta s_j.$$

If  $f$  is nonnegative, this sum approximates the area of the curved surface shown in Figure 2. If  $f$  is continuous in a region  $D$  containing the curve  $C$ , then this Riemann sum has a limit as  $\|P\| \rightarrow 0$ . This limit is called the **line integral of  $f$  along  $C$  from  $A$  to  $B$  with respect to arc length**; that is,

$$\int_C f(x, y) \, ds = \lim_{\|P\| \rightarrow 0} \sum_{j=1}^n f(x_j, y_j) \Delta s_j.$$



It represents, for  $f(x, y) \geq 0$ , the exact area of the curved surface of Figure 2.

The definition does not provide a very good way of evaluating  $\int_C f(x, y) \, ds$ . This is best accomplished by expressing everything in terms of the parameter  $t$ , which leads to an **arclength definite integral**. Using  $ds = \sqrt{(dx/dt)^2 + (dy/dt)^2} \, dt$  (see Section 5.4) gives

$$\int_C f(x, y) \, ds = \int_a^b f(x(t), y(t)) \sqrt{(x'(t))^2 + (y'(t))^2} \, dt.$$

Of course, a curve can be parametrized in many different ways; fortunately, it can be proved that any parametrization results in the same value for  $\int_C f(x, y) \, ds$ .

The definition of a line integral can be extended—the case where  $C$  is not smooth (i.e.,  $C$  is piecewise smooth, that is, consists of several smooth curves  $C_1, C_2, \dots, C_n$  joined together as shown in Figure 3). We simply use the line integral over  $C$  to be the sum of the integrals over the individual curves.

**EXAMPLE 1** Evaluate  $\int_C (x^2 + y^2) \, ds$ . We begin with two examples where  $C$  is part of a circle.

**EXAMPLE 1** Evaluate  $\int_C x^2 y \, ds$  where  $C$  is determined by the parametric equations  $x = 3 \cos t$ ,  $y = 3 \sin t$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq \pi/2$ . Also show that the parametrization  $x = \sqrt{4 - y^2}$ ,  $y = y$ ,  $0 \leq y \leq 3$ , gives the same value.

**SOLUTION** Using the first parametrization, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned}\int_C x^2 y \, ds &= \int_0^{\pi/2} (3 \cos t)^2 (3 \sin t) \sqrt{(-3 \sin t)^2 + (3 \cos t)^2} \, dt \\ &= 9 \int_0^{\pi/2} \cos^2 t \sin t \, dt \\ &= 9 \left[ -\frac{1}{3} \cos^3 t \right]_0^{\pi/2} = 9.\end{aligned}$$

For the second parametrization, we use another formula for  $ds$  as given in Section 5.4. This gives

$$ds = \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{dx}{dy}\right)^2} dy = \sqrt{1 + \frac{y^2}{4 - y^2}} dy = \frac{2}{\sqrt{4 - y^2}} dy$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}\int_C x^2 y \, ds &= \int_0^3 (4 - y^2) \frac{y}{\sqrt{4 - y^2}} dy = 2 \int_0^3 \sqrt{4 - y^2} \, dy \\ &= 2 \left[ \frac{y}{2} \sqrt{4 - y^2} + 2 \sin^{-1} \frac{y}{2} \right]_0^3 = 9.\end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 2** A thin wire, shaped as the helix of the parametric

$$x = a \cos t, \quad y = a \sin t, \quad z = ct, \quad 0 \leq t \leq 2\pi, \quad c > 0,$$

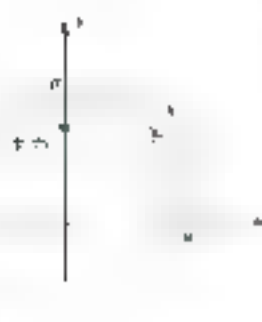
has density  $\delta(x, y, z) = k$ , a constant. Compute the mass and center of mass of the wire.

**SOLUTION** The helix wire goes up the  $z$ -axis, rotates as it goes up. The mass of a small piece of wire of length  $\Delta s$  (Figure 14.2.1) is approximately  $\delta \Delta s = k \Delta s$ , where  $\delta(x, y, z) = k$  is the density at  $(x, y, z)$ , and  $\Delta s$  is the mass of the whole wire is

$$\begin{aligned}M &= \int_C \delta y \, ds = \int_0^{2\pi} ka \sin t \sqrt{a^2 \sin^2 t + a^2 \cos^2 t} \, dt \\ &= ka^2 \int_0^{2\pi} \sin t \, dt \\ &= \left[ -ka^2 \cos t \right]_0^{2\pi} = 2ka^2\end{aligned}$$

The moment of the wire with respect to the  $z$ -axis is given by

$$\begin{aligned}M_z &= \int_C x^2 y \, ds = \int_0^{2\pi} (a \cos t)^2 (a \sin t) \sqrt{a^2 \sin^2 t + a^2 \cos^2 t} \, dt \\ &= \frac{ka^3}{2} \int_0^{2\pi} \cos^2 t \sin t \, dt \\ &= \frac{ka^3}{2} \left[ -\frac{1}{3} \sin^3 t \right]_0^{2\pi} = \frac{ka^3 \pi}{2}.\end{aligned}$$



Thus

$$\frac{M_z}{m} = \frac{k \int_0^{\pi} \sin^2 t \, dt}{\frac{1}{4}\pi k} = \pi^2.$$

From symmetry  $\bar{x} = 0$ , so the center of mass is at  $(0, \pi a, 4)$ . ■

All that we have done extends easily to a smooth curve  $C$  in three-space. In particular, if  $C$  is given parametrically by

$$x = x(t), \quad y = y(t), \quad z = z(t), \quad a \leq t \leq b,$$

then

$$\int_C \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2} \, ds = \int_a^b \sqrt{x(t)^2 + y(t)^2 + z(t)^2} \sqrt{x'(t)^2 + y'(t)^2 + z'(t)^2} \, dt.$$

■ **EXERCISES** Find the mass of a wire of density  $\delta(x, y, z) = x^2 + y^2 + z^2$  if the shape of the helix  $C$  with parametrization

$$x = 2 \cos t, \quad y = 2 \sin t, \quad z = t, \quad 0 \leq t \leq \pi$$

is  $1/3$  g/cm.

$$\begin{aligned} m &= \int_C \delta \, ds = \int_0^\pi (x^2 + y^2 + z^2) \sqrt{4 + 4 + 1} \, dt \\ &= 20k \int_0^\pi t \, dt = \left[ 20k \frac{t^2}{2} \right]_0^\pi = 10k\pi^2. \end{aligned}$$

The unit  $\text{cm}^3$  is dropped on these for length and density. ■

**Work** Suppose that the force acting at a point  $(x, y, z)$  in space is given by the vector field

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = M(x, y, z)\mathbf{i} + N(x, y, z)\mathbf{j} + P(x, y, z)\mathbf{k}$$

where  $M$ ,  $N$ , and  $P$  are continuous. We want to find the work done by  $\mathbf{F}$  in moving a particle along a smooth arc in 3-space  $C: \mathbf{r}(t) = x(t)\mathbf{i} + y(t)\mathbf{j} + z(t)\mathbf{k}$  from the point  $Q(x_0, y_0, z_0)$  to the point  $P(x_1, y_1, z_1)$ . Let  $\mathbf{T}$  be the unit tangent vector at  $Q$ ; then  $\mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T}$  is the tangential component of  $\mathbf{F}$  at  $Q$ . The work done by  $\mathbf{F}$  in moving the particle from  $Q$ —that is, distance  $\Delta s$ —along the curve is approximately  $\mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} \Delta s$ , and consequently the work done in moving the particle from  $Q$  to

$P$  along  $C$  is defined to be  $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} \, ds$ . Work is a scalar quantity, but it can be positive or negative. It is positive when the component of force along the curve is in the direction of the object's motion, and it is negative when the component of force along the curve is in the direction opposite the object's motion. In Section 7.7 we know that  $\mathbf{T} = d\mathbf{r}/ds = d\mathbf{r}/(dt/dt)$  and so we have the following theorem.  $\square$

$$W = \int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} \, ds = \int_a^b \mathbf{F} \cdot \frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt} \, dt = \int_a^b \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}.$$

To interpret this last expression, think of  $\mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$  as representing the work done by  $\mathbf{F}$  in moving a particle along the infinitesimal segment  $d\mathbf{r}$  of the curve. In physics, many problems and applied problems involve

There is another expression for work that is often useful in calculations. If we agree to write  $d\mathbf{r} = dx\mathbf{i} + dy\mathbf{j} + dz\mathbf{k}$ , then

$$\mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = (M\mathbf{i} + N\mathbf{j} + P\mathbf{k}) \cdot (dx\mathbf{i} + dy\mathbf{j} + dz\mathbf{k}) = M \, dx + N \, dy + P \, dz$$

and

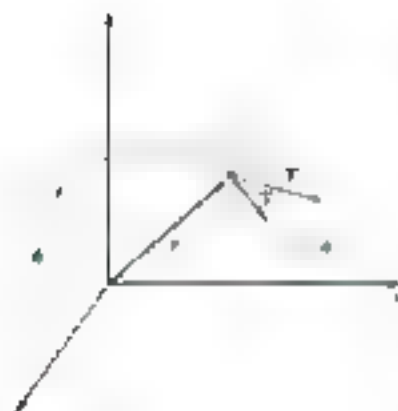


FIGURE 14.108

$$W = \int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_C M dx + N dy + P dz$$

The integrals  $\int_C M dx$ ,  $\int_C N dy$ , and  $\int_C P dz$  are a special kind of line integral.

They are defined just as  $\int_C f(x, y, z) ds$  was defined at the beginning of the section, except that  $ds$  is replaced by  $dx$ ,  $dy$ , and  $dz$ , respectively. However, we point out that while  $ds$  is always taken to be positive,  $dx$ ,  $dy$ , and  $dz$  may well be negative on a path. The result of this is that a change in the direction of  $C$  switches the sign of  $\int_C M dx$ ,  $\int_C N dy$ , and  $\int_C P dz$ , while leaving that of  $\int_C f ds$  unchanged (see Problem 23).

**EXAMPLE 4** Find the work done by the inverse-square gravitational force

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = -c \frac{\mathbf{r}}{|\mathbf{r}|^3} = -c \frac{x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}}{(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{3/2}} = M\mathbf{i} + N\mathbf{j} + P\mathbf{k}$$

in moving a particle along the elliptical curve  $C$  from  $(3, 3, 0)$  to  $(4, 5, 0)$  shown in Figure 6.

**SOLUTION** Along  $C$ ,  $y = 3$  and  $z = 0$ , so  $dy = dz = 0$ . Using  $x$  as the parameter, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} W &= \int_C M dx + N dy + P dz = -c \int_3^4 \frac{x dx + y dy + z dz}{(x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{3/2}} \\ &= -c \int_3^4 \frac{x}{(x^2 + 9)^{3/2}} dx = \frac{-c}{(x^2 + 9)^{1/2}} \Big|_3^4 = -\frac{7c}{5} \end{aligned}$$

Of course, appropriate units must be given. Depending on these units,  $c$  may be positive. If  $c = 0$ , then the work done by the force field  $\mathbf{F}$  is negative. Does this make sense? In this problem, the force always points toward the origin, so the direction of force along the curve is always opposite to the direction of motion. In this situation (see Figure 7), the work is negative. ■

Here is a planar version of this type of line integral.

**EXAMPLE 5** Evaluate the line integral

$$\int_C (x^2 + y^2 + 2x) dx + 2xy dy$$

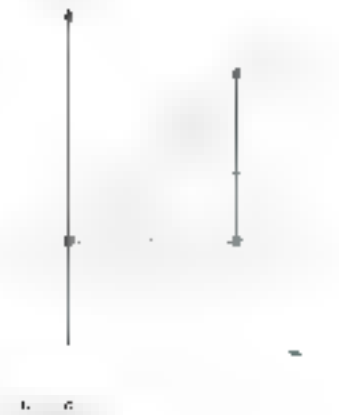
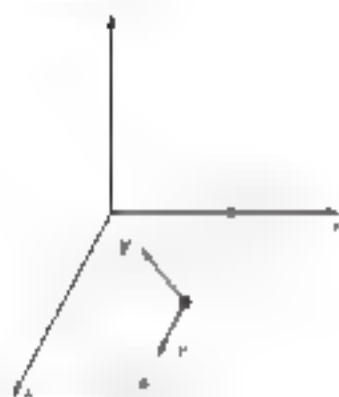
along the curve  $C$  whose parametric equations are

**SOLUTION** Since  $dx = 2t dt$  and  $dy = 2t^2 dt$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_C (x^2 + y^2 + 2x) dx + 2xy dy &= \int_0^1 (2t^2 + 4t^4 + 4t) 2t dt \\ &= \int_0^1 (2t^3 + 4t^5) dt = \frac{8505}{512} \approx 16.61 \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 6** Evaluate  $\int_C (xy + y^2 + x^2) dz$  along the path  $C = C_1 \cup C_2$

shown in Figure 8. Also evaluate this integral along the straight path  $C_3$  from  $(-2, 2)$  to  $(3, 7)$ .



**SOLUTION** On  $C_1$ ,  $y = 2$ ,  $dy = 0$ , and

$$\int_C xy^2 dx = \int_0^1 xy^2 dx = xy^2 \Big|_0^1 = \int_0^1 4x dx = 4 \Big|_0^1 = 4.$$

On  $C_2$ ,  $x = 3$ ,  $dx = 0$ , and

$$\int_C xy^2 dy = \int_0^1 xy^2 dy = \frac{xy^3}{3} \Big|_0^1 = \frac{3}{3} = 1.$$

We conclude that

$$\int_C xy^2 dx + xy^2 dy = 4 + 1 = 5.$$

On  $C_3$ ,  $y = x + 2$ ,  $dy = dx$ , and so

$$\begin{aligned} \int_C xy^2 dx + xy^2 dy &= \int_0^1 xy^2 dx + \int_0^1 xy^2 dy \\ &= \int_0^1 x(x+2)^2 dx + \int_0^1 x(x+2)^2 dx \\ &= 2 \int_0^1 x(x^2 + 4x + 4) dx \\ &= 2 \int_0^1 (x^3 + 4x^2 + 4x) dx = 2 \left[ \frac{x^4}{4} + \frac{4x^3}{3} + 2x^2 \right]_0^1 = \frac{29}{3}. \end{aligned}$$

Note that the two paths from  $(0, 2)$  to  $(1, 3)$  give different values for the integral.

## Concepts Review

1. A curve  $C$  given parametrically by  $x = x(t)$ ,  $y = y(t)$ ,  $a \leq t \leq b$ , is oriented **counterclockwise** if  $x'(t) > 0$  and  $y'(t) > 0$  for all  $t$  in the domain  $a \leq t \leq b$ .

2. The line integral  $\int_C f(x, y) ds$ , where  $C$  is the positively oriented curve of Question 1, is defined as  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i^*, y_i^*) \Delta s_i$ .

3. The line integral in Question 1 is identical to the ordinary integral  $\int_a^b f(x(t), y(t)) \sqrt{x'(t)^2 + y'(t)^2} dt$ .

4. If  $\mathbf{r} = x(t)\mathbf{i} + y(t)\mathbf{j}$  is the position vector of a point on the curve  $C$  of Question 1 and if  $\mathbf{F} = M(x, y)\mathbf{i} + N(x, y)\mathbf{j}$  is a force field in the plane, then the work  $W$  done by  $\mathbf{F}$  in moving an object along  $C$  is given by  $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$ .

## Problem Set 14.2

In Problems 1–16, evaluate each line integral.

1.  $\int_C (x^2 + y^2) ds$ ,  $C$  is the curve  $x = t$ ,  $y = t$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq 1$ .

2.  $\int_C (x^2 + y^2) ds$ ,  $C$  is the curve  $x = t$ ,  $y = t^2$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq 1$ .

3.  $\int_C (x^2 + y^2) ds$ ,  $C$  is the line segment from  $(0, 0)$  to  $(\pi, 2\pi)$ .

4.  $\int_C xy^2 dx$ ,  $C$  is the line segment from  $(-1, 2)$  to  $(1, 1)$ .

5.  $\int_C (x^2 + y^2) ds$ ,  $C$  is the curve  $x = t$ ,  $y = t^2$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq 1$ .

6.  $\int_C (x^2 + y^2 + z^2) dz$ ,  $C$  is the curve  $x = 4 \cos t$ ,  $y = 4 \sin t$ ,  $z = 3t$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$ .

7.  $\int_C e^x dx + x^2 dy$ ,  $C$  is the curve  $x = 2t$ ,  $y = t^2 - 1$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq 1$ .

8.  $\int_C y dx + x^2 dy$ ,  $C$  is the right-angle curve from  $(0, -1)$  to  $(4, 1)$  to  $(4, 3)$ .

9.  $\int_C y^2 dx + x^2 dy$ ,  $C$  is the right-angle curve from  $(-4, 1)$  to  $(4, 3)$  to  $(4, -3)$ .

10.  $\int_C y \, ds$  as  $C$  is the curve  $x = t$ ,  $y = t$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq 1$ .

11.  $\int_C (x + 2y) \, dx + (x - 2y) \, dy$  as  $C$  is the line segment from  $(1, 0)$  to  $(3, 1)$ .

12.  $\int_C (x + y + z) \, ds$  as  $C$  is the curve  $x = t$ ,  $y = t$ ,  $z = t$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq 1$ .

13.  $\int_C (x + y + z) \, dx + x \, dy - yz \, dz$   $C$  is the line segment from  $(0, 0, 0)$  to  $(1, 1, 1)$ .

14.  $\int_C (x + y + z) \, ds$  as  $C$  is the curve  $x = t$ ,  $y = t^2$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq 1$ .

15.  $\int_C (x + y + z) \, ds$  as  $C$  is the line segment from  $(0, 0, 0)$  to  $(1, 1, 1)$ .

16.  $\int_C (x + y + z) \, ds$  as  $C$  is the line segment from  $(1, 0, 0)$  to  $(1, 1, 1)$ .

17. Find the mass of a wire with the shape of the curve  $y = x$  between  $(-2, 4)$  and  $(2, 4)$  if the density is given by  $\delta(x, y) = 1$ .

18. A wire of constant density has the shape of the helix  $x = \cos t$ ,  $y = \sin t$ ,  $z = t$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq 3\pi$ . Find its mass and center of mass.

In Problems 19–24, find the work done by the force field  $\mathbf{F}$  in moving a particle along the curve  $C$ .

19.  $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = (x - y)\mathbf{i} + xy\mathbf{j}$ ;  $C$  is the curve  $x = t$ ,  $y = t^2$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq 1$ .

20.  $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = (y^2 - x^2)\mathbf{i}$ ;  $C$  is the curve  $x = \sin t$ ,  $y = t$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq \pi$ .

21.  $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = (x + y)\mathbf{i} + (x - y)\mathbf{j}$ ;  $C$  is the quarter-circle  $x = \cos t$ ,  $y = \sin t$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq \pi/2$ .

22.  $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = (2x - y)\mathbf{i} + (x + y)\mathbf{j} + (x + y)\mathbf{k}$ ;  $C$  is the line segment from  $(0, 0, 0)$  to  $(1, 1, 1)$ .

23.  $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = (x + y)\mathbf{i} + (x - y)\mathbf{j}$ ;  $C$  is the curve  $x = \cos t$ ,  $y = \sin t$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq \pi/2$ .

24.  $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = (y + z)\mathbf{i} + x\mathbf{j}$ ;  $C$  is the curve  $x = t$ ,  $y = t^2$ ,  $z = t^3$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq 1$ .

25. Figure 4 shows a plot of a vector field  $\mathbf{F}$  along with three curves  $C_1$ ,  $C_2$ , and  $C_3$ . Determine whether each line integral  $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$  is positive, negative, or zero. Justify your answers.

26. Figure 5 shows a plot of a vector field  $\mathbf{F}$  along with three curves  $C_1$ ,  $C_2$ , and  $C_3$ . Determine whether each line integral  $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$  is positive, negative, or zero. Justify your answers.



Figure 4

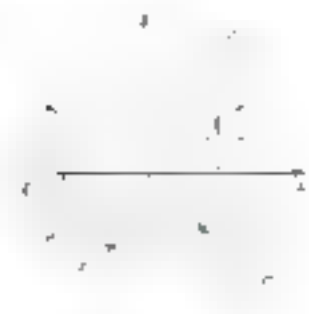


Figure 5

27. Christy plans to paint both sides of a fence whose base is in the  $xy$ -plane with shape  $x = 30 \cos^2 t$ ,  $y = 30 \sin^2 t$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq \pi/2$ , and whose height at  $(x, y)$  is  $1 + y$  ft measured in feet. Sketch a picture of the fence and decide how much paint she will need if a gallon covers 300 square feet.

28. A squirrel weighing 1.2 pounds climbed a cylindrical tree by following the helical path  $x = \cos t$ ,  $y = \sin t$ ,  $z = 4t$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$  (distance measured in feet). How much work did it do? Use a line integral, but then think of a cruder way to answer the question!

29. Use a line integral to find the area of the part cut off of the vertical square cylinder  $|x| + |y| = a$  by the sphere  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = a^2$ . Check your answer by finding a cruder way to do this.

30. A wire of constant density 1 has the shape  $x = |y| = |z|$  and its moment of inertia with respect to the  $y$ -axis and with respect to the  $z$ -axis.

31. Use a line integral to find the area of the part cut off of the cylinder  $x^2 + y^2 = a^2$  by the sphere  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = a^2$ . Check your answer by finding a cruder way to do this.

32. Two circular cylinders of radius  $a$  intersect so that their axes meet at right angles. Use a line integral to find the area of the part from one cut off by the other (compare with Problem 4, Section 13.6). See Figure 6.



Figure 6

33. Evaluate

(a)  $\int_C (x + y + z) \, ds$  using the parametrization  $x = \cos t$ ,  $y = \sin t$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq \pi/2$  which reverses the orientation of  $C$  in Problem 25.



$\mathbf{r}(t) = (t, t^2, t^3)$  using the parametrization  $\mathbf{r}(t) = (t, t^2, t^3)$  for  $0 \leq t \leq 1$  and then to  $C$  using the clockwise orientation of  $C$  in Example 1.

**Orientation**—reversing parametrizations do not change the sign of  $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$ , but do change the sign of the other types of line integrals (compare with this section).

**Orientation**—reversing parametrizations does not change the sign of

$$\int_C \sum_{i=1}^n F_i \frac{dx_i}{dt} dt = \int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{r}'(t) dt = \int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}.$$

## 14.3 Independence of Path

The basic result in evaluating ordinary definite integrals is the Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus. In symbols,

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a).$$

Now we ask the question: Is there an analogous formula for line integrals? The answer is yes.

To what follows, interpret  $\mathbf{r}$  as  $\mathbf{r}(x, y, z) = (x, y, z)$  or, if you prefer, as  $\mathbf{r}(t) = (x(t), y(t), z(t))$ , with  $t$  varying from  $a$  to  $b$ . In the first case,  $\mathbf{r}$  is a vector field in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  and  $f$  is a scalar field. In the second case,  $\mathbf{r}$  is a curve in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  and  $f$  is a scalar field.

### Theorem 14.3 Fundamental Theorem for Line Integrals

Let  $C$  be a piecewise smooth curve given parametrically by  $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}(t)$ ,  $a \leq t \leq b$ , which begins at  $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{r}(a)$  and ends at  $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{r}(b)$ . If  $f$  is continuously differentiable on an open set containing  $C$ , then

$$\int_C \nabla f(\mathbf{r}) \cdot d\mathbf{r} = f(\mathbf{b}) - f(\mathbf{u}).$$

**Proof** We suppose first that  $C$  is smooth. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \int_C \nabla f(\mathbf{r}) \cdot d\mathbf{r} &= \int_a^b \nabla f(\mathbf{r}(t)) \cdot \mathbf{r}'(t) dt \\ &= \int_a^b \frac{d}{dt} f(\mathbf{r}(t)) dt = f(\mathbf{r}(b)) - f(\mathbf{r}(a)) \\ &= f(\mathbf{b}) - f(\mathbf{u}). \end{aligned}$$

Now, how we first wrote the line integral as an ordinary definite integral, we introduced the Chain Rule and finally used the Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus.

If  $C$  is not smooth but only piecewise smooth, we simply apply the above result to the individual pieces. We leave the details to you. ■

**EXAMPLE 1** Recall from Example 4 of Section 14.1 that

$$\mathbf{r}(t) = (t, t^2, t^3) \quad \mathbf{r}'(t) = (1, 2t, 3t^2) \quad \|\mathbf{r}'(t)\| = \sqrt{1 + 4t^2 + 9t^4}.$$

is a potential function for the inverse square gravitational field  $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = -\frac{1}{r^3}\mathbf{r}$ , calculate  $\int_C \mathbf{F}(x, y, z) \cdot d\mathbf{r}$  where  $C$  is any simple piecewise smooth curve from  $(1, 4, 0)$  to  $(4, 3, 0)$  that crosses the origin.

**SOLUTION** Since  $\mathbf{F}(x) = \nabla f(x)$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}\int_C \mathbf{F}(x) \cdot d\mathbf{r} &= \int_C \nabla f(x) \cdot d\mathbf{r} = f(4, 3, 0) - f(1, 4, 0) \\ &= \sqrt{16 + 9} - \sqrt{2} = -\frac{2}{\sqrt{2}}.\end{aligned}$$

Now compare Example 1 with Example 4 of the previous section. There we calculated the same integral, but for a specific curve  $C$ , the line segment from  $(1, 4, 0)$  to  $(4, 3, 0)$ . Surprisingly, we will get the same answer no matter which curve we take from  $(1, 4, 0)$  to  $(4, 3, 0)$ . We say that the gravitational field is independent of path.

Let  $D$  be an open set in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Call a set  $D$  **connected** if any two points in  $D$  can be joined by a piecewise smooth curve lying entirely in  $D$  (Figure 14.3.1). Then call  $\int_C \mathbf{F}(x) \cdot d\mathbf{r}$  **independent of path in  $D$**  if for any two points  $A$  and  $B$  in  $D$  the line integral has the same value for every path  $C$  in  $D$  that is positively oriented from  $A$  to  $B$ .

One consequence of Theorem A is that if  $\mathbf{F}$  is a gradient of a scalar potential, then  $\int_C \mathbf{F}(x) \cdot d\mathbf{r}$  is independent of path in  $D$ ; otherwise is also true.

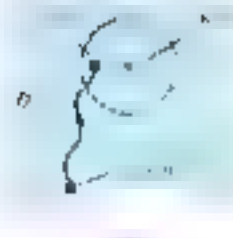
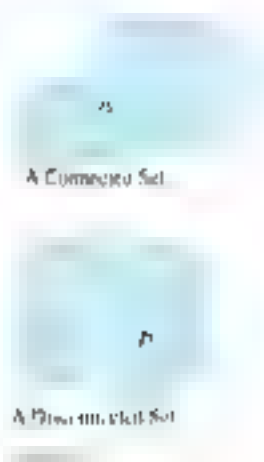
### Theorem B Independence of Path Theorem

Let  $\mathbf{F}(x)$  be continuous on an open connected set  $D$ . Then the line integral  $\int_C \mathbf{F}(x) \cdot d\mathbf{r}$  is independent of path in  $D$  if and only if  $\mathbf{F}(x) = \nabla \phi(x)$  for some scalar function  $\phi$ ; that is, if and only if  $\mathbf{F}$  is a conservative vector field in  $D$ .

**Proof** Theorem A takes care of the “if” direction. Suppose then that  $\int_C \mathbf{F}(x) \cdot d\mathbf{r}$  is independent of path in  $D$ . Our task is to show that this implies that  $\mathbf{F} = \nabla \phi$  for some scalar function  $\phi$ . We will do this by first showing that a function  $\phi$  exists such that  $\mathbf{F}(x) = \nabla \phi(x)$  for all  $x$  in  $D$ . Let  $(x_0, y_0)$  be a fixed point in  $D$  and let  $(x, y)$  be any other point in  $D$ . Choose a third point  $(x_1, y_1)$  in  $D$  and assume for the rest of the proof that  $(x, y)$  is a horizontal segment in  $D$ . Then join  $(x_0, y_0)$  to  $(x_1, y_1)$  by a curve in  $D$  (Figure 14.3.2). Call this piecewise smooth curve  $C_1$  and denote the path from  $(x_0, y_0)$  to  $(x, y)$  by  $C$ . Then the path from  $(x_0, y_0)$  to  $(x, y)$  is composed of these two pieces and we define

$$\phi(x, y) = \int_{C_1} \mathbf{F}(x) \cdot d\mathbf{r} + \int_C \mathbf{F}(x) \cdot d\mathbf{r}.$$

That  $\phi$  is a unique value is clear from the assumed independence of path.



The first integral on the right above does not depend on  $x$ ; the second, which has  $x$  fixed, can be written as an ordinary definite integral using  $y$  as a parameter. It follows that

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = 0 = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \int_M(x, y) dy = M(x, 0).$$

The last equality is a consequence of the First Fundamental Theorem of Calculus (Theorem 4.4A).

A similar argument using Figure 2b shows that  $\partial f/\partial y = N(x, 0)$ . We conclude that  $\nabla f = M(x, y)\mathbf{i} + N(x, y)\mathbf{j} = \mathbf{F}$  as desired. ■

The results of this section culminate in the next theorem, which draws a connection between the ideas of a conservative vector field and path independence of a line integral, and the line integral over all closed paths being zero.

### Theorem 6 Equivalent Conditions for Line Integrals

Let  $\mathbf{F}$  be continuous on an open connected set  $D$ . Then the following conditions are equivalent:

(1)  $\mathbf{F} = \nabla f$  for some function  $f$  ( $\mathbf{F}$  is conservative on  $D$ ).

(2)  $\int_C \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}) \cdot d\mathbf{r}$  is independent of path in  $D$ .

(3)  $\int_C \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}) \cdot d\mathbf{r} = 0$  for every closed path in  $D$ .

**Proof** Theorem 6 establishes that (1) and (2) are equivalent. We must also show that (2) and (3) are equivalent. Suppose the  $\int_C \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}) \cdot d\mathbf{r}$  is path independent.

We might show that  $\int_C \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}) \cdot d\mathbf{r} = 0$  for every closed path in  $D$ . Let  $C$  be a closed path in  $D$  and let  $A$  and  $B$  be distinct points on  $C$  (see Figure 3). In Figure 3, suppose  $C$  is composed of two curves  $C_1$  going from  $A$  to  $B$  and  $C_2$  going from  $B$  to  $A$ . Let  $C$  denote the curve  $C_1$  with opposite orientation to  $C_2$  (the second part of Figure 3). Since  $C$  is a closed path with no self-intersecting points, namely  $A$  and  $B$ , the independence of path implies that

$$\begin{aligned} \int_C \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}) \cdot d\mathbf{r} &= \int_{C_1} \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}) \cdot d\mathbf{r} - \int_{C_2} \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}) \cdot d\mathbf{r} \\ &= \int_A^B \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}) \cdot d\mathbf{r} - \int_B^A \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}) \cdot d\mathbf{r} \\ &= \int_A^B \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}) \cdot d\mathbf{r} + \int_A^B \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}) \cdot d\mathbf{r} \end{aligned}$$

This shows that (3) implies (2). The argument that (3) implies (2) is the reverse of that given above. We leave the details to the reader (Problem 3). ■

There is an interesting physical interpretation of Condition 1 of Theorem 6. The work done by a conservative force field  $\mathbf{F}$  as it moves a particle around a closed path is zero. In particular, this is true of both gravitational fields and electric fields since they are conservative.

While Conditions 1 and 2 imply that  $\mathbf{F}$  is the gradient of a scalar function  $f$ , they are not particularly useful in this connection. A more useful criterion is given in the following theorem. We need, however, to impose the additional condition on  $D$  that it is **simply connected**; in two-space, this means that  $D$  has no



holes, and in three space that it has no “tunnels” all the way through  $D$ . For the technical definition, see any advanced calculus book.)

### Theorem 1

Let  $\mathbf{F} = M\mathbf{i} + N\mathbf{j} + P\mathbf{k}$  where  $M$ ,  $N$ , and  $P$  are continuous together with their first-order partial derivatives in an open connected set  $D$  which is also simply connected. Then  $\mathbf{F}$  is conservative ( $\nabla f$ ) if and only if (and only if)  $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{0}$ , that is, if and only if

$$\frac{\partial M}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial N}{\partial x}, \quad \frac{\partial M}{\partial z} = \frac{\partial P}{\partial x}, \quad \frac{\partial N}{\partial z} = \frac{\partial P}{\partial y}.$$

In the two-variable case, where  $\mathbf{F} = M\mathbf{i} + N\mathbf{j}$ ,  $\mathbf{F}$  is conservative if and only if

$$\frac{\partial M}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial N}{\partial x}.$$

The “only if” statement is easy to prove (Problem 21). The “if” statement follows from Green’s Theorem. Theorem 14.4A is a two-variable case, and from Stokes’s Theorem in the three-variable case (Example 4 of Section 14.5). Problem 29 shows the need for simple connectedness.

**EXAMPLE 1** Let  $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = (x^2 - y^2)\mathbf{i} + (2xy)\mathbf{j} + (2xz)\mathbf{k}$ . Suppose that we are given a vector field  $\mathbf{F}$  values of the curl of the curl of  $\mathbf{F}$ . Then we can write the curl of the curl of  $\mathbf{F}$  as  $\nabla \times (\nabla \times \mathbf{F}) = \mathbf{F}$ . But how can we find  $\mathbf{F}$ ? We say the the divergence of  $\mathbf{F}$  for a two-dimensional vector field.

**EXAMPLE 2** Determine whether  $\mathbf{F} = (x^2 + y^2)\mathbf{i} + (x^2 - y^2)\mathbf{j}$  is conservative, and if so, find the function  $f$  of which it is the gradient.

**SOLUTION**  $M(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$  and  $N(x, y) = x^2 - y^2$ . In the two-variable case, the conditions of Theorem 1 reduce to showing that

$$\frac{\partial M}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial N}{\partial x}.$$

Now

$$\frac{\partial M}{\partial y} = 2y \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial N}{\partial x} = 2x,$$

so the condition is satisfied and  $f$  must exist.

To find  $f$  we first note that

$$\nabla f = \left[ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \mathbf{j} \right] = M\mathbf{i} + N\mathbf{j}$$

Thus

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = (x^2 + y^2) \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = (x^2 - y^2).$$

If we antidifferentiate the first equation with respect to  $x$  we obtain

$$(2) \quad f(x, y) = x^3/3 + C(y),$$

in which the “constant” of integration  $C$  may depend on  $y$ . But the partial with respect to  $y$  of the expression in (2) must equal  $6x^2y + 6y^2$ , that is,

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = 6x^2y + C'(y) = 6x^2y + 6y^2$$

We conclude that  $\mathbf{C}(x, y) = 6xy^2$ . Another antidifferentiation gives

$$f(x, y) = \frac{1}{2}x^2 + C$$

where  $C$  is a constant (independent of both  $x$  and  $y$ ). Substitution in this result in (1) yields

$$f(x, y) = x^2 + 3x^2y^2 + y^3 + C$$

Next we use the result of Example 2 to calculate a line integral.

**EXAMPLE 3** Let  $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = (x^2 + 4yz + 4, 6 - yz + 6z, 6 - 4z)$ . Cal-

culate  $\int_C \mathbf{F}(x, y, z) \, d\mathbf{r} = \int_C (x^2 + 4yz + 4) \, dx + (6 - yz + 6z) \, dy + (6 - 4z) \, dz$  where  $C$  is any path from  $(0, 0, 0)$  to  $(1, 1, 1)$ .

**SOLUTION** Example 2 shows that  $\mathbf{F} = \nabla f$  where

$$f(x, y, z) = \frac{1}{3}x^3 + 2yz^2 + 6z = \frac{1}{3}x^3 + 2yz^2 + 6z$$

and thus the given line integral is independent of path by Theorem A.

$$\begin{aligned} \int_C \mathbf{F}(x, y, z) \, d\mathbf{r} &= \int_{(0,0,0)}^{(1,1,1)} \left( \frac{1}{3}x^3 + 4yz + 4 \right) dx + (6 - yz + 6z) dy + (6 - 4z) dz \\ &= \left( \frac{1}{12}x^4 + 2xy^2 + 4x \right) \Big|_0^1 + \left( 6y - \frac{1}{2}yz^2 + 6yz \right) \Big|_0^1 + (6z - 2z^2) \Big|_0^1 \\ &= \frac{1}{12} + 2 + 4 + 6 - \frac{1}{2} + 6 - 6 + 6 - 2 = 11 \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 4** Show that  $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = (e^x \cos y - 4xz, -e^x \sin y - 4y, 4x - 4z)$  is conservative, and find  $f$  such that  $\mathbf{F} = \nabla f$ .

**SOLUTION**

$$\mathbf{M} = e^x \cos y - 4xz, \quad \mathbf{N} = -e^x \sin y - 4y, \quad \mathbf{P} = 4x - 4z$$

and so

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{M}}{\partial y} = -e^x \sin y - z = \frac{\partial \mathbf{N}}{\partial x}, \quad \frac{\partial \mathbf{M}}{\partial z} = -4x = \frac{\partial \mathbf{P}}{\partial x}, \quad \frac{\partial \mathbf{N}}{\partial z} = -4 = \frac{\partial \mathbf{P}}{\partial y}$$

which are the conditions of Theorem D. Now

$$\begin{aligned} (1) \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} &= e^x \cos y - 4xz \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} &= -e^x \sin y - 4y \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} &= 4x - 4z \end{aligned}$$

When we antidifferentiate the first of these with respect to  $x$ , we get

$$(2) \quad f(x, y, z) = e^x \cos y - 4xz + C(y, z)$$

Now differentiate (2) with respect to  $y$  and set the result equal to the second expression in (1).

$$e^x \sin y + 4xz + \frac{\partial C}{\partial y} = -e^x \sin y - 4y$$

or

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial y} = -e^x \sin y - 8y - 4xz$$

For a line integral

$$\int_C M(x, y) \, dx + N(x, y) \, dy$$

is independent of path when we will often write simply

$$\int_C M(x, y) \, dx + N(x, y) \, dy$$

indicating only the initial point  $(a, b)$  and the terminal point  $(c, d)$  for the path  $C$ .

Similarly, we will write

$$f(x, y) \Big|_{(a,b)}^{(c,d)}$$

to mean

$$f(c, d) - f(a, b)$$

And differentiating the latter with respect to  $z$  gives

$$C_1(z) = C_2(z)$$

which we in turn substitute into (4),

$$(5) \quad f(x, y, z) = e^x \cos y + xyz + C_2(z)$$

When we differentiate (5) with respect to  $z$  and equate the result to the third expression in (3), we get

$$\frac{df}{dz} = x + C_2'(z) = x$$

or  $C_2'(z) = 0$  and  $C_2(z) = C$ . We conclude that

$$f(x, y, z) = e^x \cos y + xyz + C$$

**Conservation of Energy** Let us make an application to physics (and at the same time offer a reason for the name conservative force field). We will establish the Law of Conservation of Energy which says that the sum of the kinetic energy and the potential energy of an object is constant, under proper circumstances.

Suppose that an object of mass  $m$  is moving with position vector  $\mathbf{r}$  given by

$$\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}(t) = x(t)\mathbf{i} + y(t)\mathbf{j} + z(t)\mathbf{k} \quad t \geq 0$$

effect the influence of a conservative force  $\mathbf{F} = -\nabla f$ . From physics we learn three facts about the object at time  $t$ :

$$1. \quad \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}(t)) = m\mathbf{a}(t) = m\mathbf{r}''(t) \quad (\text{Newton's Second Law})$$

$$2. \quad \text{KE} = \frac{1}{2}m|\mathbf{v}|^2 \quad \text{KE} = \text{kinetic energy}$$

$$3. \quad \text{PE} = f(\mathbf{r}) \quad (\text{PE} = \text{potential energy})$$

Thus

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dt}(\text{KE}) &= \frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{1}{2}m|\mathbf{v}|^2 \right) = \frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{1}{2}m(\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v}) \right) = \frac{m}{2} \frac{d}{dt}(\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v}) = \frac{m}{2} \left( \frac{d\mathbf{v}}{dt} \cdot \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{v} \cdot \frac{d\mathbf{v}}{dt} \right) \\ &= m\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}(t)) \cdot \mathbf{v}(t) \\ &= m\mathbf{r}''(t) \cdot \mathbf{r}'(t) = \nabla f(\mathbf{r}(t)) \cdot \mathbf{r}'(t) \\ &= (\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}) - \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r})) \cdot \mathbf{r}'(t) = 0 \end{aligned}$$

We conclude that  $\text{KE} + \text{PE}$  is constant.

## Concepts Review

- Let  $\mathbf{c} = \langle c_1, c_2, c_3 \rangle$  be a curve in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  and let  $\mathbf{F} = \langle P, Q, R \rangle$  be a vector field. If  $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{c}(t)) = \langle P(\mathbf{c}(t)), Q(\mathbf{c}(t)), R(\mathbf{c}(t)) \rangle$ , then, by the Fundamental Theorem for Line Integrals,  $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_a^b \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{c}(t)) \cdot \mathbf{c}'(t) dt$ .
- $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$  is independent of path if and only if  $\mathbf{F}$  is a conservative vector field, that is, if and only if  $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}) = \nabla f(\mathbf{r})$  for some scalar function  $f$ .

- Let  $\mathbf{F} = \langle P, Q, R \rangle$  be a vector field on a region  $R$  which is connected and simply connected. If  $\mathbf{F}$  is conservative, then  $\mathbf{F} = \nabla f$  for some  $f$  defined on  $R$ . Conversely, if  $\mathbf{F} = \nabla f$ , then  $\mathbf{F}$  is conservative.

- Let  $\mathbf{F} = f'(x)\mathbf{i} + g'(y)\mathbf{j}$  be a conservative vector field. If  $df/dx = dg/dy$ , we conclude that  $f(x, y) = \int f'(x) dx + \int g'(y) dy$ .

## Problem Set 14.3

In Problems 1–12, determine whether the given field  $\mathbf{F}$  is conservative. If so, find  $f$  so that  $\mathbf{F} = \nabla f$ ; if not, state that  $\mathbf{F}$  is not conservative. Set  $\mathbf{i}$  and  $\mathbf{j}$  equal to  $\mathbf{i}$  and  $\mathbf{j}$ .

$$1. \quad \mathbf{F}(x, y) = 10x^2\mathbf{i} - 2xy^2\mathbf{j} - 2y^2\mathbf{k}$$

$$2. \quad \mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)\mathbf{i} + (2xy + 5y)\mathbf{j} + (2xy + 3y^2 + 5x)\mathbf{k}$$

3.  $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = 4xz^2\mathbf{i} + 5y^2\mathbf{j} + 3z\mathbf{k} + (16xz^2\mathbf{i} - 12xy^2\mathbf{j})$

4.  $\mathbf{F} = \frac{5xz^2}{y}\mathbf{i} + \frac{1}{y}\mathbf{j} + \frac{1}{y}\mathbf{k}$

5.  $\mathbf{F} = \frac{5xz^2}{y}\mathbf{i} + \frac{1}{y}\mathbf{j} + \frac{1}{y}\mathbf{k}$

6.  $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = 4xz^2\cos(xy)\mathbf{i} + 4xz\sin(xy)\mathbf{j}$

7.  $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = (2e^x + y^2)\mathbf{i} + (2xe^x + x^2)\mathbf{j}$

8.  $\mathbf{F} = \frac{e}{x}\mathbf{i} + \frac{1}{x}\mathbf{j} + \frac{1}{x}\mathbf{k}$

9.  $\mathbf{F} = \frac{e}{x}\mathbf{i} + \frac{1}{x}\mathbf{j} + \frac{1}{x}\mathbf{k}$

10.  $\mathbf{F} = \frac{1}{x}\mathbf{i} + \frac{1}{y}\mathbf{j} + \frac{1}{z}\mathbf{k}$

11.  $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = \frac{2x}{x^2 + y^2}\mathbf{i} + \frac{2y}{x^2 + y^2}\mathbf{j}$

12.  $\mathbf{F} = \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2}\mathbf{i} + \frac{1}{x^2 + y^2}\mathbf{j}$

in Problems 17–31, show that the given line integral is independent of path (use Theorem 1) and then evaluate the integral (either by choosing a convenient path or, if you prefer, by finding a potential function and applying Theorem 4).

13.  $\int_C (x^2 + y^2 + z^2) \, ds$

14.  $\int_C x^2 \sin y \, ds$

15.  $\int_C (x^2 + y^2 + z^2) \, ds$

16.  $\int_C (x^2 + y^2 + z^2) \, ds$

17.  $\int_{\text{lineal}} (6xy^2 + 2z^2) \, dx + 4x^2y \, dy + (4xz + 1) \, dz$

*Hint:* Try the path consisting of line segments from  $(0, 0, 0)$  to  $(1, 0, 0)$ ,  $(1, 0, 0)$  to  $(1, 1, 0)$ , and  $(1, 1, 0)$  to  $(1, 1, 1)$ .

18.  $\int_C (x^2 + y^2 + z^2) \, ds$

19.  $\int_{\text{lineal}} (x^2 + y^2) \, dx + (x^2 + y^2) \, dy + (x^2 + y^2) \, dz$

20.  $\int_C (x^2 + y^2 + z^2) \, ds$

21. Suppose that  $\nabla f(x, y, z) = M(x, y, z)\mathbf{i} + N(x, y, z)\mathbf{j} + P(x, y, z)\mathbf{k}$ , where  $M$ ,  $N$ , and  $P$  have continuous first-order partial derivatives in an open set  $D$ . Prove that

$$\frac{\partial M}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial N}{\partial x}, \quad \frac{\partial M}{\partial z} = \frac{\partial P}{\partial x}, \quad \frac{\partial N}{\partial z} = \frac{\partial P}{\partial y}$$

in  $D$ . *Hint:* Use Theorem 12.6C on  $f$ .

22. For each  $(x, y, z)$  let  $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z)$  be a vector pointed toward the origin with magnitude inversely proportional to the distance from the origin. That is, let

$$\mathbf{F} = \frac{-x\mathbf{i} - y\mathbf{j} - z\mathbf{k}}{r^2}$$

Show that  $\mathbf{F}$  is conservative by finding a potential function for  $\mathbf{F}$ . *Hint:* This looks like hard work (see Problem 24).

23. Follow the directions of Problem 22 for  $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z)$  directed away from the origin with magnitude that is proportional to the distance from the origin.

24. Generalize Problems 22 and 23 by showing that if

$$\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = \frac{p(r)}{r^2}(-x\mathbf{i} - y\mathbf{j} - z\mathbf{k})$$

where  $p$  is a continuous function of one variable, then  $\mathbf{F}$  is conservative. *Hint:* Show that  $\mathbf{F} = \nabla f$  where  $f(x, y, z) = \frac{1}{2} \int \frac{p(r)}{r^2} dr$ .

25. Suppose that an object of mass  $m$  is moved along a smooth curve  $C$  in space from  $a$  to  $b$ .

$$r = r(t), \quad t = t_1 \text{ to } t_2, \quad \text{where } r = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$$

while subject only to the continuous force  $\mathbf{F}$ . Show that the work done is equal to the change in the kinetic energy of the object that is, show that

$$\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \frac{m}{2} \left( \left| \frac{dr}{dt} \right|^2 \right) \Big|_{t_1}^{t_2}$$

*Hint:*  $\mathbf{F}(r(t)) = m\mathbf{r}''(t)$ .

26. Matt moved a heavy object along the path  $r(t)$  in  $A$  to  $B$ . The object was at rest at the beginning and at the end. Using Problem 25 imply that Matt did no work. Explain.

27. We normally consider the gravitational force of the earth on an object of mass  $m$  to be given by the constant  $\mathbf{F} = -mg\mathbf{k}$ , but of course this is valid only in regions near the earth's surface. Find the potential function  $f$  for  $\mathbf{F}$  and use it to show that the work done by  $\mathbf{F}$  when an object is moved from  $(x_1, y_1, z_1)$  to a nearby point  $(x_2, y_2, z_2)$  is  $mg(z_2 - z_1)$ .

28. The distance from the earth (mean  $m$ ) to the moon (mass  $M$ ) varies from a maximum (apogee) of 132,000 miles kilometers to a minimum (perigee) of 47,000 miles kilometers. Assume that Newton's inverse square law  $\mathbf{F} = -G \frac{mM}{r^2} \mathbf{r}$  holds, with  $G = 6.67 \times 10^{-11}$  newton-meter<sup>2</sup>/kilogram<sup>2</sup>,  $M = 1.99 \times 10^{22}$  kilograms, and  $m = 5.97 \times 10^{24}$  kilograms. How much work does  $\mathbf{F}$  do in moving the moon in each case?

(a) From apogee to perigee.

(b) Around a complete orbit.

29. This problem shows the need for simple consequences in the “if” statement of Theorem 1. Let  $\mathbf{F} = (y - x^2)\mathbf{i} + x^2\mathbf{j}$ , on the set  $D = \{(x, y) : x^2 + y^2 \neq 0\}$ . Show each of the following.

(a) The condition  $\frac{\partial M}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial N}{\partial x}$  holds on  $D$ .

(b)  $\mathbf{F}$  is not conservative on  $D$ .

*Hint:* To see that  $\mathbf{F}$  is not conservative, let  $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = 0$  where  $C$  is the circle  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$  in the  $xy$ -plane. Use polar coordinates. Set  $x = \cos t$ ,  $y = \sin t$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq 2\pi$ .

30. Let  $f(x, y) = \tan^{-1}(y/x)$ . Show that  $\nabla f = \frac{-y\mathbf{i} + x\mathbf{j}}{x^2 + y^2}$  which is the vector function of Problem 22. Why doesn't the first of that problem violate Theorem 1?

31. Prove that in Theorem 1, Condition 3 implies Condition 2.

32. Let  $\mathbf{F} = (x^2 + y^2)\mathbf{i} + (x^2 + y^2)\mathbf{j} + (x^2 + y^2)\mathbf{k}$ . 1.  $\mathbf{F}$  is conservative. 2.  $\mathbf{F}$  is not conservative. 3.  $\mathbf{F}$  is conservative. 4.  $\mathbf{F}$  is conservative.

## 14.4 Green's Theorem in the Plane

We begin with another look at the Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus,

$$\int_a^b f'(x) dx = f(b) - f(a).$$

It says that the integral of a function over a set  $S = [a, b]$  is equal to a related function evaluated at the endpoints in a certain way. In the language of  $\mathbf{R}^1$  which in this case consists of just the two points  $a$  and  $b$ , the word “related” is clear. But we are going to give three generalizations of this result: the theorems of Green, Gauss, and Stokes. These are generalizations of the Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus in the sense that some integral (double or surface or volume) over a region is related to the values of some quantity evaluated on the boundary of the region in question. These theorems are applicable physics problems in the study of heat, electricity, magnetism, and fluid flow. We mention them here only as due to the sage Green (1790–1841), a somewhat lengthy mathematician/physicist.

We suppose that  $C$  is a simple closed curve (Section 12.4) that forms the boundary of a region  $S$  in the  $xy$ -plane. Let  $C$  be oriented so that, as you traverse  $C$  in its positive direction (keep  $S$  to the left) (the counterclockwise orientation), the corresponding line element  $\mathbf{r}'(t) = \langle M(t, y), N(t, y) \rangle$  and  $C'$  is denoted by

$$\oint_C M dx + N dy.$$

### Theorem 1 Green's Theorem

Let  $C$  be a piecewise smooth simple closed curve that marks the boundary of a region  $S$  in the  $xy$ -plane. Let  $M(x, y)$  and  $N(x, y)$  are continuous functions with partial derivatives on  $S$  and its boundary  $C$ , then

$$\oint_C \left( \frac{\partial N}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial M}{\partial y} \right) dx = \oint_C M dx + N dy.$$

**Proof** We prove the theorem in the case where  $S$  is both a simple and a simple set and then discuss extensions to the general case.

Since  $S$  is simple, it has the shape of Figure 1a; that is,

$$S = \{(x, y) : g(x) \leq y \leq f(x), a \leq x \leq b\}$$

its boundary  $C$  consists of four arcs  $C_1 = C_1$  and  $C_2$  (though  $C_1$  or  $C_2$  could be degenerate) and

$$\oint_C M dx = \int_{C_1} M dx + \int_{C_2} M dx + \int_{C_1} M dx + \int_{C_2} M dx$$

The integrals over  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  are zero since on these curves  $y$  is constant so  $dy = 0$ . Thus

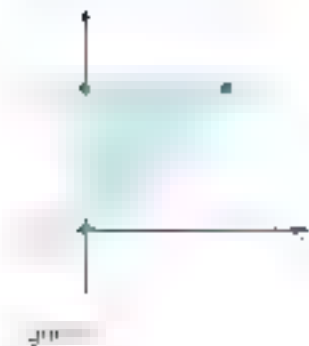
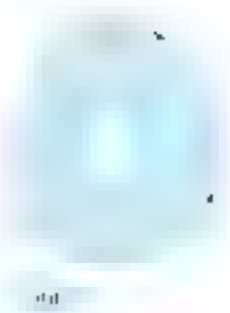
$$\begin{aligned} \oint_C M dx &= \int_a^b M(x, y(x)) dx + \int_b^a M(x, y(x)) dx \\ &= - \int_a^b [M(x, f(x)) - M(x, g(x))] dx \\ &= \int_a^b \int_{g(x)}^{f(x)} \frac{\partial M}{\partial y} dy dx \\ &= \iint_S \frac{\partial M}{\partial y} dy dx \end{aligned}$$

Suppose that  $\partial M / \partial x = \partial N / \partial y$ . Then Green's Theorem tells us that

$$\oint_C M dx + N dy = 0.$$

This in turn implies that the field  $\mathbf{F} = M\mathbf{i} + N\mathbf{j}$  is conservative. This is part of what we claimed in Theorem 13.10 for the two-variable case.





Similarly, by treating  $S$  as an  $x$ -simple set, we obtain

$$\oint_C \mathbf{N} \, ds = \iint_R \frac{\partial \mathbf{N}}{\partial x} \, dA$$

although the curves  $C = C_1 \cup C_2$  and  $C_3$  must be redefined as in Figure 1b. We conclude that (1) and (2) hold only for a set that is both  $x$ -simple and  $y$ -simple.

To subtractively apply Theorem 5 to a region  $S$  that is a union of regions  $S_1, S_2, \dots, S_k$  which are both  $x$ - and  $y$ -simple (Figure 2), we simply apply the theorem to the form that we have proved to each of these sets and then add the results. Note that the contributions of the line integrals cancel in cancellation whenever adjoining regions since these boundaries are traversed twice, but in opposite directions.

Green's Theorem even holds for a region  $S$  with one or more holes (Figure 3), provided that each part of the boundary is traversed so that  $S$  is always on the left as one traverses the curve in a positive direction. We will use this theorem in the following regions in the manner shown in Figure 4.

Sometimes Green's Theorem provides the simplest way of evaluating a line integral.

**EXAMPLE 1** Let  $C$  be the boundary of the triangle with vertices  $(0, 0)$ ,  $(1, 2)$ , and  $(3, 2)$  (Figure 5). Calculate

$$\oint_C (4 - x) \, dx + 2 \, dy$$

(a) by the direct method, and (b) by Green's Theorem.

**SOLUTION**

(a) On  $C_1$ ,  $y = 2x$  and  $dy = 2 \, dx$ , so

$$\int_0^1 (4 - x) \, dx + 2 \, dy = \int_0^1 (8x - x) \, dx = \left[ 4x^2 - \frac{1}{2}x^2 \right]_0^1 = 4 - \frac{1}{2} = \frac{7}{2}.$$

Also,

$$\int_1^3 (4 - x) \, dx + 2 \, dy = \int_1^3 (4 - x) \, dx = \left[ 4x - \frac{1}{2}x^2 \right]_1^3 = \frac{11}{2} - \frac{1}{2} = 5.$$

$$\int_3^1 (4 - x) \, dx + 2 \, dy = \int_3^1 (4 - x) \, dx = \left[ 4x - \frac{1}{2}x^2 \right]_3^1 = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{9}{2} = -4.$$

Thus

$$\oint_C (4 - x) \, dx + 2 \, dy = \frac{7}{2} + 5 - 4 = \frac{11}{2}.$$

(b) By Green's Theorem,

$$\begin{aligned} \oint_C (4 - x) \, dx + 2 \, dy &= \iint_R (-1 - 4x) \, dy \, dx \\ &= \int_0^1 (-4x^2) \, dx = \int_0^1 (-8x^2 + 8x^2) \, dx \\ &= \left[ -\frac{8x^3}{3} + 2x^2 \right]_0^1 = \frac{2}{3}. \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 3** Show that if a vector  $\mathbf{F}$  in the plane has boundary  $C$  where  $C$  is a piecewise-smooth simple closed curve, then the area of  $R$  is given by

$$A(R) = \frac{1}{2} \oint_C -y \, dx + x \, dy.$$

**SOLUTION** Let  $M(x, y) = -y/2$  and  $N(x, y) = x/2$ , and apply Green's Theorem:

$$\oint_C \left( -\frac{1}{2}y \, dx + \frac{1}{2}x \, dy \right) = \frac{1}{2} \iint_R \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x} x - \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (-y) \right) \, dA = \frac{1}{2} \iint_R 2 \, dA = A(R).$$

**EXAMPLE 4** Use the result of Example 3 to find the enclosed by the

$$\text{ellipse } \frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1.$$

**SOLUTION** The given ellipse has parametric equations

$$x = a \cos t, \quad y = b \sin t, \quad 0 \leq t < 2\pi.$$

Then,

$$\begin{aligned} A(R) &= \frac{1}{2} \oint_C (-y \, dx + x \, dy) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{2\pi} (-(b \sin t)(-a \sin t \, dt) + (a \cos t)(b \cos t \, dt)) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{2\pi} ab(\sin^2 t + \cos^2 t) \, dt \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{2\pi} ab \, dt = \pi ab. \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 5** Use Green's Theorem to evaluate the line integral

$$\oint_C (x^2 - z^2) \, dx + (x^2 + y^2) \, dy + (x^2 + y^2) \, dz$$

where  $C$  is the ellipse  $\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$ .

**SOLUTION** Let  $M(x, y) = x^2 + 2y$  and  $N(x, y) = 4x - 3y^2$  so that  $\partial M/\partial y = 2$  and  $\partial N/\partial x = 4$ . By Green's Theorem and Example 3,

$$\oint_C (x^2 - z^2) \, dx + (x^2 + y^2) \, dy + (x^2 + y^2) \, dz = \iint_R (4 - 2) \, dA = 2A(R) = 2\pi ab.$$

**THEOREM 14.4.1** (Green's Theorem in Vector Form) Our next theorem is a vector form of Green's Theorem for the plane in its vector form in two different ways. It is these forms that we will generalize later to two important theorems in three space.

We suppose that  $C$  is a smooth simple closed curve in the plane and that  $\mathbf{r}$  has been given a counterclockwise orientation by means of its arc length parametrization  $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}(s)$  and  $\mathbf{r}' = \mathbf{v}(s)$ . Then

$$\mathbf{T} = \frac{d\mathbf{r}}{ds} = \mathbf{i} + \frac{dy}{dx} \mathbf{j}$$

is a unit tangent vector and

$$\mathbf{n} = \frac{dy}{dx} \mathbf{i} - \frac{dx}{dy} \mathbf{j}$$



Figure 6

is a unit normal vector pointing out of the region  $S$  bounded by  $C$  (Figure 6). Note that  $\mathbf{T} = \mathbf{0}$ . If  $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = M(x, y)\mathbf{i} + N(x, y)\mathbf{j}$  is a vector field, then

$$\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, ds = \oint_C M \mathbf{i} \cdot \mathbf{j}_1 + N \mathbf{j} \cdot \left( \frac{dy}{dx} \mathbf{i} + \frac{dx}{dy} \mathbf{j} \right) ds = \oint_C M \, dy - N \, dx \\ = \iint_S \left( \frac{\partial M}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial N}{\partial y} \right) dA$$

The last equality comes from Green's Theorem. On the other hand,

$$\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F} = \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} = \frac{\partial M}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial N}{\partial y}$$

We conclude that

$$\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, ds = \iint_S \operatorname{div} \mathbf{F} \, dA = \iint_S \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} \, dA$$

a result sometimes called Gauss's divergence theorem in the plane.

We give a physical interpretation of this result and state it formally. We interpret the region  $S$  of the  $xy$ -plane as a fluid in the  $xy$ -plane. Let  $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = M(x, y)\mathbf{i} + N(x, y)\mathbf{j}$  be the velocity vector of the fluid at  $(x, y)$ . We may consider the boundary curve  $C$  of the region  $S$  as a closed pipe through which fluid is flowing. Figure 7.

Let  $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = v(x, y)\mathbf{i}$  denote the velocity vector of the fluid at  $(x, y)$ , and let  $\Delta x$  be the length of a short segment of the pipe with width  $\Delta y$  (Figure 7). The amount of fluid leaving this segment of pipe in a unit of time is approximately the area of the parallelogram in Figure 7 that is  $v \Delta x \Delta y$ . The (net) amount of fluid leaving  $S$  per unit of time, called the **flux** of the vector field  $\mathbf{F}$  across its curve  $C$ , is, if  $\mathbf{F}$  is in the  $xy$ -plane, is therefore

$$\text{flux of } \mathbf{F} \text{ across } C = \oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, ds$$

Now consider a fixed point  $(x_0, y_0)$  in  $S$  and a small circle  $C$  of radius  $\Delta r$  centered at  $(x_0, y_0)$  in the  $xy$ -plane. Again with the interpretation of  $\mathbf{F}$  as the velocity of fluid, we conclude that the value of the double integral in (1) for  $\mathbf{F}$  is approximately  $\Delta r^2 \operatorname{div} \mathbf{F}(x_0, y_0)$  by Green's Theorem.

$$\text{flux of } \mathbf{F} \text{ across } C = \oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, ds = \iint_D \operatorname{div} \mathbf{F} \, dA = \operatorname{div} \mathbf{F}(x_0, y_0) \Delta r^2$$

We conclude that  $\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F}(x_0, y_0)$  measures the rate at which the fluid is "leaving away" from  $(x_0, y_0)$ . If  $\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F}(x_0, y_0) > 0$ , there is a **source** of fluid at  $(x_0, y_0)$ ; if  $\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F}(x_0, y_0) < 0$ , there is a **sink** for the fluid at  $(x_0, y_0)$ . If the flux across the boundary of a region  $S$  is zero, for the given pipe network the region must be pure leak-off or, on the other hand, there are no sources within a region  $S$ , but  $\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F} < 0$  and by Green's Theorem there is a net flow of fluid across the boundary of  $S$ .

There is another vector form for Green's Theorem. We redraw Figure 6, but now as a subset of three-space (Figure 8). If  $\mathbf{F} = M\mathbf{i} + N\mathbf{j} + P\mathbf{k}$ , then Green's Theorem says the

$$\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} \, ds = \int_a^b M \, dx + N \, dy + P \, dz = \iint_S \left( \frac{\partial P}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial M}{\partial z} \right) dy \, dz + \left( \frac{\partial M}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial N}{\partial x} \right) dz \, dx + \left( \frac{\partial N}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} \right) dx \, dy$$



Figure 7

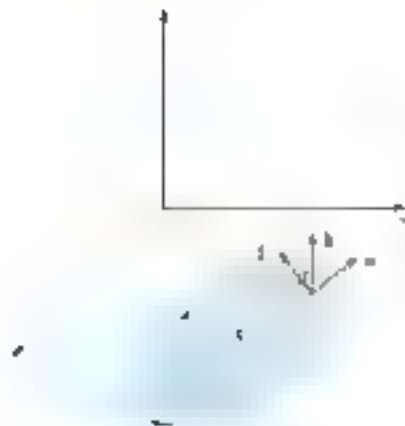


Figure 8

On the other hand,

$$\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F} = \nabla \times \mathbf{F} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ P & Q & R \end{vmatrix} = \left( \frac{\partial R}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial Q}{\partial y} \right) \mathbf{k}$$

so that

$$(\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F}) \cdot \mathbf{k} = \frac{\partial R}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial Q}{\partial y}.$$

Green's Theorem thus takes the form

$$\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} \, ds = \iint_S (\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F}) \cdot \mathbf{k} \, dA$$

which is sometimes called **Stokes's Theorem in the plane**.

If we apply this result to a small circle  $C_0$  centered at  $(x_0, y_0)$ , we obtain

$$\oint_{C_0} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} \, ds = (\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F})_{(x_0, y_0)} \cdot \mathbf{k} \pi r^2$$

This says that the flow in the direction of the tangent to  $C_0$  (the *circulation* of  $\mathbf{F}$  around  $C_0$ ) is measured by the curl of  $\mathbf{F}$ . In other words,  $\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F}$  measures the tendency of the fluid to rotate about  $(x_0, y_0)$ . If  $\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F} = 0$  in a region  $R$ , the corresponding fluid flow is said to be *irrotational*.

 **EXAMPLE 1** The vector field  $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = \left(\frac{1}{2}y^2 + \frac{1}{2}x^2\right)\mathbf{i} + (x^2 + y^2)\mathbf{j}$  has velocity field of a fluid rotating clockwise in a motion when  $\mathbf{F}(x, y) = 0$  (see Figure 14.4.1).

**EXAMPLE 2** Calculate  $\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} \, ds$  and  $\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, ds$  for the closed curve  $C$  in the  $xy$ -plane.

**SOLUTION** If  $S$  is the region enclosed by  $C$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, ds &= \iint_S (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F})(x, y) \, dA = \iint_S \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{2}y^2 \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (x^2 + y^2) \right) dA \\ \oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} \, ds &= \iint_S (\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F}) \cdot \mathbf{k} \, dA = \iint_S \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (x^2 + y^2) - \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left( \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{2}y^2 \right) \right) dA \\ &= \iint_S (-y) \, dA = -A(S) \end{aligned}$$

## Concepts Review

1. Let  $C$  be a simple closed curve bounding a region  $S$  in the  $xy$ -plane. Then, by Green's Theorem,  $\oint_C M \, dx + N \, dy = \iint_S \left( \frac{\partial N}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial M}{\partial y} \right) dA$ .

2. Thus, if  $C$  is the boundary of the square  $S = \{(x, y) : 0 \leq x \leq 1, 0 \leq y \leq 1\}$ ,  $\oint_C y \, dx + x \, dy = \iint_S \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (x) - \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (y) \right) dA$ .

3. The  $\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F}(x, y)$  measures the rate at which a homogeneous fluid flow with velocity field  $\mathbf{F}$  diverges away from  $(x, y)$ . If  $\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F}(x, y) > 0$  there is a(n) \_\_\_\_\_ of fluid at  $(x, y)$ ; if  $\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F}(x, y) < 0$ , there is a(n) \_\_\_\_\_ at  $(x, y)$ .

4. On the other hand,  $\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F}(x, y)$  measures the tendency of the fluid to \_\_\_\_\_ about  $(x, y)$ . If  $\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F}(x, y) = 0$  in a region, the flow is \_\_\_\_\_.

## Problem Set 14.4

In Problems 1–6, use Green's Theorem to evaluate the given line integral. Begin by sketching the region  $S$ .

1.  $\oint_C 2xy \, dx + y^2 \, dy$ , where  $C$  is the closed curve formed by  $y = x^2$  and  $y = \sqrt{x}$  between  $(0, 0)$  and  $(4, 2)$

2.  $\oint_C \sqrt{y} \, dx - \sqrt{x} \, dy$ , where  $C$  is the closed curve formed by  $y = 0$ ,  $x = 2$ , and  $y = x^2/2$

3.  $\oint_C (2x + y^2) \, dx - (x^2 + 2y) \, dy$ , where  $C$  is the closed curve formed by  $x = 0$ ,  $x = 2$ , and  $y = x^3/3$

4.  $\oint_C xy \, dx + (x + y) \, dy$ , where  $C$  is the triangle with vertices  $(0, 0)$ ,  $(1, 1)$ , and  $(2, 0)$

5.  $\oint_C (x^2 - y^2) \, dx + 2xy \, dy$ , where  $C$  is the circle  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$

6.  $\oint_C (x^2 - 2y) \, dx + (x^2 + 1) \, dy$ , where  $C$  is the triangle with vertices  $(2, 3)$ ,  $(0, 4)$ , and  $(2, 1)$

In Problems 7 and 8, use the result of Example 2 to find the area of the indicated region  $S$ . Sketch a sketch.

7.  $S$  is bounded by the curves  $y = x - 4$  and  $y = x^2$

8.  $S$  is bounded by the curves  $y = x^2$  and  $y = x^3$

In Problems 9–12, use the vector form of Green's Theorem to evaluate  $\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$ .

9.  $\mathbf{F} = y^2 \mathbf{i} + x^2 \mathbf{j}$ ;  $C$  is the boundary of unit square with vertices  $(0, 0)$ ,  $(1, 0)$ ,  $(1, 1)$ , and  $(0, 1)$

10.  $\mathbf{F} = xy \mathbf{i} + x^2 \mathbf{j}$ ;  $C$  as in Problem 9

11.  $\mathbf{F} = (1 - y) \mathbf{i} + x \mathbf{j}$ ;  $C$  is the unit circle

12.  $\mathbf{F} = (x - y) \mathbf{i} + (x + y) \mathbf{j}$ ;  $C$  is the unit circle

13. Suppose that the integrals  $\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$  taken counterclockwise around the circles  $x^2 + y^2 = 16$  and  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$  are  $40\pi$  and  $2\pi$ , respectively. Evaluate  $\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$  where  $C$  is the region between the circles.

14. If  $\mathbf{F} = (x^2 + y^2)\mathbf{i} + 2xy\mathbf{j}$ , find the flux of  $\mathbf{F}$  across the boundary  $C$  of the unit square with vertices  $(0, 0)$ ,  $(1, 0)$ ,  $(1, 1)$ , and  $(0, 1)$ ; that is, calculate  $\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, ds$

15. Find the work done by  $\mathbf{F} = (x + y^2)\mathbf{i} - 2xy\mathbf{j}$  in moving a body counterclockwise around the curve  $C$  of Problem 14.

16. If  $\mathbf{F} = (x^2 + y^2)\mathbf{i} + 2xy\mathbf{j}$ , calculate the circulation of  $\mathbf{F}$  around  $C$  of Problem 14; that is, calculate  $\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$

17. Show that the work done by a constant force  $\mathbf{F}$  in moving a body on a smooth closed curve is 0.

18. Use Green's Theorem to prove the plane case of Theorem 14.1D: that is, show that  $\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = 0$  implies that  $\oint_C M \, dx + N \, dy = 0$ , which implies that  $\mathbf{F} = M\mathbf{i} + N\mathbf{j}$  is conservative.

19. Let

$$\mathbf{F} = \frac{1}{x^2} \mathbf{i} + \frac{1}{y^2} \mathbf{j} \quad \text{or} \quad M = \frac{1}{x^2}, \quad N = \frac{1}{y^2}$$

(a) Show that  $M_y = N_x = 0$ .

(b) Show by using the parametrization  $x = \cos t$ ,  $y = \sin t$ , that

$$\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{1}{\cos^2 t} (-\sin t) \, dt + \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{1}{\sin^2 t} (\cos t) \, dt = 0$$

(c) Why doesn't this contradict Green's Theorem?

20. Let  $\mathbf{F}$  be as in Problem 19. Calculate  $\oint_C M \, dx + N \, dy$  where

(a)  $C$  is the ellipse  $x^2/4 + y^2/9 = 1$

(b)  $C$  is the square with vertices  $(1, 1)$ ,  $(1, -1)$ ,  $(-1, -1)$ , and  $(-1, 1)$

(c)  $C$  is the triangle with vertices  $(1, 0)$ ,  $(2, 0)$ , and  $(1, 1)$

21. Let the piecewise smooth, simple closed curve  $C$  be the boundary of a region  $S$  in the  $xy$ -plane. Modify the argument in Example 2 to show that

$$A(S) = \oint_C (1 - y) \, dx = \oint_C x \, dy$$

22. Let  $S$  and  $C$  as in Problem 21. Show that the line integrals  $M_x$  and  $M_y$  are equal, and  $N_x$  and  $N_y$  are given by

$$M_y = \oint_C \frac{1}{y^2} \, dx = -\oint_C \frac{1}{y^2} \, dy = 0$$

23. Show that the area  $A$  is the area of the region  $S$  bounded by  $C$ .

24. Calculate the work done by  $\mathbf{F} = 2xy \mathbf{i} - x^2 \mathbf{j}$  in moving an object around the interval of Problem 24.

25. Let  $\mathbf{F}(x) = x^2 \mathbf{i} + (x^2 + y^2)\mathbf{j}$ ,  $x^2 = y^2$

(a) Show that  $\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = 0$  where  $C$  is the circle centered at the origin of radius  $a$  and  $\mathbf{n} = (x^2 + y^2)\mathbf{i} + (x^2 + y^2)\mathbf{j}$ , the outward unit normal to  $C$ .

(b) Show that  $\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, ds = 0$ .

(c) Explain why the results of parts (a) and (b) do not contradict the vector form of Green's Theorem.

(d) Show that if  $C$  is a smooth simple closed curve then  $\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, ds$  equals  $2\pi$  or  $0$  according as the origin is inside or outside  $C$ .

26. Area of a Polygon Let  $P_0, P_1, P_2, \dots, P_n, P_{n+1}$  be the vertices of a simple polygon  $S$  labeled counterclockwise and with  $P_0 = P_{n+1}$ . Show each of the following:

(a)  $\int_C z \, dy = z(x_1 + x_0)(y_1 + y_0)$ , where  $L$  is the outer  $1/2$  of

(b)  $\text{Area}(P) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{z_i - z_{i-1}}{2} (x_i - x_{i-1})$

- (c) The area of a polygon with vertices having integral coordinates is always a multiple of  $\frac{1}{2}$ .
- (d) The formula in part (c) is the special case for the polygon with vertices  $(0, 0, 0)$ ,  $(1, 0, 0)$ ,  $(1, 1, 0)$ , and  $(0, 1, 0)$ .

In each of the following problems, use the graph of  $z = f(x, y)$  and the base domain,  $D$ , in the  $xy$ -plane to find  $\text{div } \mathbf{F}$  at the point  $(x, y, z)$ . Then, use the value of  $\text{div } \mathbf{F}$  to determine whether the flux of  $\mathbf{F}$  across the surface is positive or negative.

27.  $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = (x, y, z)$

- (a) By visually examining the field  $\mathbf{F}$  determine whether  $\text{div } \mathbf{F} > 0$  or  $\text{div } \mathbf{F} < 0$  on  $S$ . Then calculate  $\text{div } \mathbf{F}$ .
- (b) Calculate the flux of  $\mathbf{F}$  across the boundary of  $S$ .

28. Let  $f(x, y) = \ln(\cos(x - y))$ . In each case

- (a) Guess whether  $\text{div } \mathbf{F}$  is positive or negative at a few points and then calculate  $\text{div } \mathbf{F}$  to check on your guesses.
- (b) Calculate the flux of  $\mathbf{F}$  across the boundary of  $S$ .
29. Let  $f(x, y) = \ln(x + y)$ .
- (a) By visually examining the field  $\mathbf{F}$  guess where  $\text{div } \mathbf{F}$  is positive and where it is negative. Then calculate  $\text{div } \mathbf{F}$  to check on your guesses.
- (b) Calculate the flux of  $\mathbf{F}$  across the boundary of  $S$ ; then calculate it across the boundary of  $T = \{(x, y), 0 \leq x \leq 3, 0 \leq y \leq 3\}$ .

30. Let  $f(x, y) = \exp(-x^2 + y^2/4)$ . Guess where  $\text{div } \mathbf{F}$  is positive and where it is negative. Then determine the maximum.

31. Evaluate the surface integral  $\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS$  where  $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = (x, y, z)$  and  $S$  is the surface  $z = 1 - x^2 - y^2$  for  $z \geq 0$ .

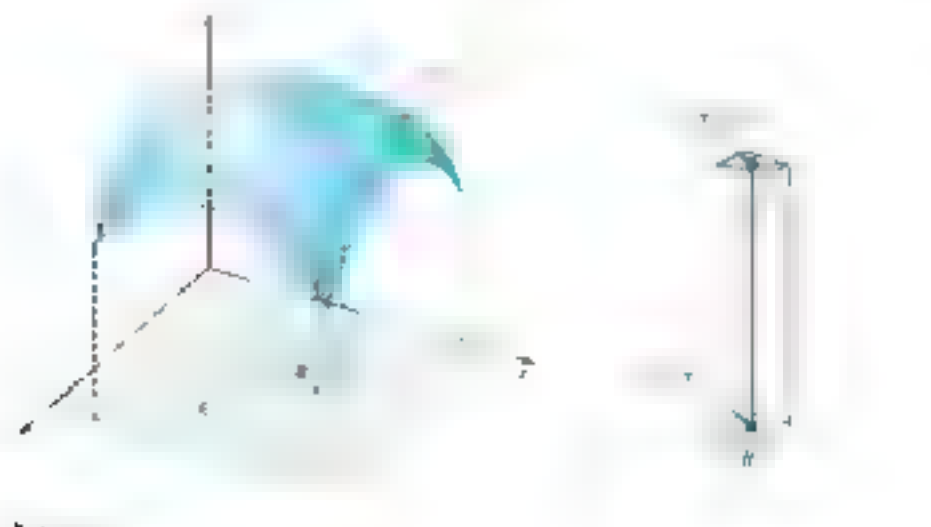
## 14.5 Surface Integrals

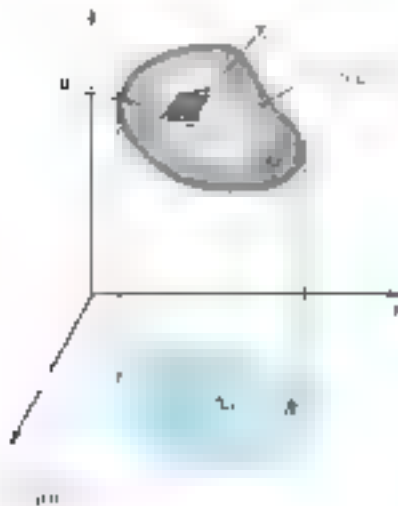
We have fixed the order of integration in the double integral. Now we will consider a surface integral.

Let  $S$  be the surface  $z = f(x, y)$  where  $f$  is a function of two variables. Let  $R$  be the projection of  $S$  on the  $xy$ -plane. Let  $P$  be a point in  $R$  and let  $\Delta A$  be the area of a small region  $\Delta A$  in  $R$ . Let  $P_1, P_2, P_3$  be the coordinates of the point  $P$  and let  $P_1, P_2, P_3$  be the coordinates of the point  $P$ . Then the surface integral of  $f$  over  $S$  is

$$\iint_S f(x, y, z) \, dS = \lim_{\Delta A \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^n f(P_i) \Delta A_i$$

where  $\Delta A$  is the area of  $\Delta A$  and the definition is the same as the one for a double integral. The surface  $S$  is a smooth surface and  $R$  is a region in the  $xy$ -plane.





A definition is not enough; we need a practical way to evaluate a surface integral. The development in Section 13.6 suggests the correct result. There we showed that under appropriate hypotheses, the area of a small patch  $\Delta A$  (Figure 1) of the surface is approximately  $\Delta u \Delta v$ , where  $\Delta u$  and  $\Delta v$  are sides of a parallelogram that is tangent to the surface. Thus,

$$\Delta A(\mathbf{r}_0) \approx \|\Delta \mathbf{u} \times \Delta \mathbf{v}\| \approx \sqrt{[f_x(x_0, y_0, z_0)]^2 + [f_y(x_0, y_0, z_0)]^2 + 1} \Delta u \Delta v.$$

This leads to the following theorem.

### THEOREM 4

Let  $G$  be a surface given by  $z = f(x, y)$ , where  $(x, y)$  is in  $R$ . If  $f$  has continuous first-order partial derivatives and  $g(x, y, z) = g(x, y, f(x, y))$  is continuous on  $R$ , then

$$\iint_G g(x, y, z) \, dS = \iint_R g(x, y, f(x, y)) \sqrt{1 + f_x^2 + f_y^2} \, dA.$$

Note that when  $g(x, y, z) = 1$  Theorem 4 gives the formula for surface area given in Section 13.6.

**EXAMPLE 1** Evaluate  $\iint_G (x + y + z) \, dS$  where  $G$  is the part of the plane  $2x + y + z = 3$  above the triangle  $R$  sketched in Figure 3.

**SOLUTION** In this case  $z = 3 - y - 2x = f(x, y)$ ,  $f_x = -2$ ,  $f_y = -1$ , and  $\sqrt{1 + f_x^2 + f_y^2} = \sqrt{1 + 4 + 1} = 3$ . Thus

$$\begin{aligned} \iint_G (x + y + z) \, dS &= \iint_R (x + y + 3 - y - 2x) \sqrt{1 + 4 + 1} \, dA \\ &= \sqrt{6} \int_0^1 \int_0^{3-2x} \left( \frac{x}{2} + 3y + \frac{y^2}{2} - 2xy \right) dy \, dx \\ &= \sqrt{6} \int_0^1 \left( \frac{x}{2} + 3y - \frac{1x}{2} \right) dy \, dx = \frac{9\sqrt{6}}{8}. \end{aligned}$$

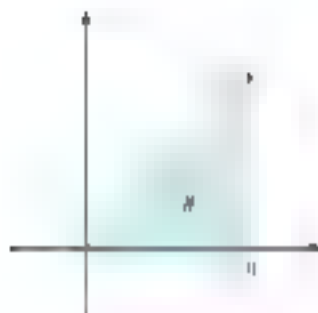


Figure 3

**EXAMPLE 2** Evaluate  $\iint_G (x + y) \, dS$  where  $G$  is the part of the cone  $z^2 = x^2 + y^2$  between the planes  $z = 1$  and  $z = 4$  (Figure 4).

**SOLUTION** We may write

$$z = (x^2 + y^2)^{1/2} = f(x, y)$$

from which

$$z_x^2 + z_y^2 + 1 = \frac{x^2}{z^2} + \frac{y^2}{z^2} + 1 = \frac{x^2 + y^2}{z^2} + 1 = 2.$$

Thus

$$\iint_G (x + y) \, dS = \iint_R (x + y) \sqrt{2} \, dA = \sqrt{2} \iint_R (x + y) \, dA.$$

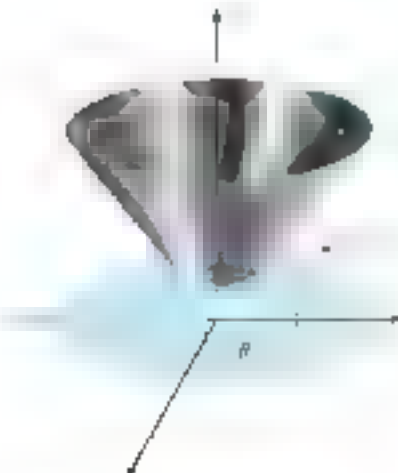


Figure 4

After a change to polar coordinates, this becomes

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^2 (1 + \cos \theta - \sin \theta) r \, dr \, d\theta &= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{2\pi} \left[ \sin \theta + \cos \theta \right]_0^2 r^2 \, d\theta \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left[ \frac{1}{3} \sin \theta + \frac{1}{2} \cos \theta \right]_0^{2\pi} = 0. \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 4** The portion of the sphere  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$  with equation

$$z = \sqrt{4 - x^2 - y^2} \quad (z \geq 0)$$

where  $x$  and  $y$  satisfy  $x^2 + y^2 \leq 4$  has a thin metal covering whose density at  $(x, y, z)$  is  $\delta(x, y, z) = 1$ . Find the mass of this covering.

**SOLUTION** Let  $R$  be the projection of  $S$  on the  $xy$ -plane; that is,  $R = \{(x, y): x^2 + y^2 \leq 4\}$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} m &= \iint_S \delta(x, y, z) \, dS = \iint_R \sqrt{4 - x^2 - y^2} \sqrt{4 - x^2 - y^2} \, dA \\ &= \iint_R (4 - x^2 - y^2) \, dA = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^2 (4 - r^2) r \, dr \, d\theta \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi} \left[ 2r^2 - \frac{1}{3}r^3 \right]_0^2 d\theta = \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{8}{3} \, d\theta = \frac{16}{3}\pi. \end{aligned}$$

Let the surface  $S$  be given by an equation of the form  $y = h(x, z)$  and let  $R$  be its projection in the  $xz$ -plane. Then the upper and lower parts of the surface are

$$\iint_S (x + y + z) \, dS = \iint_R (x + h(x, z) + z) \sqrt{h_x^2 + h_z^2 + 1} \, dx \, dz$$

There is a corresponding formula when the surface  $S$  is given by  $x = h(y, z)$ .

**EXAMPLE 5** Evaluate  $\iint_S (x + y + z) \, dS$  where  $S$  is the part of the hemisphere  $y = 1 - x^2 - z^2$  that projects onto  $R = \{(x, z): x^2 + z^2 \leq 1\}$ .

**SOLUTION**

$$\iint_S (x + y + z) \, dS = \iint_R (x + 1 - x^2 - z^2 + z) \sqrt{4x^2 + 4z^2 + 1} \, dx \, dz$$

If we use polar coordinates, this becomes

$$\int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^1 r^2 \sqrt{4r^2 + 1} \, r \, dr \, d\theta$$

In the inner integral, let  $u = \sqrt{4r^2 + 1}$  so  $u^2 = 4r^2 + 1$  and  $u \, du = 4r \, dr$ . We obtain

$$\frac{1}{16} \int_0^{2\pi} \int_1^{\sqrt{5}} (u^2 - 1)u^2 \, du \, d\theta = \frac{(25\sqrt{5} - 1)\pi}{60} \approx 2.579$$





Figure 5

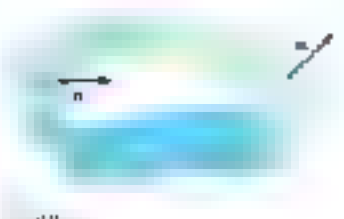


Figure 6



Figure 7

and for later applications, we need to limit further the kinds of surfaces that we consider. Most surfaces that arise in practice have two sides. However, it is surprisingly easy to construct a surface with just one side—take a paper band (Figure 5), stick it at the dotted line, give one end a half twist, and paste it back together (Figure 6). You obtain a one-sided surface called a Möbius band.

From now on we consider only two-sided surfaces, which will make sense to talk about. (Think now of “through the surface” as one side or the other, as if the surface were a screen.) We also suppose that the surface is smooth, meaning that it has a continuously varying unit normal  $\mathbf{n}$ , as we did in a smooth, wire-mesh surface, and assume that it is submerged in a fluid with a continuous velocity field  $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z)$ . If  $\Delta S$  is the area of a small piece of  $S$ , then  $\mathbf{F}$  is almost uniformly directed and the theme  $\Delta \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}$  of discussing the piece in the flux is of the unit normal  $\mathbf{n}$  (Figure 5) is

$$\Delta \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \approx \Delta S$$

We conclude that

$$\text{flux of } \mathbf{F} \text{ across } S = \iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS$$

**EXAMPLE 1** Find the upward flux of  $\mathbf{F} = (x - y)\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + 4\mathbf{k}$  across the top of the spherical surface  $G$  determined by

$$x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 9, \quad z \geq 0, \quad G = \partial G.$$

**SOLUTION** Note that the field  $\mathbf{F}$  is at station, stream flowing in the direction of the positive  $z$ -axis.

The equation of the surface may be written as

$$H(x, y, z) = \sqrt{9 - x^2 - y^2} - z = 0 \quad (1)$$

and thus

$$\mathbf{n} = -\frac{\nabla H}{|\nabla H|} = \frac{-(-2x\mathbf{i} - 2y\mathbf{j} - \mathbf{k})}{\sqrt{4x^2 + 4y^2 + 1}} = \frac{(x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{k})}{\sqrt{4x^2 + 4y^2 + 1}}.$$

$\mathbf{n}$  is the vector normal to  $S$ , surface (the vector  $-\mathbf{n}$  is also normal to the surface, but since we want the normal unit vector that points upward,  $\mathbf{n}$  is the right choice). A straightforward computation gives the scalar

$$\mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{F} = \frac{(x, y, \frac{1}{2}) \cdot (x - y, y, 2)}{\sqrt{4x^2 + 4y^2 + 1}} = \frac{x^2 - y^2 + y + 1}{\sqrt{4x^2 + 4y^2 + 1}}.$$

A simple geometric argument will also give this result. (The normal  $\mathbf{n}$  is directed exactly away from the origin.)

The flux of  $\mathbf{F}$  across  $G$  is given by

$$\begin{aligned} \text{flux} &= \iint_G \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS \\ &= \iint_G \frac{(x^2 - y^2 + y + 1)}{\sqrt{4x^2 + 4y^2 + 1}} \, dS \\ &= \iint_D (x^2 - y^2 + y + 1) \, dA \end{aligned}$$

Finally we write the surface integral as a double integral using the fact that  $R$  is a circle of radius 2 and that  $\sqrt{f_x^2 + f_y^2 + 1} = 3/\sqrt{4 - x^2 - y^2}$ :

$$\text{flux} = \iint_S 3x \, dS = \iint_R 3x \frac{3}{\sqrt{4 - x^2 - y^2}} \, dA = 9(\pi + 2^2) = 36\pi$$

The total flux across  $G$  in one unit of time is  $36\pi$  cubic units.  $\blacksquare$

An observant reader, after seeing the calculation that occurred in Example 5, will suspect that a theorem is lurking near:

### THEOREM B

Let  $G$  be a smooth, two-sided surface given by  $z = f(x, y)$ , where  $(x, y) \in R$ , and let  $\mathbf{n}$  denote the upward unit normal to  $G$ . If  $\mathbf{F}$  has continuous second-order partial derivatives and  $\mathbf{F} = M\mathbf{i} + N\mathbf{j} + P\mathbf{k}$  is a continuous vector field, then the flux of  $\mathbf{F}$  across  $G$  is given by

$$\text{flux } \mathbf{F} = \iint_G \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS = \iint_R (M(-f_x) + N(-f_y) + P) \sqrt{f_x^2 + f_y^2 + 1} \, dA$$

**Proof** If we write  $H(x, y, z) = z - f(x, y)$ , we obtain

$$\nabla H = (-f_x, -f_y, 1) \quad \text{and} \quad \|\nabla H\| = \sqrt{f_x^2 + f_y^2 + 1}$$

It follows from Theorem A that

$$\begin{aligned} \iint_G \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS &= \iint_R (M(-f_x) + N(-f_y) + P) \sqrt{f_x^2 + f_y^2 + 1} \, dA \\ &= \iint_R (-Mf_x - Nf_y + P) \, dA \end{aligned}$$

You might try reworking Example 5 using Theorem B. We offer a different example.

**EXAMPLE 5** Evaluate the flux for the vector field  $\mathbf{F} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$  across the part of the paraboloid  $z = 4 - x^2 - y^2$  that lies above the  $xy$ -plane, taking  $\mathbf{n}$  to be the upward normal.

**SOLUTION**

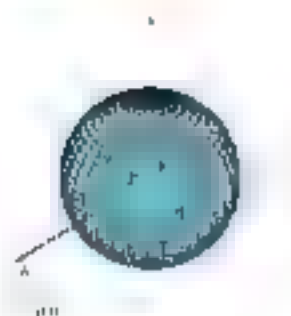
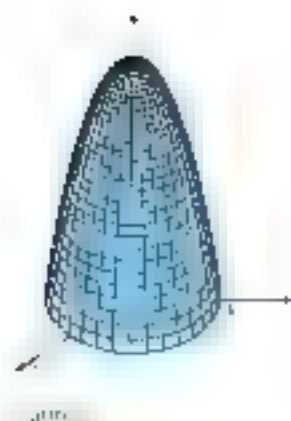
$$\begin{aligned} f(x, y) &= 4 - x^2 - y^2 \quad \text{so} \quad f_x = -2x \quad \text{and} \quad f_y = -2y \\ M &= x, \quad N = y, \quad P = 1 \quad \text{so} \quad -Mf_x - Nf_y + P = 2x^2 + 2y^2 + 1 \\ \sqrt{f_x^2 + f_y^2 + 1} &= \sqrt{4x^2 + 4y^2 + 1} \end{aligned}$$

$$\iint_G \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS = \iint_R (2x^2 + 2y^2 + 1) \sqrt{4x^2 + 4y^2 + 1} \, dA = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^2 (r^2 + 1) \sqrt{4r^2 + 1} \, r \, dr \, d\theta = \frac{4}{3}$$

**DEFINITION** We have seen that curves in space can be expressed as  $\mathbf{r}(t) = x(t)\mathbf{i} + y(t)\mathbf{j} + z(t)\mathbf{k}$  where  $a \leq t \leq b$ . What if  $\mathbf{r}$  is a function of two parameters, say  $u$  and  $v$ ? It shouldn't be too surprising that a relationship like

$$\mathbf{r}(u, v) = x(u, v)\mathbf{i} + y(u, v)\mathbf{j} + z(u, v)\mathbf{k} \quad (u, v) \in R$$

yields a surface. For each  $(u, v)$  in the set  $R$  we obtain a vector  $\mathbf{r}$  in three-space. The set of points that are the terminal points of the vectors  $\mathbf{r}(u, v)$  emanating from the origin is called a **parametrized surface**.



**EXAMPLE 1** Describe and sketch the surface defined parametrically by

(a)  $\mathbf{r}(u, v) = u\mathbf{i} + v\mathbf{j} + (9 - u^2 - v^2)\mathbf{k}, \quad u^2 + v^2 \leq 9$

(b)  $\mathbf{r}(u, v) = u \cos v \mathbf{i} + u \sin v \mathbf{j} + (9 - u^2)\mathbf{k}, \quad 0 \leq u \leq 3, \quad 0 \leq v \leq 2\pi$

(c)  $\mathbf{r}(u, v) = (2 \cos u \sin v)\mathbf{i} + (2 \sin u \sin v)\mathbf{j} + (2 \cos u)\mathbf{k}, \quad 0 \leq u \leq 2\pi, \quad 0 \leq v \leq \pi$

**SOLUTION**

(a) For this  $\mathbf{r}$  we see that the  $x$  and  $y$  components are simply  $u$  and  $v$  and that  $z = 9 - u^2 - v^2$ . This is just the graph of the function  $f(x, y) = 9 - x^2 - y^2$  over the disk  $x^2 + y^2 \leq 9$ . The graph, a paraboloid with vertex at  $(0, 0, 9)$  opening downward, is shown in Figure 8.

(b) The  $x$  and  $y$  components look like the formulas for polar coordinates except that  $u$  and  $v$  are substituted for  $r$  and  $\theta$ , respectively. Since  $z = 9 - u^2 = 9 - x^2 - y^2$ , this surface is the same as part (a).

(c) We recognize the components of  $\mathbf{r}$  as the spherical coordinates of the points in a sphere of radius 1 centered at the origin. As  $u$  ranges from 0 to  $2\pi$  and  $v$  ranges from 0 to  $\pi$ , we obtain the full sphere shown in Figure 9. ■

Here are more examples where we have described a known surface as a parametrized surface. There is also more than one way to describe the next example (see Example 4).

**EXAMPLE 2** Find parametric equations for the surfaces (a) the right circular cylinder of radius 2 with axis along the  $z$ -axis,  $0 \leq z \leq 4$ , and (b) the hemisphere of radius 4, centered at  $(0, 0, 4)$ , lying above the  $xy$ -plane.

**SOLUTION**

(a) If we think of polar coordinates in the  $xy$ -plane, we have  $x = 2 \cos v$  and  $y = 2 \sin v$ . The other parameter  $u$ , is the distance from the  $xy$ -plane. The parametric equation is thus  $\mathbf{r}(u, v) = 2 \cos v \mathbf{i} + u \mathbf{j} + 2 \sin v \mathbf{j}$  and the domain for  $(u, v)$  is  $-4 \leq u \leq 4$ ,  $0 \leq v \leq 2\pi$ .

(b) For a hemisphere, we can use cylindrical coordinates  $x = u \cos v$  and  $y = u \sin v$  in which case the hemisphere  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$ ,  $z \geq 0$ , becomes

$$\sqrt{4 - x^2 - y^2} = \sqrt{4 - u^2}. \quad \text{The parametric equation is (thus } \mathbf{r}(u, v) =$$

$$u \cos v \mathbf{i} + u \sin v \mathbf{j} + \sqrt{4 - u^2} \mathbf{k} \text{ with domain } 0 \leq u \leq 2, \quad 0 \leq v \leq 2\pi. \text{ A}$$

less attractive description for this hemisphere is in terms of spherical coordinates. With angle measured from the positive  $z$ -axis, usually called  $\theta$ , we have  $\theta = \pi/2$  rather than from  $-\pi/2$  as we would expect. A fair approximation: The parametric equation would then be  $\mathbf{r}(u, v) = 2 \cos u \sin v \mathbf{i} + 2 \sin u \sin v \mathbf{j} + 2 \cos u \mathbf{k}$ ,  $0 \leq u \leq 2\pi$ ,  $0 \leq v \leq \pi/2$ . ■

**SECTION 14.6** **Surface Area** In the preceding section we found the mapping from the rectangle  $R$  to the surface  $\mathbf{r}$ . In order to find the area of the surface, we need to know how the mapping distorts area. To do this, we assume that  $R$  is a rectangle. We partition the rectangle  $R$  so we see that the thin rectangles are mapped to thin patches on the surface. However, if  $\Delta u$  and  $\Delta v$  are small, the patches will closely resemble a parallelogram having as sides the vectors  $\Delta \mathbf{r}_{u_0 v_0}(\Delta u)$  and  $\Delta \mathbf{r}_{u_0 v_0}(\Delta v)$  where  $(u_0, v_0)$  is the lower-left corner of the rectangle and  $\mathbf{r}$  and  $\mathbf{r}'$  denote the partial derivatives  $\frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial u}$  and  $\frac{\partial \mathbf{r}}{\partial v}$ , respectively.

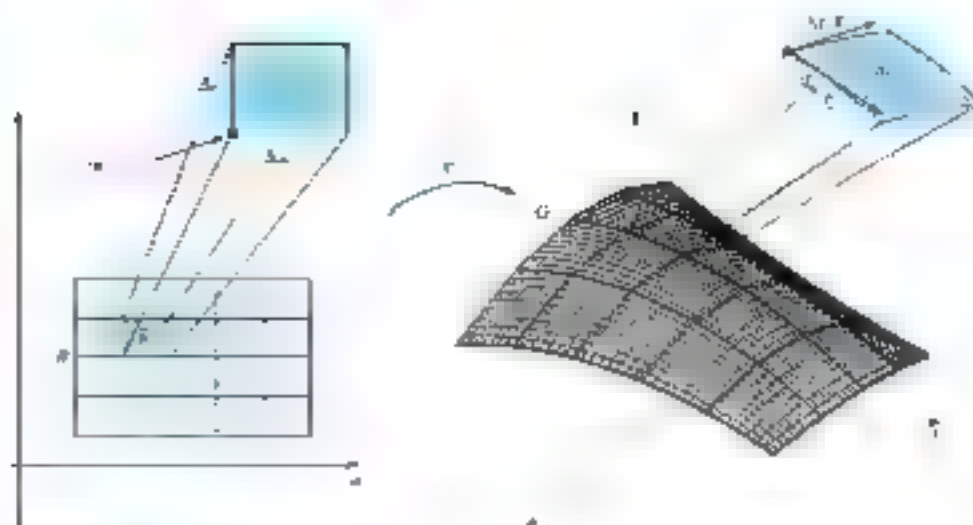


FIGURE 15

The surface area of the patch  $G_0$  is approximately

$$\Delta S \approx \|(\Delta u \mathbf{r}_u(u, v)) \times (\Delta v \mathbf{r}_v(u, v))\| = \|\mathbf{r}_u(u, v) \times \mathbf{r}_v(u, v)\| \Delta u \Delta v$$

The surface area of the parametrized surface is therefore

$$S = \iint_D \|\mathbf{r}_u(u, v) \times \mathbf{r}_v(u, v)\| \, dA$$

The differential of surface area is

$$dS = \|\mathbf{r}_u(u, v) \times \mathbf{r}_v(u, v)\| \, dA$$

A surface integral for a parametrized surface is then

$$\iint_S f(x, y, z) \, dS = \iint_D f(\mathbf{r}(u, v)) \|\mathbf{r}_u(u, v) \times \mathbf{r}_v(u, v)\| \, dA$$

**EXAMPLE 2** A thin spherical shell of radius 5 centered at the origin has a cap of radius 3 removed from the top (Figure 16). Find the surface area of this shell assuming that the density is proportional to the square of the distance from the  $z$ -axis.

**SOLUTION** We can parametrize the surface as

$$\mathbf{r}(u, v) = 5 \cos u \sin v \mathbf{i} + 5 \sin u \sin v \mathbf{j} + 5 \cos v \mathbf{k}$$

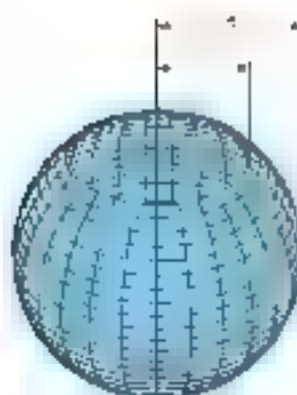
for  $0 \leq u \leq 2\pi$ ,  $\sin^{-1} \frac{4}{5} \leq v \leq \pi$ . The required derivatives are

$$\mathbf{r}_u(u, v) = -5 \sin u \sin v \mathbf{i} + 5 \cos u \sin v \mathbf{j} + 0 \mathbf{k}$$

$$\mathbf{r}_v(u, v) = 5 \cos u \cos v \mathbf{i} + 5 \sin u \cos v \mathbf{j} - 5 \sin v \mathbf{k}$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ -5 \sin u \sin v & 5 \cos u \sin v & 0 \\ 5 \cos u \cos v & 5 \sin u \cos v & -5 \sin v \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ -5 \sin u \sin v & 5 \cos u \sin v & 0 \\ 5 \cos u \cos v & 5 \sin u \cos v & -5 \sin v \end{vmatrix} = 5 \sin v \cos^2 v \mathbf{i} + 5 \sin v \sin^2 v \mathbf{j} + 5 \sin v \mathbf{k}$$



$$\begin{aligned}
&= 25 \cos u \sin^2 v \mathbf{i} - 25 \sin u \sin^2 v \mathbf{j} \\
&\quad 25 \sin u \cos v (\sin^2 u + \cos^2 u) \mathbf{k} \\
&= 25 \cos u \sin^2 v \mathbf{i} - 25 \sin u \sin^2 v \mathbf{j} + 25 \sin u \cos v \mathbf{k}
\end{aligned}$$

The magnitude of this cross product is found to be (see Problem 27)

$$\|\mathbf{r}_u(u, v) \times \mathbf{r}_v(u, v)\| = 25 |\sin v|$$

The surface area is

$$\begin{aligned}
SA &= \iint_R \|\mathbf{r}_u(u, v) \times \mathbf{r}_v(u, v)\| \, dA = \iint_R 25 |\sin v| \, dv \, du \\
&= 25 \int_0^{2\pi} \int_{\sin^{-1}(1/3)}^{\pi} \sin v \, dv \, du \\
&= 25 \int_0^{2\pi} [-\cos v]_{\sin^{-1}(1/3)}^{\pi} \, du \\
&= 25(2\pi) \left( \frac{9}{5} - 90\pi \right) \approx 282.74
\end{aligned}$$

The mass is equal to the value of the surface integral

$$\begin{aligned}
m &= \iint_S \delta(x, y, z) \, dS = \iint_S k(x^2 + y^2) \, dS \\
&= \iint_R (25k \sin^2 v) \|\mathbf{r}_u(u, v) \times \mathbf{r}_v(u, v)\| \, dA \\
&= 25^2 k \int_0^{2\pi} \int_{\sin^{-1}(1/3)}^{\pi} \sin^2 v |\sin v| \, dv \, du \\
&= 625k \int_0^{2\pi} \int_{\sin^{-1}(1/3)}^{\pi} \sin^3 v \, dv \, du \\
&= 625k \int_0^{2\pi} \left[ -\frac{1}{3} \sin^2 v \cos v + \frac{2}{3} \cos v \right]_{\sin^{-1}(1/3)}^{\pi} \, du \\
&= 625k \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{162}{125} \, du \\
&= 620\pi k \approx 4089.4k
\end{aligned}$$

By symmetry  $\bar{x} = \bar{y} = 0$ . The moment about the  $xy$ -plane is

$$\begin{aligned}
M_{xy} &= \iint_S x \delta(x, y, z) \, dS \\
&= \iint_R (5 \cos v) (25k \sin^2 v) \|\mathbf{r}_u(u, v) \times \mathbf{r}_v(u, v)\| \, dA \\
&= 5 \cdot 25^2 k \int_0^{2\pi} \int_{\sin^{-1}(1/3)}^{\pi} \cos v \sin^3 v \, dv \, du \\
&= 3 \cdot 25k \int_0^{2\pi} \left[ -\frac{1}{4} \sin^4 v \right]_{\sin^{-1}(1/3)}^{\pi} \, du \\
&= 3 \cdot 25k \int_0^{2\pi} \left[ \frac{81}{2500} \right] \, du \\
&= \frac{81}{2500} \cdot 125k \cdot 2\pi = \frac{405}{2} k\pi
\end{aligned}$$

The  $x$ -component of the center of mass is

$$= \frac{1}{M} \frac{\int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^{\pi/2} kx \, dV}{\int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^{\pi/2} k \, dV} = \frac{1}{8}$$

Thus the center of mass is  $(\frac{1}{8}, \frac{1}{8}, \frac{1}{8})$ . We would expect the  $x$ -component of the center of mass to be negative, because each point is a certain distance away from the sphere but not the bottom.

## Concepts Review

1. A **surface integral** generalizes the ordinary double integral similar to the way a line integral generalizes the definite integral.

2. Let  $R$  be a region in the  $xy$ -plane. Then

$$\iint_R f(x, y) \, dA = \int_a^b \int_c^d f(x, y) \, dy \, dx$$

3. Let  $S$  be the surface  $z = g(x, y)$  where  $(x, y)$  is in  $R$ . Then  $\iint_S f(x, y, z) \, dS = \iint_R f(x, y, g(x, y)) \sqrt{1 + g_x^2 + g_y^2} \, dA$ .

4. Consider the cone with axis along the  $z$ -axis with vertex at the origin, and opening an angle of  $30^\circ$  with the  $z$ -axis. If the density at the point  $(x, y, z)$  is given by  $\delta(x, y, z) = k\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ , then  $\iint_S \delta \, dS = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi/6} k \sin^2 \theta \, d\theta \, d\phi$ .

## Problem Set 14.5

In Problems 1–8, evaluate  $\iint_S f(x, y, z) \, dS$ .

1.  $f(x, y, z) = x$ ,  $S$  is the part of the plane  $x + y + z = 1$  in the first octant.

2.  $f(x, y, z) = y^2$ ,  $S$  is the part of the cylinder  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$  in the first octant.

3.  $f(x, y, z) = x + y$ ,  $S$  is the part of the cone  $z = \sqrt{1 + x^2 + y^2}$  for  $0 \leq x \leq \sqrt{3}$  and  $0 \leq y \leq 1$ .

4.  $f(x, y, z) = z^2$ ,  $S$  is the part of the sphere  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$  in the first octant.

5.  $f(x, y, z) = \sqrt{4x^2 + 4y^2 + 1}$ ,  $S$  is the part of the cone  $z = \sqrt{4x^2 + 4y^2 + 1}$  for  $0 \leq x \leq 1$  and  $0 \leq y \leq 1$ .

6.  $f(x, y, z) = y$ ,  $S$  is the part of the cylinder  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$  for  $0 \leq x \leq 2$  and  $0 \leq y \leq 2$ .

7.  $f(x, y, z) = k + z$ ,  $S$  is the surface of the cube  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$ .

8.  $f(x, y, z) = z$  is the surface of the cone  $z = \sqrt{4x^2 + 4y^2 + 1}$  for  $0 \leq x \leq 1$  and  $0 \leq y \leq 1$ .

In Problems 9–12, use Theorem 8 to evaluate the flux of  $\mathbf{F}$  across  $S$ .

9.  $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = (y + z)\mathbf{i} + x\mathbf{j}$ ,  $S$  is the part of the plane  $x + 2y + 4z = 3$  above the triangle with vertices  $(3, 0, 0)$ ,  $(0, 3, 0)$ , and  $(0, 0, 3)$ .

10.  $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = (y - x)\mathbf{j}$ ,  $S$  is the part of the plane  $2x + 3y + 6z = 6$  in the first octant.

11.  $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = x\mathbf{i} - y\mathbf{j} - 2z\mathbf{k}$ ,  $S$  is the surface determined by  $z = \sqrt{1 - y^2}$  for  $0 \leq y \leq 1$ .

12.  $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = 2x + 3y - 5z$ ,  $S$  is the part of the cone  $z = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$  that is inside the cylinder  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ .

13. Find the mass of the triangle with vertices  $(0, 0, 0)$ ,  $(0, 0, 1)$ , and  $(0, 1, 0)$  if its density  $\delta$  satisfies  $\delta(x, y, z) = kx^2$ .

14. Find the mass of the surface  $z = 1 - x + y^2/2$  over  $0 \leq x \leq 1$ ,  $0 \leq y \leq 1$ , if  $\delta(x, y, z) = kxy$ .

15. Find the center of mass of the homogeneous triangle with vertices  $(0, 0, 0)$ ,  $(0, 0, 1)$ , and  $(0, 1, 0)$ .

16. Find the center of mass of the homogeneous triangle with vertices  $(0, 0, 0)$ ,  $(0, 1, 0)$ , and  $(1, 0, 0)$ , where  $a$ ,  $b$ , and  $c$  are all positive.

In Problems 17–20, plot the parametric surface over the indicated domain.

17.  $\mathbf{r}(u, v) = u\mathbf{i} + (3v)\mathbf{j} + (4 - u^2 - v^2)\mathbf{k}$ ,  $0 \leq u \leq 2$ ,  $0 \leq v \leq 2$ .

18.  $\mathbf{r}(u, v) = (2 + \cos u)\mathbf{i} + (v)\mathbf{j} + (1 + \cos u)\mathbf{k}$ ,  $0 \leq u \leq \pi$ ,  $0 \leq v \leq \pi$ .

19.  $\mathbf{r}(u, v) = 2\cos u\mathbf{i} - 3\sin u\mathbf{j} + v\mathbf{k}$ ,  $0 \leq u \leq \pi$ ,  $0 \leq v \leq \pi$ .

20.  $\mathbf{r}(u, v) = (u)\mathbf{i} + (3\sin v)\mathbf{j} + (v)\mathbf{k}$ ,  $0 \leq u \leq \pi$ ,  $0 \leq v \leq \pi$ .

21–24 In Problems 21–24, use a CAS to plot the parametric surface over the indicated domain and find the area (in  $\text{m}^2$ ) of the resulting surface.

21.  $\mathbf{r}(u, v) = (u)\mathbf{i} + (v)\mathbf{j} + (v)\mathbf{k}$ ,  $0 \leq u \leq \pi$ ,  $0 \leq v \leq \pi$ .

22. Find  $\mathbf{r}_u, \mathbf{r}_v = \sin u \sin v \mathbf{i} + \cos u \sin v \mathbf{j} - \cos v \mathbf{k}$  if  
(a)  $0 \leq u < 2\pi$ ,  $-\pi < v < \pi$

23. Find  $\mathbf{r}_u, \mathbf{r}_v = \sin u \cos v \mathbf{i} + \cos u \cos v \mathbf{j} - \sin v \mathbf{k}$  if  $0 \leq u \leq 2\pi$ ,  $0 \leq v \leq \pi$

24. Find  $\mathbf{r}_u, \mathbf{r}_v = \cos u \cos v \mathbf{i} + \sin u \cos v \mathbf{j} + \sin v \mathbf{k}$  if  $0 \leq u \leq \pi$ ,  $0 \leq v \leq 2\pi$

25. Find the mass of the surface in Problem 23 if the density is proportional to the distance from the  $xy$ -plane.

26. Find the mass of the surface in Problem 24 if the density is proportional to (a) the distance from the  $yz$ -axis and (b) the distance from the  $xy$ -plane.

27. Show that the magnitude of the cross product  $|\mathbf{r}_u \times \mathbf{r}_v| = |\mathbf{r}_v \times \mathbf{r}_u|$  in Example 9 is equal to  $2\sqrt{3} \sin v$ .

28. Refer to Example 3. The hemispherical surface  $z = f(x, y) = \sqrt{9 - x^2 - y^2}$  has a thin metal covering with density  $\delta(x, y, z) = c$ . Find the mass of the covering. Note that Theorem A does not apply directly, since  $f_x$  and  $f_y$  are undefined on the boundary  $x^2 + y^2 = 9$  of  $R$ . Therefore, proceed by letting  $R = \{(x, y) \mid x^2 + y^2 < 9\}$ ,  $z = 0$ , and let  $\mathbf{n} = \mathbf{k}$  in the calculation and then let  $\mathbf{n} \rightarrow \mathbf{0}$ . Discover that you get the same answer as you would if you ignored the boundary point.

29. Let  $S$  be the sphere  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = a^2$ . Evaluate each of the following.

(a)  $\iint_S z \, dS$  (b)  $\iint_S (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{1/3} \, dS$

(c)  $\iint_S (x^2 + y^2 + z^2) \, dS$  (d)  $\iint_S x \, dS$

(e)  $\iint_S (x^2 + y^2 + z^2) \, dS$

Hint: Use symmetry properties to make this a easier problem.

30. The sphere  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = a^2$  has constant area density  $\delta$ . Find each moment of inertia.

(a) About a diameter

(b) About a tangent line (assume the Parallel Axis Theorem from Problem 26 of Section 13.5)

31. Find the total force against the surface of a tank full of a liquid of weight density  $\delta$  for each tank shape.

(a) Sphere of radius  $a$

(b) Hemisphere of radius  $a$  with a flat base

(c) Vertical cylinder of radius  $a$  and height  $h$

Hint: The force against a small patch of area  $dA$  is approximately  $\delta dA$ , where  $d$  is the depth of the water in the patch.

32. Find the center of mass of that part of the sphere  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = a^2$  between the planes  $z = h_1$  and  $z = h_2$ , where  $0 \leq h_1 \leq h_2 \leq a$ . Do this by the method of disks (see Section 6.6) and compare with Problem 19 of Section 6.6.

| $a$ | $h_1$      | $h_2$          | Center of mass of |
|-----|------------|----------------|-------------------|
| 2   | $\sqrt{2}$ | $\sqrt{2} + 1$ | 4. $\sqrt{2} \pi$ |

## 14.6 Gauss's Divergence Theorem

### The Boundary of a Set

Recall from Section 12.1 that a point  $P$  is a boundary point for a set  $S$  if every neighborhood of  $P$  contains points that are in  $S$  and points that are not in  $S$ . The boundary of a set is the set of all its boundary points.

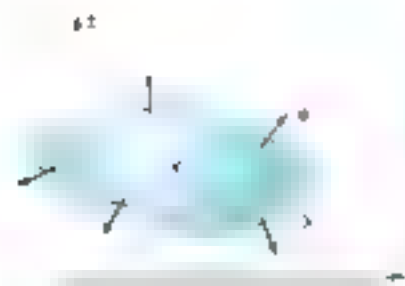


FIGURE 14.6.1

The theorems of Green, Gauss, and Stokes all relate an integral over a set  $S$  to an other integral over the boundary of  $S$ . Considering the similarity among the results we introduce the notation  $\partial S$  to denote the boundary of  $S$ . Thus, the theorem of Green's Theorem (Section 14.4) can be written as

$$\oint_{\partial S} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \iint_S \text{div } \mathbf{F} \, dA$$

It says that the flux of  $\mathbf{F}$  across the boundary  $\partial S$  of a closed, two-dimensional region  $S$  is equal to the double integral of  $\text{div } \mathbf{F}$  over the region  $S$ . This can also be called the *Divergence Theorem* (it is this result up one dimension).

Let  $S$  be a closed, bounded set in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  space that is completely enclosed by a piecewise smooth surface  $\partial S$  (Figure 1).

### Theorem 14.6.1 Gauss's Theorem

Let  $\mathbf{F} = M\mathbf{i} + N\mathbf{j} + P\mathbf{k}$  be a vector field such that  $M$ ,  $N$ , and  $P$  have continuous first-order partial derivatives on a solid  $S$  with boundary  $\partial S$ . If  $\mathbf{n}$  denotes the unit normal to  $\partial S$ , then

$$\iint_{\partial S} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS = \iiint_S \text{div } \mathbf{F} \, dV$$

In other words, the flux of  $\mathbf{F}$  across the boundary of a closed region in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  space is the triple integral of its divergence over that region.

It is useful both for some applications and for the proof to state the conclusion to Gauss's Theorem in its Cartesian (nonvector) form. We now write

$$\mathbf{n} = \cos \alpha \mathbf{i} + \cos \beta \mathbf{j} + \cos \gamma \mathbf{k}$$

where  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ , and  $\gamma$  are the direction angles for  $\mathbf{n}$ . Then

$$\mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} = M \cos \alpha + N \cos \beta + P \cos \gamma$$

and so Gauss's formula becomes

$$\iint_S M \cos \alpha + N \cos \beta + P \cos \gamma \, dS = \iiint_V \left( \frac{\partial M}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial N}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial P}{\partial z} \right) dV$$

**Proof of Gauss's Theorem** We now prove the case where the region  $V$  is  $x$ -simple,  $y$ -simple, and  $z$ -simple. It will be sufficient to show that

$$\begin{aligned} \iint_S M \cos \alpha \, dS &= \iiint_V \frac{\partial M}{\partial x} dV \\ \iint_S N \cos \beta \, dS &= \iiint_V \frac{\partial N}{\partial y} dV \\ \iint_S P \cos \gamma \, dS &= \iiint_V \frac{\partial P}{\partial z} dV \end{aligned}$$

Since these demonstrations are similar we show only the third.

Since  $V$  is  $z$ -simple it can be described by the inequalities  $f_1(x, y) \leq z \leq f_2(x, y)$ . As in Figure 2,  $dS$  consists of three parts,  $S_1$  corresponding to  $z = f_1(x, y)$ ,  $S_2$  corresponding to  $z = f_2(x, y)$ , and the lateral surface  $S_3$  which may be empty. On  $S_1$ ,  $\cos \gamma = \cos 180^\circ = 0$ , so we can ignore it (see Figure 3). Also, from Problem 26 of Section 14.5 and Theorem 14.5A

$$\iint_{S_2} P \cos \gamma \, dS = \iint_R P(x, y, f_2(x, y)) \, dA$$

The result is which we just derived. Assuming that  $f_1$  is increasing in  $x$  and  $y$ , then  $\mathbf{n}$  is downward. Hence, when we apply it to  $S_1$  where  $\mathbf{n}$  is downward, if  $f_1$  is  $2\pi$  we must reverse the sign.

$$\iint_{S_1} P \cos \gamma \, dS = - \iint_R P(x, y, f_1(x, y)) \, dA$$

It follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \iint_S P \cos \gamma \, dS &= \iint_R P(x, y, f_2(x, y)) \, dA - \iint_R P(x, y, f_1(x, y)) \, dA \\ &= \iint_R \int_{f_1}^{f_2} \frac{\partial P}{\partial z} dz \, dA \, dy \\ &= \iiint_V \frac{\partial P}{\partial z} dV \end{aligned}$$

The result just proved extends easily to regions that are finite unions of the type considered. We omit the details. ■

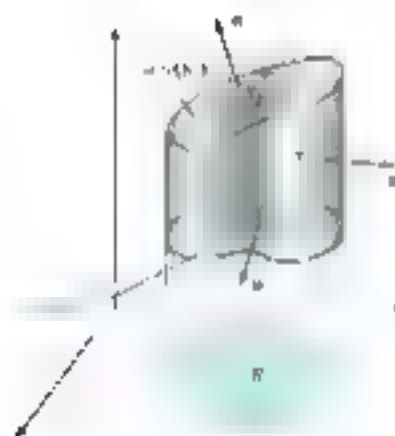


FIGURE 2



**EXAMPLE 2** Verify Gauss's Theorem for  $\mathbf{F} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$  and  $V = \{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3 : x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \leq a^2\}$  by independently calculating (a)  $\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS$  and (b)  $\iiint_V \operatorname{div} \mathbf{F} \, dV$ .

**SOLUTION**

(a) On  $\partial V = \{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3 : x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = a^2\}$  and so  $\mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} = x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = a^2$ . Thus

$$\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS = a^2 \iint_S dS = a^2 4\pi a^2 = 4\pi a^4.$$

(b) Since  $\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F} = 3$

$$\iiint_V \operatorname{div} \mathbf{F} \, dV = 3 \iiint_V dV = 3 \frac{4\pi a^3}{3} = 4\pi a^4. \quad \blacksquare$$

**EXAMPLE 3** Compute the flux of the vector field  $\mathbf{F} = (x^2y - y^3y - yz)\mathbf{k}$  across the surface of the rectangular solid  $S$  determined by (Figure 3)

$$0 \leq x \leq 1, \quad 0 \leq y \leq 2, \quad 0 \leq z \leq 4.$$

(a) by a direct method and (b) by Gauss's Theorem.

**SOLUTION**

(a) To calculate  $\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS$  directly we calculate this integral over the six faces and add the results. On the face  $x = 1$ ,  $\mathbf{n} = \mathbf{i}$ , and  $\mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} = x^2y - y^3y - yz = 0$ .

$\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS = \int_0^2 \int_0^4 y \, dy \, dz = 64$ . On the other five faces we obtain the following table:

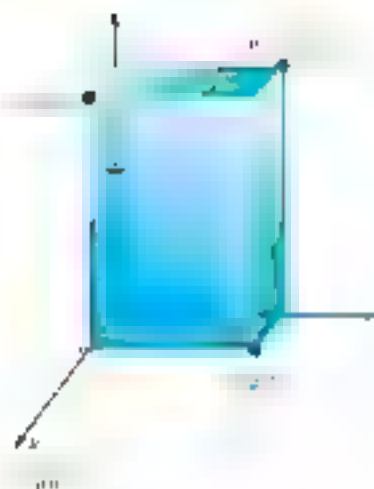
| Face    | $\mathbf{n}$  | $\mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}$ | $\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS$ |
|---------|---------------|-------------------------------|---|
| $x = 0$ | $-\mathbf{i}$ | 0                             | 0   |
| $y = 0$ | $-\mathbf{j}$ | 0                             | 0   |
| $y = 2$ | $\mathbf{j}$  | 0                             | 0   |
| $z = 0$ | $-\mathbf{k}$ | 0                             | 0   |
| $z = 4$ | $\mathbf{k}$  | $x^2y - y^3y$                 | 54  |

Thus

$$\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS = 64 + 0 + 0 + 0 + 0 + 54 = 118.$$

(b) By Gauss's Theorem

$$\begin{aligned} \iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS &= \iiint_V (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}) \, dV = \iiint_V (2xy - 3y^2y - y) \, dV \\ &= \int_0^1 \int_0^2 \int_0^4 (2xy - 3y^2y - y) \, dz \, dy \, dx = \int_0^1 \int_0^2 (8xy - 3y^2y - y) \, dy \, dx \\ &= \int_0^1 (4x^2y - 3y^2y - y) \, dy = \left[ 2x^2y^2 - \frac{3}{2}y^3y - \frac{1}{2}y^2 \right]_0^2 = 64. \quad \blacksquare \end{aligned}$$





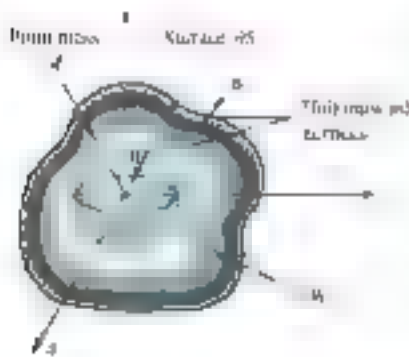


Figure 5

**EXAMPLE 5** Let  $S$  be a solid region containing a point mass  $M$  at the origin  $(0, 0, 0)$  and let  $\mathbf{F}$  be the corresponding field  $\mathbf{F} = -M\mathbf{r}/r^3$ . Show that the flux of  $\mathbf{F}$  across  $\partial S$  is  $-4\pi M$  regardless of the shape of  $S$ .

**SOLUTION** Since  $\mathbf{F}$  is discontinuous at the origin, Gauss's Theorem does not apply directly. However, let us imagine that a small solid sphere  $S_1$  centered at the origin and of radius  $a$  has been removed from  $S$ , leaving a solid  $W$  with outer boundary  $S$  and inner boundary  $S_1$  (Figure 5). When we apply Gauss's theorem to  $W$ , we get

$$\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS + \iint_{S_1} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS = \iiint_W \operatorname{div} \mathbf{F} \, dV.$$

But  $\operatorname{div} \mathbf{F} = 0$ , which is easy to check (Problem 21 of Section 4.1) and so

$$\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS = - \iint_{S_1} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS.$$

On the surface  $\partial S_1$ ,  $\mathbf{n} = -\mathbf{r}/r$  and  $|r| = a$ . Consequently,

$$\begin{aligned} \iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS &= - \iint_{S_1} \left( -M \frac{\mathbf{r}}{r^3} \cdot \frac{\mathbf{r}}{a} \right) dS \\ &= M \iint_{S_1} \frac{1}{a^2} dS \\ &= M \iint_{S_1} \frac{1}{a^2} a^2 d\Omega \\ &= M \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^\pi d\Omega = 4\pi M. \end{aligned}$$

We now extend the result of Example 5 to the case where a solid  $S$  contains  $k$  point masses  $M_1, M_2, \dots, M_k$  at its origin. The result, known as Gauss's law, gives the flux of  $\mathbf{F}$  across  $S$  as

$$\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS = -4\pi(M_1 + M_2 + \cdots + M_k).$$

In fact, Gauss's law can be extended to bodies  $R$  which are irregularly shaped, and mass of  $R$  is  $M$  by subdividing  $R$  into small pieces and approximating these pieces by point masses. The result for any region  $R$  containing  $R$  is

$$\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS = -4\pi M.$$

## Concepts Review

1. The theorem of Green, Gauss, and Stokes (Theorem 14.2.1) relates the integral of a vector field  $\mathbf{F}$  over the boundary of  $S$  with the integral of the divergence of  $\mathbf{F}$  over  $S$ , which is denoted by

2. In particular, the theorem of Gauss (Cor. 14.2.1) states that

$$\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS = \iiint_V \operatorname{div} \mathbf{F} \, dV.$$

3. Another way to state Gauss's Theorem is to say that the flux of  $\mathbf{F}$  across the boundary of  $V$  equals

$$\iiint_V \operatorname{div} \mathbf{F} \, dV.$$

4. A consequence of Gauss's Theorem is that the flux of the gravitational field due to a mass  $M$  across the boundary of any solid  $S$  containing  $M$  is  $-4\pi M$ ; that is, it is independent of the shape of  $S$ .

## Problem Set 14.6

In Problems 1–14, use Gauss's Divergence Theorem to calculate

$$\int_V \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}$$

for

1.  $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = (y + z)\mathbf{i} + (x + z)\mathbf{j} + (x + y)\mathbf{k}$ ;  $S$  is the hemisphere  
 $0 \leq x \leq \sqrt{4 - y^2 - z^2}$

2.  $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = x\mathbf{i} + 2y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$ ;  $S$  is the cube  
 $-1 \leq x \leq 1, -1 \leq y \leq 1, -1 \leq z \leq 1$

3.  $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = (x + y)\mathbf{i} + (y + z)\mathbf{j} + (z + x)\mathbf{k}$ ;  $S$  is the cube  
 $0 \leq x \leq 1, 0 \leq y \leq 1, 0 \leq z \leq 1$

4.  $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)\mathbf{k}$ ;  $S$  is the hemisphere  
 $z \geq 0$

5.  $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = (x + y)\mathbf{i} + (y + z)\mathbf{j} + (z + x)\mathbf{k}$ ;  $S$  is the box  
 $0 \leq x \leq 1, 0 \leq y \leq 1, 0 \leq z \leq 1$

6.  $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = (x + y)\mathbf{i} + (y + z)\mathbf{j} + (z + x)\mathbf{k}$ ;  $S$  is the cube where  
 $x, y, z \geq 0$

7.  $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)\mathbf{k}$ ;  $S$  is the parabolic solid  
 $z = 1 - x^2 - y^2$

8.  $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = (y + \cos y)\mathbf{i} + (y - x^2)\mathbf{j} + (z^2 + x)\mathbf{k}$ ;  $S$  is the solid bounded by  
 $x = 0, y = 0, z = 0, x + y + z = 2$

9.  $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = (x + z^2)\mathbf{i} + (y - x^2)\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$ ;  $S$  is the solid  
 $0 \leq x \leq 1, 0 \leq y \leq 1, 0 \leq z \leq 1$

10.  $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = (x + y)\mathbf{i} + (y + z)\mathbf{j} + (z + x)\mathbf{k}$ ;  $S$  is the solid cube bounded by  
 $x = 0, y = 0, z = 0, x + y + z = 1$

11.  $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = (2x + y)\mathbf{i} + (y + z)\mathbf{j} + (z + x)\mathbf{k}$ ;  $S$  is the solid spherical shell  
 $4 \leq x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \leq 9$

12.  $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = (2x + y)\mathbf{i} + (y + z)\mathbf{j} + (z + x)\mathbf{k}$ ;  $S$  is the solid cylindrical shell  
 $x^2 + y^2 = 4, 0 \leq z \leq 2$

13.  $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)\mathbf{k}$ ;  $S$  is the cylindrical region  
 $x^2 + y^2 \leq 1, 0 \leq z \leq 10$ . *Hint:* Make the transformation  
 $u = r \cos \theta, v = r \sin \theta, w = z$  (similar to cylindrical coordinates) and use the methods of Section 13.9 to get the Jacobian.

14.  $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)\mathbf{i} + (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)\mathbf{j} + (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)\mathbf{k}$ ;  $S$  is the region  
 $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \leq 1, x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \geq 0, y \geq 0$ . *Hint:* Make a transformation similar to spherical coordinates and use the method of Section 13.9 to get the Jacobian.

15. Let  $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$ , and let  $S$  be a solid for which Gauss's Divergence Theorem applies. Show that the volume of  $S$  is given by

$$V(S) = \frac{1}{3} \iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS$$

16. Use the result of Problem 15 to verify the formula for the volume of a right circular cylinder of height  $h$  and radius  $a$ .

17. Calculate the plane cut by  $x + y + z = d$ , where  $a, b, c$ , and  $d$  are all positive. Use Problem 15 to show that the volume of the tetrahedron cut from the first octant by this plane is  $d^3/6\sqrt{a^2 + b^2 + c^2}$ , where  $D$  is the area of that part of the plane in the first octant.

18. Let  $\mathbf{F}$  be a continuous vector field. Show that

$$\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS = 0$$

for any "nice" solid  $S$ . What should we mean by "nice"?

19. Calculate  $\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS$  for each of the following, working in the right way. All are quite easy and some are even trivial.

(a)  $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = (x + y)\mathbf{i} + (y + z)\mathbf{j} + (z + x)\mathbf{k}$ ;  $S$  is the solid sphere  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \leq 1$

(b)  $\mathbf{F} = (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)(x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k})$ ;  $S$  is in part (a)

(c)  $\mathbf{F} = (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)\mathbf{k}$ ;  $S$  is the solid sphere  $(x - 2)^2 + y^2 + z^2 \leq 1$

(d)  $\mathbf{F} = x^2\mathbf{k}$ ;  $S$  is the cube  $0 \leq x \leq 1, 0 \leq y \leq 1, 0 \leq z \leq 1$

(e)  $\mathbf{F} = (1 + y)\mathbf{i} + (y + z)\mathbf{j} + (z + y)\mathbf{k}$ ;  $S$  is the tetrahedron cut from the first octant by the plane  $3x + 4y + 3z = 2$

(f)  $\mathbf{F} = (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)\mathbf{k}$ ;  $S$  is in part (a)

(g)  $\mathbf{F} = (x + y)\mathbf{i} + (y + z)\mathbf{j} + (z + x)\mathbf{k}$ ;  $S$  is the solid cube where  $x, y, z \geq 0$

20. Calculate  $\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS$  in each case:  $\mathbf{F} = (x + y)\mathbf{i} + (y + z)\mathbf{j} + (z + x)\mathbf{k}$

(a)  $\mathbf{F} = x^2\mathbf{k}$ ;  $S$  is the solid sphere  $(x - 2)^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$

(b)  $\mathbf{F} = (x + y)\mathbf{i} + (y + z)\mathbf{j} + (z + x)\mathbf{k}$ ;  $S$  is in part (a)

(c)  $\mathbf{F} = (x + y)\mathbf{i} + (y + z)\mathbf{j} + (z + x)\mathbf{k}$ ;  $S$  is in part (a)

(d)  $\mathbf{F} = f(x, y, z)\mathbf{k}$ ,  $f$  any scalar function;  $S$  is in part (b)

(e)  $\mathbf{F} = (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)\mathbf{k}$ ;  $S$  is the solid sphere  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = a^2$  ( $a$  is a constant in spherical coordinates)

21. We have defined the Laplacian of a scalar field by

$$\nabla^2 f = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial z^2}$$

Show that if  $D_n$  is the directional derivative in the direction of the unit normal vector  $\mathbf{n}$ , then

$$\iint_S D_n f \, dS = \iiint_S \nabla^2 f \, dV$$

22. Suppose that  $\nabla^2 f$  is identically zero in a region  $S$ . Show that

$$\iint_S D_n f \, dS = \iiint_S |\nabla f|^2 \, dV$$

23. Establish Green's First Identity

$$\iint_S (u \nabla^2 v + \nabla u \cdot \nabla v) \, dS = \iiint_S (\nabla u \cdot \nabla v + u \nabla^2 v) \, dV$$

by applying Gauss's Divergence Theorem to  $\mathbf{F} = f \nabla g$

24. Establish Green's Second Identity

$$\iint_S (u \nabla^2 v - v \nabla^2 u) \, dS = \iiint_S (\nabla u \cdot \nabla v - v \nabla^2 u + u \nabla^2 v) \, dV$$

25. Let  $\mathbf{F} = (x + y)\mathbf{i} + (y + z)\mathbf{j} + (z + x)\mathbf{k}$ . Evaluate  $\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS$  for  $S$  the hemisphere  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1, z \geq 0$

## 14.7 Stokes's Theorem

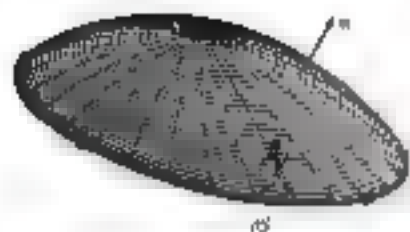


Figure 1

We showed in Section 14.4 that the conclusion to Green's Theorem could be written as

$$\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} \, ds = \iint_R \text{curl } \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dA$$

As we saw, it was a theorem for a plane, not a curved surface. We are going to generalize this result to the case where  $S$  is a curved surface in three-space. In this form the theorem is due to the Irish mathematician George Gabriel Stokes (1819–1903).

We will need to put some restrictions on the surface  $S$ . First, we suppose that  $S$  is two-sided with a continuously varying unit normal  $\mathbf{n}$  (the one-sided Möbius band of Section 14.5 is thereby eliminated from our discussion). Second, we require that the boundary of  $S$  be a piecewise-smooth, simple closed curve, oriented consistently with  $\mathbf{n}$ . This means that if you stand near the edge of the surface with your head in the direction  $\mathbf{n}$  and your eyes looking in the direction  $\mathbf{n} \times$  the curve, the surface is to your left (Figure 1).

### THEOREM Stokes's Theorem

Let  $S$  be a two-sided surface with boundary  $C$  and suppose that  $\mathbf{F} = M\mathbf{i} + N\mathbf{j} + P\mathbf{k}$  is a vector field with  $M$ ,  $N$ , and  $P$  having continuous second-order partial derivatives and  $\mathbf{n}$  is the unit normal to the surface. Then

$$\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} \, ds = \iint_S (\text{curl } \mathbf{F}) \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS$$

The proof of Stokes's Theorem is beyond the scope of a calculus course. However, we can illustrate the theorem in an example.

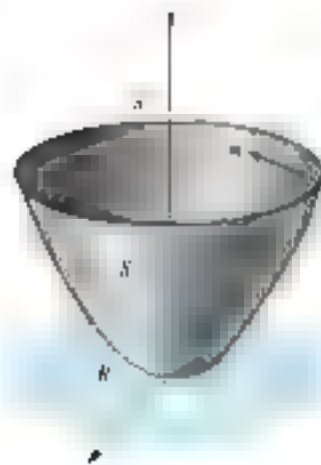


Figure 2

**EXAMPLE** Verify Stokes's Theorem for  $\mathbf{F} = y\mathbf{i} + z\mathbf{j} + x\mathbf{k}$  if  $S$  is the paraboloid  $z = x^2 + y^2$  with the circle  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ ,  $z = 1$  as its boundary (Figure 2).

**SOLUTION** We may describe  $S$  by the parametric equations

$$\mathbf{r} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + (x^2 + y^2)\mathbf{k} \quad \text{with } x^2 + y^2 \leq 1.$$

Then  $dz = 0$  and (see Section 14.2)

$$\begin{aligned} \oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} \, ds &= \oint_C (y \, dx + z \, dy + x \, dz) = \int_0^{2\pi} \sin \theta \, (-\cos \theta \, d\theta) + \cos \theta \, (\sin \theta \, d\theta) \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi} (-\sin \theta + \sin \theta) \, d\theta = 0. \end{aligned}$$

On the other hand, to calculate  $\iint_S (\text{curl } \mathbf{F}) \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS$  we first obtain

$$\text{curl } \mathbf{F} = \nabla \times \mathbf{F} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ y & z & x \end{vmatrix} = \mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j} + 2\mathbf{k}$$

Then, by Theorem 14.5B,

$$\begin{aligned}
 \iint_S \operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS &= \iint_D (1 - 2x - 4y^2 + 2xz + 2y) \\
 &\quad \cdot \iint_D (x^2 + y^2 + 1) \, dA \\
 &= 2 \iint_D [x(x^2 + y^2) + 1] \, dx \, dy \\
 &= 2 \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^1 (r^3 \cos \theta + 1) r \, dr \, d\theta \\
 &= 2 \left( \frac{1}{5} \sin 2\theta - \frac{1}{2} \theta \right) \bigg|_0^{2\pi} = 2\pi.
 \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 3** Let  $S$  be that part of the upper hemisphere  $z = \sqrt{1 - x^2 - y^2}$  above the plane  $z = 1$  and let  $\mathbf{P} = y\mathbf{i} - x\mathbf{j} + yz\mathbf{k}$ . Use Stokes's Theorem to calculate

$$\iint_S \operatorname{curl} \mathbf{P} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS$$

where  $\mathbf{n}$  is the upward unit normal.

**SOLUTION** Note that  $\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{P}$  is the same as the vector field in Example 2 and that  $S$  has the same circle as its boundary curve. We conclude that

$$\iint_S \operatorname{curl} \mathbf{P} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS = \oint_C \mathbf{P} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = 2\pi.$$

In fact, we conclude that the flux of  $\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{P}$  is  $2\pi$  for all surfaces  $S$  that have the circle of Figure 2 as their oriented boundary.

**EXAMPLE 4** Use Stokes's Theorem to evaluate  $\oint_C \mathbf{P} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$ , where  $\mathbf{P} = 2xz\mathbf{i} + (3x - 3y)\mathbf{j} + (3x + y)\mathbf{k}$  and  $C$  is the triangular curve of Figure 3.

**SOLUTION** We could let  $S$  be any surface with  $C$  as its oriented boundary. In fact, it is more advantageous to choose the simplest such surface, the triangular region  $T$ . To determine  $\mathbf{n}$  for this surface, we note that the vectors

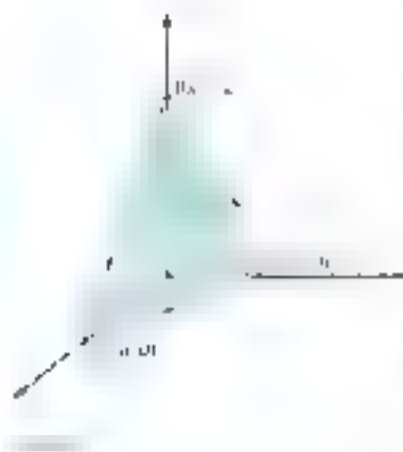
$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathbf{A} &= (0 - 1)\mathbf{i} + (0 - 0)\mathbf{j} + (2 - 0)\mathbf{k} = -\mathbf{i} + 2\mathbf{k} \\
 \mathbf{B} &= (0 - 1)\mathbf{i} + (1 - 0)\mathbf{j} + (0 - 0)\mathbf{k} = -\mathbf{i} + \mathbf{j}
 \end{aligned}$$

lie in this surface, and hence

$$\mathbf{N} = \mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ -1 & 0 & 2 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 \end{vmatrix} = 2\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$$

is perpendicular to it. The upward unit normal  $\mathbf{n}$  is therefore

$$\mathbf{n} = \frac{2\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}}{\sqrt{4 + 1 + 1}} = \frac{2}{3}\mathbf{i} - \frac{1}{3}\mathbf{j} + \frac{1}{3}\mathbf{k}.$$



Also

$$\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F} = \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{i} & \mathbf{j} & \mathbf{k} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \\ z & x & y \end{vmatrix} = \mathbf{i} - \mathbf{j} + \mathbf{k}$$

and  $\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} = 4$ . We conclude that

$$\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} \, ds = \iint_S \operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS = \int_0^2 \int_0^{2\pi} 4 \, d\theta \, dz = 8\pi = \frac{8}{\sqrt{2}} = 4\sqrt{2} \quad \blacksquare$$

**EXAMPLE 3** Let the vector field  $\mathbf{F}$  and the region  $D$  satisfy the hypotheses of Theorem 14.10. Show that if  $\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F} = \mathbf{0}$  in  $D$ , then  $\mathbf{F}$  is conservative there.

**SOLUTION** From the discussion in Section 14.3, we can infer that it is enough to show that  $\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = 0$  for any simple closed path  $C$  in  $D$ . Let  $S$  be a surface having  $C$  as its boundary and oriented consistently with  $C$ . The simple connectedness of  $D$  can be shown to guarantee the existence of such a surface. Then, from Stokes's Theorem,

$$\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} \, ds = \iint_S \operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS$$

and, since  $\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F} = \mathbf{0}$  in  $D$ , we have  $\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = 0$ . We also deduce, as a by-product of the proof in Section 14.3, that we can always find a surface  $S$  in  $D$  with  $C$  as its boundary if  $C$  is centered at the point  $P$ . Then

$$\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} \, ds$$

is called the *circulation* of  $\mathbf{F}$  around  $C$ ; it measures the tendency of a fluid with velocity field  $\mathbf{F}$  to circulate around  $C$ . Now, if  $\mathbf{F}$  is irrotational, then, by a very small Stokes's Theorem gives

$$\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} \, ds = \iint_S (\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F}) \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS \approx (\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F}(P)) \cdot \mathbf{n} (\pi r^2)$$

The expression on the right we have the *average* magnitude of  $\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F}$  in some direction as  $\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F}(P)$ .

Suppose that a small paddle wheel is placed in the fluid with center at  $P$  and oriented in the direction  $\mathbf{n}$  of  $\mathbf{F}$  (see 14). The wheel will rotate in the direction of  $\operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F}$ . The direction of rotation will be determined by the right-hand rule.



Figure 14

## Concepts Review

1. Stokes's Theorem can be rephrased as follows: Let  $\mathbf{F}$  be a vector field and let  $S$  be a surface with boundary  $\partial S$ . Then  $\oint_{\partial S} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{T} \, ds = \iint_S \operatorname{curl} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS$ . Here  $S$  is a surface and  $\partial S$  is its boundary.

2. One common hypothesis in that 3 is the *simple* hypothesis. An important example of a non-simply connected surface is the *annulus*, obtained by

cutting an ordinary cylinder vertically, giving it a flat disk with one cutting it back together.

3. It follows from Stokes's Theorem that any two-sided surface with the same boundary  $\partial S$  give the same value for

4. A paddle wheel centered at  $P$  and immersed in a fluid with velocity field  $\mathbf{F}$  will rotate most quickly if the  $P$  is has the direction of

## Problem Set 14.7

In Problems 1–6, use Stokes's Theorem to calculate

$$\oint_C \text{curl } \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$$

1.  $\mathbf{F} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$ ,  $S$  is the hemisphere  $z = \sqrt{1 - x^2 - y^2}$  and  $\mathbf{n}$  is the upper normal.

2.  $\mathbf{F} = xyz\mathbf{i} + yz\mathbf{j} + xz\mathbf{k}$ ,  $S$  is the triangular surface with vertices  $(1, 0, 0)$ ,  $(0, 1, 0)$ , and  $(0, 2, 1)$  and  $\mathbf{n}$  is the upper normal.

3.  $\mathbf{F} = (y + z)\mathbf{i} - x^2\mathbf{j} + y\mathbf{k}$ ,  $S$  is the half-cylinder  $z = \sqrt{1 - x^2}$  between  $y = 0$  and  $y = 1$  and  $\mathbf{n}$  is the upper normal.

4.  $\mathbf{F} = xz\mathbf{i} + x^2\mathbf{j} + xyz\mathbf{k}$ ,  $S$  is the part of the ellipsoid  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$  below the  $xy$ -plane and  $\mathbf{n}$  is the lower normal.

5.  $\mathbf{F} = yz\mathbf{i} + 5xz\mathbf{j} - z^2\mathbf{k}$ ,  $S$  is the part of the sphere  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$  below the plane  $z = 1$  and  $\mathbf{n}$  is the outward normal.

6.  $\mathbf{F} = (x^2 + y^2)\mathbf{i} + (x^2 + y^2)\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$ ,  $S$  is the part of the cylinder  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$  above the  $xy$ -plane and  $\mathbf{n}$  is the outward normal.

In Problems 7–12, use Stokes's Theorem to calculate  $\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$ .

7.  $\mathbf{F} = 2x\mathbf{i} - x\mathbf{j} - 3y\mathbf{k}$ ,  $C$  is the ellipse that is the intersection of the plane  $z = x$  and the cylinder  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$ , oriented clockwise as viewed from above.

8.  $\mathbf{F} = y\mathbf{i} + z\mathbf{j} + x\mathbf{k}$ ,  $C$  is the triangular curve with vertices  $(0, 1, 2)$ ,  $(1, 0, 2)$ , and  $(2, 0, 2)$ , oriented clockwise as viewed from above.

9.  $\mathbf{F} = (y - 1)\mathbf{i} + (x - z)\mathbf{j} + (x - y)\mathbf{k}$ ,  $C$  is the boundary of the plane  $x + 2y + z = 2$  in the first octant, oriented clockwise as viewed from above.

10.  $\mathbf{F} = y(x^2 + y^2)\mathbf{i} - y(x^2 + y^2)\mathbf{j}$ ,  $C$  is the rectangular path from  $(0, 0, 0)$  to  $(1, 0, 0)$  to  $(1, 1, 0)$  to  $(0, 1, 0)$  to  $(0, 0, 0)$ .

11.  $\mathbf{F} = (x^2 + y^2)\mathbf{i} + x\mathbf{j} + y\mathbf{k}$ ,  $C$  is the intersection of the cylinder  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$  with the sphere  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 4$ , oriented counterclockwise as viewed from above.

12.  $\mathbf{F} = (y - z)\mathbf{i} + (z - x)\mathbf{j} + (x - y)\mathbf{k}$ ,  $C$  is the ellipse which is the intersection of the plane  $x + z = 1$  and the cylinder  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ , oriented clockwise as viewed from above.

13. Suppose that the surface  $S$  is determined by the formula  $z = g(x, y)$ . Show that the surface integral in Stokes's Theorem can be written as a double integral in the following way:

$$\iint_S \text{curl } \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \iint_{S_{xy}} (\text{curl } \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}) \sqrt{1 + g_x^2 + g_y^2} \, dA$$

where  $\mathbf{n}$  is the upward normal to  $S$  and  $S_{xy}$  is the projection of  $S$  on the  $xy$ -plane.

14. Let  $\mathbf{F} = x^2\mathbf{i} - 2xyz\mathbf{j} + yz\mathbf{k}$  and let  $HS$  be the boundary of the surface  $z = xy$ ,  $0 \leq x \leq 1$ ,  $0 \leq y \leq 1$ , oriented counterclockwise as viewed from above. Use Stokes's Theorem and Problem 13 to evaluate  $\oint_{HS} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$ .

15. Let  $\mathbf{F} = 3\mathbf{i} + xz\mathbf{j} + z^2\mathbf{k}$  and let  $HS$  be the boundary of the surface  $z = xy^2$ ,  $0 \leq x \leq 1$ ,  $0 \leq y \leq 1$ , oriented counterclockwise as viewed from above. Evaluate  $\oint_{HS} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$ .

16. Let  $\mathbf{F} = 2\mathbf{i} + xz\mathbf{j} - x^2\mathbf{k}$  and let  $HS$  be the boundary of the surface  $z = x^2y^2$ ,  $x^2 + y^2 \leq 1$ , oriented counterclockwise as viewed from above. Evaluate  $\oint_{HS} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$ .

17. Let  $\mathbf{F} = 2x\mathbf{i} - 3y\mathbf{k}$  and let  $HS$  be the intersection of the cylinder  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$  with the hemisphere  $z = \sqrt{4 - x^2 - y^2}$ ,  $z \geq 0$ . Assuming distances in meters and force in newtons, find the work done by the force  $\mathbf{F}$  in moving an object around  $HS$  in the counterclockwise direction as viewed from above.

18. A central force is one of the form  $\mathbf{F} = f(r)\mathbf{r}$ , where  $f$  has a continuous derivative (except possibly at  $r = 0$ ). Show that the work done by such a force in moving an object around a closed path that encloses the origin is 0.

19. Let  $\Omega$  be a solid sphere (or any solid enclosed by a "lip" surface  $\partial\Omega$ ). Show that

$$\iint_{\partial\Omega} \text{curl } \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = 0$$

(a) By using Stokes's Theorem.

(b) By using Gauss's Theorem. (Hint: Show  $\text{div}(\text{curl } \mathbf{F}) = 0$ .)

20. Show that

$$\oint_{\partial\Omega} (f \nabla g) \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \iint_{\partial\Omega} \nabla f \cdot \nabla g \, dA$$

$$\oint_{\partial\Omega} \text{curl } \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = 0 \quad \text{1. curl } \mathbf{F} = 0 \quad \text{2. Möbius}$$

$$\text{band } 3. \iint_{\partial\Omega} \text{curl } \mathbf{F}_1 \cdot d\mathbf{S} = 4. \text{ curl } \mathbf{F}$$

## 14.8 Chapter Review

1. True or False?

Respond with true or false to each of the following assertions. Be prepared to justify your answer.

- Inverse square law fields are conservative.
- The divergence of a vector field is another vector field.

3. A physicist might be interested in both  $\text{curl } (g \nabla f)$  and  $\text{grad } (g \nabla f)$ .

4. If  $f$  has continuous second-order partial derivatives, then  $\text{curl } (\text{grad } f) = 0$ .

5. If  $\mathbf{F}$  is a vector field and  $\mathbf{r}$  is a position vector, then  $\text{div}(\mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{F})$  is a scalar and  $\text{div}(\mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{F}) = 0$ .



6. If  $\mathbf{F} = M\mathbf{i} + N\mathbf{j} + P\mathbf{k}$  is a vector field in an open region  $R$  in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , then there is a function  $f$  such that  $\nabla f = \mathbf{F}$  in  $D$ .

7. The field  $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$  is conservative.

8. Green's Theorem holds for a region  $S$  with a hole provided the complete boundary of  $S$  is oriented correctly.

9. The double integral is a special case of a surface integral.

10. A surface always has two sides.

11. If there are no sources or sinks in a region, then the net flow across the boundary of the region is zero.

12. If  $S$  is a sphere with upward normal  $\mathbf{n}$  and  $\mathbf{F}$  is a constant vector field, then

$$\iint_S (\mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n}) \, dS = 0$$

### Sample Test Problems

1. Sketch a sample of vectors from the vector field  $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j} + z\mathbf{k}$ .

2. Find  $\text{div } \mathbf{F}$ ,  $\text{curl } \mathbf{F}$ , grad  $U$ , and div  $(\text{grad } U)$  if  $U(x, y, z) = 2xyz$ ,  $\mathbf{F} = 2y\mathbf{j} + 2z\mathbf{k}$ .

3. We showed in Problem 30, Section 4.1, that

$$\text{curl } \mathbf{F} = \text{curl } \mathbf{F} = \mathbf{C} = \mathbf{F}$$

and in Problem 2, Section 4.3, that

$$\text{div } \mathbf{C} = 0$$

Use these facts to show that

$$\text{curl } \mathbf{F} = \mathbf{F}$$

4. Find a function  $f$  satisfying

$$(a) \nabla f = 2xy\mathbf{i} + y^2\mathbf{j} + x^2\mathbf{k} \quad \text{for } y > 0$$

$$(b) \nabla f = yz\mathbf{i} + x^2\mathbf{j} + x^2\mathbf{k} \quad \text{for } y > 0, z > 0$$

5. Evaluate

$$(a) \int_C x^2 y^2 \, ds \quad \text{where } C \text{ is the part of the curve } x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1 \text{ for } z \geq 0$$

where  $\mathbf{n}$  is the upward normal.

$$(b) \int_C xy \, dz + z \sin x \, dy + z \, dx \quad C \text{ is the curve } x = z, y = \cos z, z = \sin t, 0 \leq t \leq \pi/2.$$

6. Show that  $\int_C y^2 \, dz + 2xyz \, dy$  is independent of path, and use this to calculate the integral on any path from  $(0, 0)$  to  $(1, 2)$ .

7. Find the work done by  $\mathbf{F} = y\mathbf{i} + (x^2 + y^2)\mathbf{j}$  in moving an object from  $(1, 0)$  to  $(2, 1)$ . (See Problem 4.)

8. Evaluate the line integral

$$\int_{\text{path}} (x^2 + y^2 + z^2) \, ds$$

9. Evaluate  $\oint_C xy \, dx + (x^2 + y^2) \, dy + z \, dz$

(a)  $C$  is the square path  $(0, 0)$  to  $(1, 0)$  to  $(1, 1)$  to  $(0, 1)$  to  $(0, 0)$ .

(b)  $C$  is the part of the unit circle  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$  in the first quadrant.

(c)  $C$  is the circle  $x^2 + y^2 = 4$  oriented in the clockwise direction.

10. Calculate the flux of  $\mathbf{F} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j}$  across the square curve  $C$  with vertices  $(0, 0)$ ,  $(1, 0)$ ,  $(1, 1)$ , and  $(0, 1)$ .

Calculate  $\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, ds$ .

11. Calculate the flux of  $\mathbf{F} = x\mathbf{i} + y\mathbf{j}$  through the square.

12. Evaluate  $\iint_R xyz \, dS$ , where  $R$  is the part of the plane

$z = x + y$  above the triangular region with vertices  $(0, 0, 0)$ ,  $(1, 0, 0)$ , and  $(0, 2, 0)$ .

13. Evaluate  $\iint_S (\text{curl } \mathbf{F}) \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS$ , where

$$\mathbf{F} = y^2\mathbf{i} + x^2\mathbf{j} + yz\mathbf{k} \quad \text{and } S \text{ is the part of the plane } x + y + z = 1$$

and  $\mathbf{n}$  is the outward normal to the plane. (See Problem 11.)

14. Evaluate  $\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, dS$ , where

$$\mathbf{F} = x^2\mathbf{i} + y^2\mathbf{j} + z^2\mathbf{k} \quad \text{and } S \text{ is the part of the plane } x + y + z = 1$$

and  $G$  is the closed surface bounded by  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$  and the part of the plane  $x + y + z = 1$  in the first octant.

15. Let  $C$  be the circle that is the intersection of the plane  $ax + by + cz = 0$  ( $a \geq 0, b \geq 0$ ) and the sphere  $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$ . For  $\mathbf{F} = (x, y, z)$ , evaluate

$$\oint_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{s}$$

How does Stokes's Theorem

## 15.1 Linear

Homogeneous  
Equations15.2 Nonhomogeneous  
Equations15.3 Applications of  
Second-Order  
Equations

## 15.1

## Linear Homogeneous Equations

We call an equation involving only or some derivatives of an unknown function a **differential equation**. In particular, an equation in the form

$$F(x, y^{(1)}, y^{(2)}, \dots, y^{(n)}) = 0$$

in which  $y^{(k)}$  denotes the  $k$ th derivative of  $y$  with respect to  $x$  is called an **ordinary differential equation of order  $n$** . For example, the differential equation  $y'' + 2 \sin x = 0$  is a second-order

$$y'' + 2 \sin x = 0$$

$$\frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} + 2 \sin x = 0$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} \left( \frac{dy}{dx} \right) + 2 \sin x = 0$$

It when  $y$  is a cube, the equation in the differential equation is called a **solution** of the differential equation. Thus,  $f(x) = 2 \cos x + 10$  is a solution to  $y'' + 2 \sin x = 0$  because

$$f''(x) = 2 \sin x = -2 \sin x + 2 \sin x = 0$$

For all  $x$ . We call  $f(x) = 2 \cos x + 10$  a **general solution** of the given differential equation. It can be shown that every solution can be written in this form. In contrast,  $2 \cos x + 10$  is called a **particular solution** of the equation.

For every differential equation of the form (1), there are infinitely many solutions. In Section 15.2, we will also study the homogeneous differential equation  $y'' + p(x)y' + q(x)y = 0$  and use it to solve a wide variety of first-order equations. In Section 15.3, we will study the differential equation  $y'' + p(x)y' + q(x)y = f(x)$  and use it to solve a wide variety of second-order equations. In this chapter, we consider only **nth-order linear differential equations** that are equations of the form

$$y^{(n)} + a_{n-1}(x)y^{(n-1)} + \dots + a_1(x)y' + a_0(x)y = f(x)$$

where  $a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1}, f$  are all functions of  $x$  and  $n$  is a positive integer. This is called a **linear equation** because if it is written in operator notation,

$$D^n y + a_{n-1}(x)D^{n-1}y + \dots + a_1(x)Dy + a_0(x)y = f(x)$$

then the operator in brackets is a **linear operator**. Thus,  $L$  denotes the operator and if  $f$  and  $g$  are functions and  $c$  is constant, then

$$L(f + g) = L(f) + L(g)$$

$$L(cf) = cL(f)$$

That  $L$  has these properties follows readily from the corresponding properties for the derivative operators  $D, D^2, \dots, D^n$ .

Of course, not all differential equations are linear. Many important differential equations, such as

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = y^2$$

are **nonlinear**. The presence of the exponent 2 on  $y$  is enough to spoil the linearity, as you can check. The theory of nonlinear differential equations is both complicated and fascinating, but best left for more advanced courses.

where  $a_1$  and  $a_2$  are functions of  $x$ . A second-order linear differential equation has the form

$$y'' + a_1(x)y' + a_2(x)y = k(x)$$

In this section we make two simplifying assumptions: (1)  $a_1$  and  $a_2$  are constants and (2)  $k(x)$  is identically zero. Thus, our initial task is to solve

$$y'' + a_1y' + a_2y = 0$$

A differential equation for which  $k(x) = 0$  is said to be **homogeneous**.

To solve a first-order equation required one integration and led to a general solution with one arbitrary constant. By analogy, we might expect that solving a second-order equation to involve two integrations and thus that the general solution would have two arbitrary constants. In fact, this is true. For a second-order homogeneous linear differential equation always has two linearly independent solutions, and any other solution is a constant multiple of the other. Hence, the general solution is of the form  $y = c_1y_1 + c_2y_2$ .

$$y_1(x) = e^{ax}$$

is also a solution. Moreover, it can be shown that every solution has this form.

**THEOREM 18.1** Let  $y_1(x) = e^{ax}$ . Because  $D^2y_1 + a_1Dy_1 + a_2y_1 = 0$ , we know that  $y_1$  is a solution to our differential equation. For any other solution  $y_2$ , we can write  $y_2 = c y_1$ . This possibility, we first write the equation in the operator form

$$(D^2 + a_1D + a_2)y = 0$$

Now

$$(D^2 + a_1D + a_2)e^{ax} = D^2(e^{ax}) + a_1D(e^{ax}) + a_2e^{ax} = 0$$

$$= a^2e^{ax} + a_1ae^{ax} + a_2e^{ax}$$

$$= (a^2 + a_1a + a_2)e^{ax}$$

The latter expression is zero, provided

$$a^2 + a_1a + a_2 = 0 \quad (*)$$

Equation (\*) is called the **auxiliary equation**. Note the similarity to the quadratic equation. It is an ordinary quadratic equation and can be solved by the method of completing the square, if necessary by the Quadratic Formula. There are three cases to consider, depending on whether the auxiliary equation has two distinct real roots, one real root, or two complex conjugate roots.

### **Theorem 18.2** Distinct Real Roots

If  $r_1$  and  $r_2$  are distinct real roots of the auxiliary equation, then the general solution of  $y'' + a_1y' + a_2y = 0$  is

$$y = c_1e^{r_1x} + c_2e^{r_2x}$$

**EXAMPLE 1** Find the general solution to  $y'' + 7y' + 12y = 0$ .

**SOLUTION** The auxiliary equation

$$r^2 + 7r + 12 = 0 \quad (r^2 + 3r + 4r + 12 = 0)$$

has the two roots  $-3$  and  $-4$ . Since  $e^{-3x}$  and  $e^{-4x}$  are independent solutions, the general solution to the differential equation is

$$y = c_1e^{-3x} + c_2e^{-4x}$$

**EXAMPLE 7** Find the solution of  $y'' - 2y' + 1 = 0$  that satisfies  $y(0) = 0$  and  $y'(0) = \sqrt{2}$ .

**SOLUTION** The auxiliary equation  $r^2 - 2r + 1 = 0$  is best solved by the Quadratic Formula:

$$r = \frac{2 \pm \sqrt{4 - 4}}{2} = \frac{2 \pm 0}{2} = 1 \pm 0 = 1.$$

The general solution to the differential equation is, therefore,

$$y = C_1 e^x + C_2 x e^x.$$

For  $y(0) = 0$  we must have  $C_1 = 0$ . Then

$$y = C_2 x e^x = \sqrt{2} x e^x \quad \text{and} \quad y' = \sqrt{2} (e^x + x e^x)$$

and

$$y'(0) = \sqrt{2} = \sqrt{2} (1 + 0) = \sqrt{2} \quad \text{and} \quad y'(0) = \sqrt{2} = \sqrt{2} (1 + 0) = \sqrt{2}.$$

We conclude that  $C_1 = 0$  and

$$y = \frac{1}{2} x^2 + \sqrt{2} x = \frac{1}{2} x^2 + \sqrt{2} x.$$

For all linear differential equations the auxiliary equation is a quadratic. But when it is of the form

$$r^2 + 2\alpha r + \alpha^2 = 0,$$

there are double roots, so the single fundamental solution  $e^{-\alpha x}$  that we must find has a partner solution independent of it, one such a solution is  $x e^{-\alpha x}$ . We may assume that

$$\begin{aligned} (D^2 + 2\alpha D + \alpha^2) D^{-1} x e^{-\alpha x} &= D(x e^{-\alpha x}) - 2\alpha D(x e^{-\alpha x}) + \alpha^2 x e^{-\alpha x} \\ &= (x e^{-\alpha x} - 2\alpha x e^{-\alpha x}) + \alpha^2 x e^{-\alpha x} = x e^{-\alpha x} (1 - 2\alpha + \alpha^2) \\ &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

### Theorem 8 A Single Repeated Root

If the auxiliary equation has the single repeated root  $r = \alpha$ , then the general solution of  $y'' + a_1 y' + a_2 y = 0$  is

$$y = C_1 e^{\alpha x} + C_2 x e^{\alpha x}.$$

inside the second-order differential equation

$$y'' - 2y' + 1 = 0$$

with auxiliary equation

$$r^2 - 2r + 1 = 0$$

The auxiliary equation has a single root  $r = 1$ , and the general solution is

| Solution to Differential Equation  |                  |
|------------------------------------|------------------|
| $y = C_1 e^x + C_2 x e^x$          |                  |
| $y' = C_1 e^x + C_2 (e^x + x e^x)$ |                  |
| $y(0) = 0$                         | $C_1 = 0$        |
| $y'(0) = \sqrt{2}$                 | $C_2 = \sqrt{2}$ |

**EXAMPLE 8** Solve  $y'' - 4y' + 4y = 0$ .

**SOLUTION** The auxiliary equation has a double repeated root  $r = 2$ .

$$y = C_1 e^{2x} + C_2 x e^{2x}.$$

Finally, we consider the case where the auxiliary equation has a simple complex root. The simple equation

$$(D^2 + \beta^2)y = 0$$

with auxiliary equation  $r^2 + \beta^2 = 0$  has roots  $\pm i\beta$ . Then  $e^{i\beta x}$  and  $e^{-i\beta x}$  are easily seen to be  $\cos \beta x$  and  $\sin \beta x$ . You can check by direct differentiation that the general solution is as follows:

### Theorem 9 Complex Conjugate Roots

If the auxiliary equation has complex conjugate roots  $\alpha \pm i\beta$ , then the general solution of  $y'' + a_1 y' + a_2 y = 0$  is

$$y = C_1 e^{\alpha x} \cos \beta x + C_2 e^{\alpha x} \sin \beta x.$$

**EXAMPLE 4** Solve  $y'' + 4y' + 4y = 0$ .

**SOLUTION** The roots of the auxiliary equation  $r^2 + 4r + 4 = 0$  are  $r = -2$ . Hence, the general solution is

$$y = C_1 e^{2x} \cos 3x + C_2 e^{2x} \sin 3x$$

The theory we have developed so far extends to higher-order linear homogeneous equations with constant coefficients. To solve

$$y^{(n)} + a_{n-1}y^{(n-1)} + \cdots + a_1y' + a_0y = 0$$

find the roots of the auxiliary equation

$$r^n + a_{n-1}r^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1r + a_0 = 0$$

and make the obvious generalizations of the second-order case. For example, if the auxiliary equation is

$$(r - \alpha_1)(r - \alpha_2) \cdots (r - \alpha_k)(r - \beta_1)^2 \cdots (r - \beta_l)^l(r - \gamma_1)^2 \cdots (r - \gamma_m)^m = 0$$

then the general solution to the differential equation is

$$y = C_1 e^{\alpha_1 x} + C_2 e^{\alpha_2 x} + \cdots + C_k e^{\alpha_k x} + C_{k+1} e^{\beta_1 x} + C_{k+2} e^{\beta_1 x} + \cdots + C_{k+l} e^{\beta_l x} + \cdots + C_{k+l+m} e^{\gamma_1 x} + \cdots + C_{k+l+m} e^{\gamma_m x}$$

**EXAMPLE 5** Solve  $y'' + 4y' + 4y = 0$ .

**SOLUTION** The auxiliary equation is

$$r^2 + 4r + 4 = 0 \quad (r + 2)^2 = 0$$

with roots  $-2, -2$ , and a double root of  $0$ . Hence, the general solution is

$$y = C_1 + C_2 x + C_3 e^{-2x} + C_4 x e^{-2x}$$

## Concepts Review

The auxiliary equation corresponding to the differential equation  $y'' + a_1y' + a_0y = 0$  is  $r^2 + a_1r + a_0 = 0$ . This equation has two roots,  $r_1$  and  $r_2$ , which may be equal or distinct.

1. The general solution to  $y'' + 4y' + 4y = 0$  is

3. The general solution to  $y'' + 4y' + 4y = 0$  is

4. The general solution to  $y'' + 4y' + 4y = 0$  is

## Problem Set 15.1

In Problems 1–10, solve each differential equation.

1.  $y'' - 2y' + 4y = 0$

2.  $y'' + 5y' + 6y = 0$

3.  $y'' + 4y' - 7y = 0$ ;  $y = 0$ ,  $y' = 4$  at  $x = 0$

4.  $y'' + 4y' + 4y = 0$ ;  $y = 0$ ,  $y' = 2$  at  $x = 0$

5.  $y'' + 4y' + 4y = 0$

6.  $y'' + 4y' + 4y = 0$

7.  $y'' + 4y' + 4y = 0$

8.  $y'' + 4y' + 4y = 0$

9.  $y'' + 4y' + 4y = 0$ ;  $y = 0$ ,  $y' = 4$  at  $x = 0$

10.  $y'' + 4y' + 4y = 0$ ;  $y = 0$ ,  $y' = 2$  at  $x = 0$

11.  $y'' + 4y' + 4y = 0$

12.  $y'' + 4y' + 4y = 0$

13.  $y'' + 4y' + 4y = 0$

14.  $y'' + 4y' + 4y = 0$

15.  $y'' + 4y' + 4y = 0$

16.  $(y'' + 4y' + 4y = 0)$ ;  $y = 0$

17. Solve  $y'' + 4y' + 4y = 0$  and express your answer in terms of the homogeneous equation  $y'' + 4y' + 4y = 0$ .

18. Show that the solution of

$$y'' + 4y' + 4y = 0$$

can be written as

$$y = C_1 e^{-2x} \cos 2x + C_2 e^{-2x} \sin 2x$$

19. Solve  $y'' + 4y' + 4y = 0$  and express your answer in terms of the homogeneous equation  $y'' + 4y' + 4y = 0$ .

20. Solve  $y'' + 4y' + 4y = 0$  and express your answer in terms of the homogeneous equation  $y'' + 4y' + 4y = 0$ . Let  $y = C_1 e^{-2x} \cos 2x + C_2 e^{-2x} \sin 2x$  where  $C_1 = 1$  and  $C_2 = 0$ .

21. Solve  $x^2 y'' + 5xy' + 4y = 0$  by first making the substitution  $y = v^2$ .

22. Show that the substitution  $x = t$  transforms the Euler equation  $ax^2 y'' + bx y' + cy = 0$  to a homogeneous linear equation with constant coefficients.

23. Show that if  $r_1$  and  $r_2$  are distinct real roots of the auxiliary equation, then  $y = C_1 x^{r_1} + C_2 x^{r_2}$  is a solution of  $y'' + p y' + q y = 0$ .

24. Show that if  $\alpha \pm \beta i$  are complex conjugate roots of the auxiliary equation, then  $y = C_1 e^{\alpha x} \sin \beta x + C_2 e^{\alpha x} \cos \beta x$  is a solution of  $y'' + p_1 y' + p_2 y = 0$ .

25. Recall that complex numbers have the form  $a + bi$ , where  $a$  and  $b$  are real. These numbers behave much like the real numbers, with the provision that  $i^2 = -1$ . Show each of the following.

(a)  $e^{i\theta} = \cos \theta + i \sin \theta$ . Hint: Use the Maclaurin series for  $e^x$ ,  $\cos \theta$ , and  $\sin \theta$ .

(b)  $e^{a+bi} = e^{ax}(\cos bx + i \sin bx)$   
 $\frac{d}{dx} e^{a+bi} = (a+bi)e^{a+bi}$

26. Let the roots of the auxiliary equation  $r^2 + ar + b = 0$  be  $\alpha \pm \beta i$ . From Theorem 25, it follows that as in the real case that  $y = C_1 e^{(\alpha+\beta i)x} + C_2 e^{(\alpha-\beta i)x}$  satisfies  $(D^2 + aD + b)y = 0$ . Show that this solution can be rewritten in the form

$$y = C_3 e^{\alpha x} \cos \beta x + C_4 e^{\alpha x} \sin \beta x$$

giving another approach to Theorem 6.

[CAS] Use a CAS to solve each of the following equations.

27.  $y'' + y = 0$

28.  $y'' + 5y' + 6.25y = 0$ ;  $y(0) = 1$ ,  $y'(0) = 4$

29.  $x^2 y'' + y' + 3y = 0$ ;  $y(1) = 0$ ,  $y'(1) = 1/25$

30.  $y'' + y = 0$ ;  $y(0) = 2.5$ ,  $y'(0) = -5$

Answers to odd-numbered Review Problems are given in the text. Answers to even-numbered Review Problems are given in the Answers to Odd-Numbered Problems section.

## 15.2 Nonhomogeneous Equations

Consider the general nonhomogeneous second-order equation with constant coefficients

$$(1) \quad y'' + p_1 y' + p_2 y = k(x)$$

Solving this equation can be reduced to three steps.

1. Find the general solution

$$y_h = C_1 y_1(x) + C_2 y_2(x) = y_{h1} + y_{h2}$$

to the corresponding homogeneous equation (1) with  $k(x) = 0$ . In general,  $y_{h1}$  and  $y_{h2}$  are linearly independent solutions.

2. Find a particular solution  $y_p$  to the nonhomogeneous equation.

3. Add the solutions from Steps 1 and 2.

We state the result as a formal theorem.

### Theorem 4

If  $y_p$  is any particular solution to the nonhomogeneous equation

$$(2) \quad y'' + p_1 y' + p_2 y = a_{n-1} D^{n-1} y + \cdots + a_1 D y + a_0 y = k(x)$$

and if  $y_h$  is the general solution to the corresponding homogeneous equation, then

$$y = y_p + y_h$$

is the general solution of (2).

**Proof** The linearity of the operator  $L$  is the key element in the proof. Let  $y_p$  and  $y_h$  be as described. Then

$$L(y_p + y_h) = L(y_p) + L(y_h) = k(x) + 0$$

and so  $y = y_p + y_h$  is a solution to (2).

Conversely, let  $y$  be any solution to (2). Then

$$L(y - y_p) = L(y) - L(y_p) = k(x) - k(x) = 0$$

and so  $y = e^{-x}$  is a solution to the homogeneous equation. Consequently  $y = e^{-x} + e^{-x}$  can be written as  $y = 2e^{-x}$ , giving a solution to the homogeneous equation, as we wished to show.  $\blacksquare$

Now we apply this result to second-order equations.

**THEOREM 18.1** Let  $y'' + p(x)y' + q(x)y = f(x)$ , where  $p$  and  $q$  are continuous. The results of the previous section show us how to find the general solution to the homogeneous equation. We now seek to find a particular solution  $y_p$  to the nonhomogeneous equation. One such method of finding such a solution is the method of undetermined coefficients, in which we make an educated guess as to the possible form of  $y_p$  (depending on the form of  $f(x)$ ).

Usually, the functions  $f(x)$  that appear in applications are built from exponentials, sines, and cosines. For these functions we offer a procedure for finding  $y_p$  based on trial solutions.

| If $f(x) =$                            | Try $y_p$                           |
|--|-------------------------------------|
| $A_0x^n + \cdots + A_1x + A_0$         | $B_0x^n + \cdots + B_1x + B_0$      |
| $A_0e^{ax}$                            | $B_0e^{ax}$                         |
| $A_0\cos \beta x$ or $A_0\sin \beta x$ | $B_0\cos \beta x + C_0\sin \beta x$ |

Method Note If a term of  $f(x)$  is a solution to the homogeneous equation, multiply the trial solution by  $x$  (or perhaps by a higher power of  $x$ ).

To illustrate the table, we suggest the appropriate trial solution in six cases. The first three are straightforward; the last three are motivated by using a method of the perturbation of the differential equation to suggest an appropriate form for the unknown solution.

|   |                                 |   |
|---|---------------------------------|---|
| 1. $y'' + 4y = 1$                                   | $y_1 = 1$                       | $f(x) = A_0$                                  |
| 2. $y'' + 4y = e^x$                                 | $y_2 = e^x$                     | $f(x) = B_0e^{ax}$                            |
| 3. $y'' + 4y = \sin x$                              | $y_3 = \sin x$                  | $f(x) = B_0\cos \beta x$ or $C_0\sin \beta x$ |
| 4. $y'' + 4y = x^2$                                 | $y_4 = \frac{1}{4}x^2$          | $f(x) = B_0x^n + \cdots + B_1x + B_0$         |
| (2 is a solution to the homogeneous equation)       |                                 |   |
| 5. $y'' + 4y = e^{2x}$                              | $y_5 = \frac{1}{2}xe^{2x}$      | $f(x) = B_0e^{ax}$                            |
| $e^{2x}$ is a solution to the homogeneous equation  |                                 |   |
| 6. $y'' + 4y = \sin 2x$                             | $y_6 = B_1\cos 2x + C_1\sin 2x$ | $f(x) = B_0\cos \beta x$ or $C_0\sin \beta x$ |
| $\sin 2x$ is a solution to the homogeneous equation |                                 |   |

Next we carry out the details in four specific examples.

**EXAMPLE 1** Solve  $y'' + y = 2e^{-2x} + 10e^{-x} + 1$ .

**SOLUTION** The auxiliary equation  $r^2 + 1 = 0$  has roots  $\pm i$  and  $\pm 2i$ , and so

$$y_h = C_1e^{-2x} + C_2e^{2x}.$$

To find a particular solution to the nonhomogeneous equation, we try

$$y = A_1x^2 + B_1x + C_1.$$

Substitution of this expression in the differential equation gives

$$2A_1 + (2A_1x + B_1) + (A_1x^2 + B_1x + C_1) = 2e^{-2x} + 10e^{-x} + 1.$$

Equating coefficients of  $x^2$ ,  $x$ , and 1, we find that

$$2A = 2, \quad 2A + 2B = 0, \quad 2A + B = 0,$$

or  $A = 1$ ,  $B = -1$ , and  $C = 0$ . Hence,

$$y = x^2 - 4x + 3,$$

which

$$y'' = x^2 + 4x - 3 = f(x) = x^2 + 4x - 3.$$

**EXAMPLE 2** Solve  $y'' + y' - 2y = 3e^{3x}$ .

**SOLUTION** Since the auxiliary equation  $\lambda^2 + \lambda - 2 = 0$  has roots  $\lambda = 1$  and  $\lambda = -2$ , we have

$$y_h = C_1 e^{x} + C_2 e^{-2x}.$$

Note that  $\lambda = 3$  is a solution to the homogeneous equation. Thus we use the *modified* trial solution

$$y_p = Hx e^{3x}.$$

Substituting  $y_p$  in the differential equation gives

$$(H)e^{3x} + 3(Hx)e^{3x} - 2(Hx)e^{3x} = 3e^{3x}$$

or

$$(H)e^{3x} + H(3x - 2x)e^{3x} = 3e^{3x} \quad \text{or} \quad H(1 + x - 2x) = 3$$

or finally,

$$4He^{3x} = 3e^{3x}.$$

We conclude that  $H = 3/4$  and

$$y = 2xe^{3x} + C_1 e^{x} + C_2 e^{-2x}.$$

If  $\lambda$  had been a double root of the auxiliary equation in Example 2, we would have used  $Bx^2 e^{3x}$  as our trial solution.

**EXAMPLE 3** Solve  $y'' + 2y' + 3y = \cos 2x$ .

**SOLUTION** The homogeneous equation agrees with the example 1, and we

$$y_h = C_1 e^{-x} + C_2 e^{-3x}.$$

For the trial solution  $y_p$  we use

$$y_p = B \cos 2x + C \sin 2x.$$

Now

$$Dy_p = -2B \sin 2x + 2C \cos 2x$$

$$D^2 y_p = -4B \cos 2x - 4C \sin 2x.$$

Hence substitution in the differential equation gives (after collecting like terms)

$$(-4B + 3C) \cos 2x + (4B - 3C) \sin 2x = \cos 2x.$$

Thus  $-4B + 3C = 1$  and  $4B - 3C = 0$ , which imply that  $B = -1/10$  and  $C = 1/10$ . We conclude that

$$y = -\frac{1}{10} \cos 2x + \frac{1}{10} \sin 2x + C_1 e^{-x} + C_2 e^{-3x}.$$



**EXAMPLE 4** Solve  $y'' - 2y' + 2y = \cos 2x$  on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

**SOLUTION** Combining the results of Examples 2 and 3 and using the linearity of the operator  $D^2 - 2D + 2$ , we obtain

$$y = y_h + y_p = e^x [C_1 \cos 2x + C_2 \sin 2x] + \frac{4}{65} \sin 2x + C_3 e^{-x} + C_4 x e^{-x}.$$

**THEOREM 18.1** Let  $y_1(x)$  and  $y_2(x)$  be two linearly independent solutions of the homogeneous equation  $y'' + p(x)y' + q(x)y = 0$ . If  $y_p(x)$  is a particular solution of the nonhomogeneous equation  $y'' + p(x)y' + q(x)y = b(x)$ , then the general solution of the nonhomogeneous equation is

$$y = y_1(x)C_1 + y_2(x)C_2 + y_p(x)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} y_1'(x)C_1 + y_2'(x)C_2 &= 0 \\ y_1''(x)C_1 + y_2''(x)C_2 &= b(x) \end{aligned}$$

We show how this method works in an example.

**EXAMPLE 5** Find the general solution of  $y'' + y = \sec x$ .

**SOLUTION** The general solution to the homogeneous equation is

$$y_h = C_1 \cos x + C_2 \sin x$$

To find a particular solution to the nonhomogeneous equation, we let

$$y_p = r_1(x) \cos x + r_2(x) \sin x$$

and impose the conditions

$$\begin{aligned} r_1'(x) \cos x + r_2'(x) \sin x &= 0 \\ -r_1'(x) \sin x + r_2'(x) \cos x &= \sec x \end{aligned}$$

When we solve this system of equations for  $r_1$  and  $r_2$ , we obtain  $r_1 = -\ln |\cos x|$  and  $r_2 = x$ . Thus

$$\begin{aligned} r_1 &= -\int \tan x \, dx = -\ln |\cos x| \\ r_2(x) &= \int dx = x \end{aligned}$$

(We can omit the arbitrary constants in the above integrals since they will drop out when  $r_1$  and  $r_2$  are substituted into the equation.) A particular solution is therefore

$$y_p = (\ln |\cos x|) \cos x + x \sin x$$

a result that is easy to check by direct substitution in the original differential equation. We conclude that

$$y = (\ln |\cos x|) \cos x + x \sin x + C_1 \cos x + C_2 \sin x$$

## Concepts Review

1. The general solution to a nonhomogeneous equation has the form  $y = y_h + y_p$ , where  $y_h$  is a general solution of the homogeneous equation and  $y_p$  is the particular solution of the nonhomogeneous equation.

2. Thus, after noting that  $y'' + y = 6$  has the particular solution  $y = 6$ , we conclude that the general solution is  $y = C_1 \cos x + C_2 \sin x + 6$ .

3. If the nonhomogeneous term is a trigonometric function, a particular solution of the form  $y_p = A \cos x + B \sin x$  is often appropriate.

4. The method of undetermined coefficients suggests trying a particular solution of the form  $y_p = Ax^2 + Bx + C$  for the equation  $y'' + y = x^2$ .

## Problem Set 15.2

61. Problem 26 asks for the method of undetermined coefficients. Use this method to solve each differential equation.

1.  $y'' = e^x$
2.  $y'' = x^2$
3.  $y'' + y = e^x$
4.  $y'' + y = \cos x$
5.  $y'' + y = e^{ix}$
6.  $y'' + y = \sin x$
7.  $y'' + y = x^2$
8.  $y'' + y = x^3$
9.  $y'' + y = \sin x$
10.  $y'' + y = \cos x$
11.  $y'' + y = e^{ix}$
12.  $y'' + y = e^{ix}$
13.  $y'' + y = \sin x$
14.  $y'' + y = \cos x$
15.  $y'' + y = e^{ix}$
16.  $y'' + y = \sin x$

62. Problem 26 asks for the method of undetermined coefficients. Use this method to solve each differential equation.

17.  $y'' + 3y' + 2y = 3x + 2$
18.  $y'' + 4y = x^2$

$$19. y'' + y = \cos x$$

$$20. y'' + y = \sin x$$

21.  $y'' + y = e^{ix}$

$$22. y'' + y = \cos x$$

$$23. y'' + y = \sin x$$

24. Solve  $y'' + 4y = \sin x$

$$25. y'' + y = \cos x$$

$$26. y'' + y = \sin x$$

$$27. y'' + y = \cos x$$

$$28. y'' + y = \sin x$$

$$29. y'' + y = \cos x$$

$$30. y'' + y = \sin x$$

## Applications of Second-Order Equations

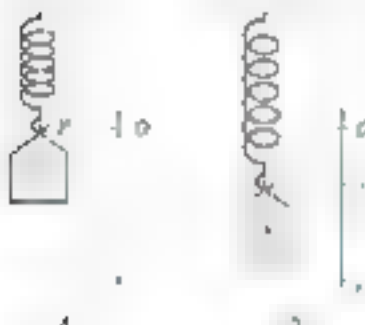


Figure 2

Many problems in physics lead to second-order differential equations. We have considered the problem of a mass suspended from a spring. This is a problem that we return to and generalize in a later section. Let us first consider a mass suspended from a spring.

Consider a mass  $m$  suspended from a spring with spring constant  $k$ . The mass is displaced from its equilibrium position by a distance  $x$ . The force exerted by the spring is  $F = -kx$ . We want to consider the motion of the mass. The force exerted by the spring is  $F = -kx$ . The force exerted by gravity is  $F = mg$ . The net force is  $F = -kx + mg$ . The equation of motion is  $m \ddot{x} = -kx + mg$ . We will assume that the mass is released from rest at  $x = 0$ .

According to Hooke's Law, the force  $F$  tending to restore  $P$  to its equilibrium position at  $x = 0$  satisfies  $F = -kx$ , where  $k$  is a constant depending on the elasticity of the spring and  $x$  is the displacement of  $P$  from the Newmark level. The weight  $F = mg = (mg/g)$ , where  $g$  is the weight of the object  $A$  and  $g$  is the acceleration of gravity. The constant acceleration due to gravity is  $g = 9.8 \text{ m/s}^2$ . Thus

$$m \ddot{x} = -kx + mg$$

is the differential equation of the motion. The solution of this equation is  $x(t) = A \cos \omega t + B \sin \omega t$ , where  $A$  and  $B$  are constants depending on the initial conditions. The initial conditions are  $x(0) = 0$  and  $\dot{x}(0) = 0$ .

If we let  $B = 0$  and  $A = 0$ , then the equation takes the form

$$\ddot{x} = -\omega^2 x$$

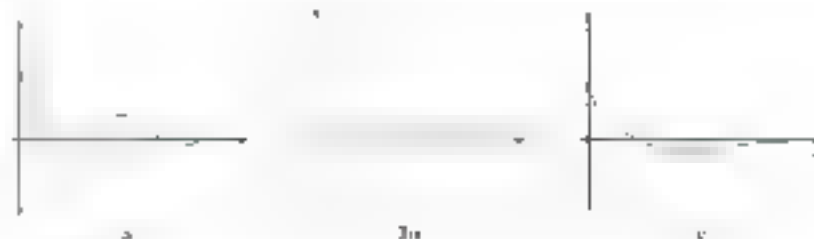
and has the general solution

$$x = C_1 \cos \omega t + C_2 \sin \omega t$$

The conditions  $x(0) = 0$  and  $\dot{x}(0) = 0$  make the constants  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  equal to zero. Thus the object is released with an initial velocity  $\dot{x}(0) = 0$  and  $x(0) = 0$ . Thus

$$x = 0$$

We say that the spring is executing simple harmonic motion with amplitude  $A$  and period  $2\pi/\omega$  (Figure 2).



**Case 2:**  $E^2 < 4B^2 < 0$  In this case, the auxiliary equation has two complex roots  $\alpha$  where  $\alpha = E/2$  and the general solution of the differential equation is

$$y = e^{\alpha t} (C_1 \cos \beta t + C_2 \sin \beta t)$$

The motion described by this equation is said to be **critically damped**. ■

**Case 3:**  $E^2 > 4B^2 > 0$  The auxiliary equation has roots  $m_1$  and  $m_2$ , and the general solution of the differential equation is

$$y = C_1 e^{m_1 t} + C_2 e^{m_2 t}$$

It describes a motion that is said to be **overdamped**.

The graphs of the critically damped and overdamped cases of the homogeneous equation all start at the origin and only look something like Figure 15.1.3c. ■

**EXAMPLE 1** If a damping force  $F = -2y$  is imposed on the system of Example 1, find the equation of motion.

**SOLUTION**  $F = -2y$  implies  $B = 1$  and  $E = 0$ . Thus  $E^2 < 4B^2$  and the auxiliary equation is

$$r^2 + 0.32 = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad r = \pm i\sqrt{0.32}$$

The auxiliary equation has roots  $r = \pm i\sqrt{0.32} = \pm i\sqrt{0.32/4} = \pm i\sqrt{0.08} = \pm i\sqrt{2}/10$  and thus

$$y = e^{-0.16t} (C_1 \cos 4t + C_2 \sin 4t)$$

When we impose the conditions  $y = 2$  and  $y' = 0$  at  $t = 0$ , we find that  $C_1 = 2$  and  $C_2 = 0.04$ . Consequently,

$$y = e^{-0.16t} (2 \cos 4t + 0.04 \sin 4t)$$

**EXAMPLE 2** Consider a circuit (Fig. 4) with a resistor  $R$  ohms, an inductor  $L$  henrys, and a capacitor  $C$  farads in series with a source of electromotive force  $E(t)$  volts. The new variable of comparison in the circuit of Section 15.1 is the presence of a capacitor  $C$  when  $C > 0$  is assumed. If  $Q$  is the charge on the capacitor measured in coulombs, satisfies

$$(1) \quad L \frac{d^2 Q}{dt^2} + R \frac{dQ}{dt} + \frac{1}{C} Q = E(t)$$

The current  $I = dQ/dt$  measured in amperes satisfies the equation obtained by differentiating equation (1) with respect to  $t$ ; that is,

$$(2) \quad L \frac{dI}{dt} + R I + \frac{1}{C} \int I dt = E(t)$$

These equations can be solved by the methods of Sections 5.4 and 5.5 for many functions  $E(t)$ .



**EXAMPLE 3** Find the charge  $Q$  and the current  $I$  as functions of time  $t$  in an  $RCL$  circuit (Figure 4) if  $R = 16$ ,  $L = 0.02$ ,  $C = 2 \times 10^{-4}$ , and  $E = 12$ . Assume that  $Q = 0$  and  $I = 0$  at  $t = 0$  (when the switch is closed).

**SOLUTION** By Kirchhoff's Law as expressed in equation (1),

$$\frac{d^2Q}{dt^2} + 800 \frac{dQ}{dt} - 250,000Q = 600$$

The auxiliary equation has roots

$$\frac{-800 \pm \sqrt{640,000 - 1,500,000}}{2} = -400 \pm 300i$$

so

$$Q_h = e^{-400t} (C_1 \cos 300t + C_2 \sin 300t)$$

By inspection, a particular solution is  $Q_p = 3.4 \times 10^{-3}$ . Therefore, the general solution is

$$Q = 3.4 \times 10^{-3} + e^{-400t} (C_1 \cos 300t + C_2 \sin 300t)$$

When we impose the given initial conditions, we find that  $C_1 = -2.4 \times 10^{-3}$  and  $C_2 = 3.2 \times 10^{-3}$ . We conclude that

$$Q = 10^{-3} [2.4 - e^{-400t} (2.4 \cos 300t + 3.2 \sin 300t)]$$

and, by differentiation, that

$$I = \frac{dQ}{dt} = 2e^{-400t} \sin 300t$$

## Concepts Review

1. A spring that vibrates without friction might obey a law of motion such as  $y = 3 \cos 2t$ . We say it is executing simple harmonic motion with amplitude \_\_\_\_\_ and period \_\_\_\_\_.

2. A spring vibrating in the presence of friction might obey a law of motion such as  $y = 3e^{-t/2} \cos 2t$ , called damped harmonic motion. The "period" is still \_\_\_\_\_, but now the amplitude \_\_\_\_\_ as time increases.

3. If the friction is very great, the law of motion might take the form  $y = 3e^{-2t} + 1e^{-3t}$ , the critically damped case, in which  $y$  slowly fades to \_\_\_\_\_ as time increases.

4. Kirchhoff's Law says that  $q(t)$  \_\_\_\_\_ satisfies a second-order linear differential equation.

## Problem Set 15.3

1. A spring with a spring constant  $k$  of 250 newtons per meter is loaded with a 10-kilogram mass and allowed to reach equilibrium. It is then raised 0.5 meter and released. Find the equation of motion and the period. Neglect friction.

2. A spring with a spring constant  $k$  of 100 pounds per foot is loaded with a 1-pound weight and brought to equilibrium. It is then stretched an additional 1 inch and released. Find the equation of motion, the amplitude, and the period. Neglect friction.

3. In Problem 1, what is the absolute value of the velocity of the moving weight as it passes through the equilibrium position?

4. A 10-pound weight stretches a spring 4 inches. This weight is removed and replaced with a 20-pound weight, which is then allowed to reach equilibrium. The weight is next raised

1 foot and released with an initial velocity of 2 feet per second downward. What is the equation of motion? Neglect friction.

5. A spring with a spring constant  $k$  of 20 pounds per foot is loaded with a 10-pound weight and allowed to reach equilibrium. It is then displaced 1 foot downward and released. If the weight experiences a retarding force in pounds equal to one-tenth the velocity, find the equation of motion.

6. Determine the motion in Problem 5 if the retarding force equals four times the velocity at every point.

7. In Problem 5, how long will it take the oscillations to diminish to one-tenth their original amplitude?

8. In Problem 5, what will be the equation of motion if the weight is given an upward velocity of 1 foot per second at the moment of release?



Figure 5

9. Using Figure 5, find the charge  $Q$  on the capacitor as a function of time if  $S$  is closed at  $t = 0$ . Assume that the capacitor is initially uncharged.

10. Find the current  $i$  as a function of time in Problem 9 if the capacitor has an initial charge of 4 coulombs.

11. Use Figure 6.

(a) Find  $Q$  as a function of time. Assume that the capacitor is initially uncharged.

(b) Find  $i$  as a function of time.

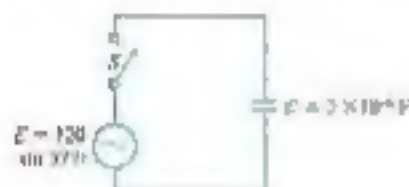


Figure 6

12. Using Figure 7, find the current  $i$  as a function of time if the capacitor is initially uncharged and  $S$  is closed at  $t = 0$ . *Hint:* The current at  $t = 0$  will equal 0, since the current through an inductor cannot change instantaneously.

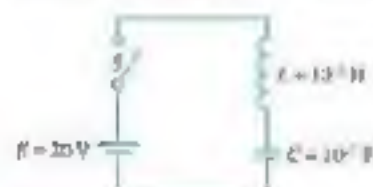


Figure 7

13. Using Figure 8, find the steady-state current as a function of time; that is, find a formula for  $i$  that is valid when  $t$  is very large ( $t \rightarrow \infty$ ).

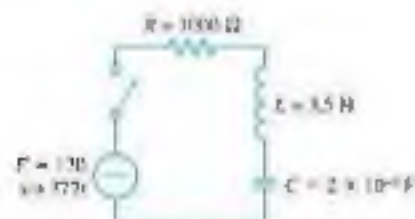


Figure 8

14. Suppose that an undamped spring is subjected to an external periodic force so that its differential equation has the form

$$\frac{d^2 y}{dt^2} + B^2 y = c \sin At, \quad \mu > 0$$

(a) Show that the equation of motion for  $A \neq B$  is

$$y = C_1 \cos Bt + C_2 \sin Bt + \frac{c}{B^2 - A^2} \sin At$$

(b) Solve the differential equation when  $A = B$  (the resonance case).

(c) What happens to the amplitude of the motion in part (b) when  $t \rightarrow \infty$ ?

15. Show that  $C_1 \cos Bt + C_2 \sin Bt$  can be written in the form  $A \sin(Bt - \gamma)$ . *Hint:* Let  $A = \sqrt{C_1^2 + C_2^2}$ ,  $\sin \gamma = C_1/A$ , and  $\cos \gamma = C_2/A$ .

16. Show that the motion of part (c) of Problem 14 is periodic if  $B/A$  is rational.

17. Refer to Figure 9, which shows a pendulum bob of mass  $m$  supported by a weightless wire of length  $L$ . Derive the equation of motion; that is, derive the differential equation satisfied by  $\theta$ . *Suggestion:* Use the fact from Section 11.7 that the scalar tangential component of the acceleration is  $d^2 s/dt^2$ , where  $s$  measures arc length in the counterclockwise direction.



Figure 9

18. The equation derived in Problem 17 is nonlinear, but for small  $\theta$  it is customary to approximate it by the equation

$$\frac{d^2 \theta}{dt^2} + \frac{g}{L} \theta = 0$$

Here  $g = GM/R^2$ , where  $G$  is a universal constant,  $M$  is the mass of the earth, and  $R$  is the distance from the pendulum to the center of the earth. Two clocks, with pendulums of length  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  and located at distances  $R_1$  and  $R_2$  from the center of the earth, have periods  $p_1$  and  $p_2$ , respectively.

(a) Show that  $\frac{p_1}{p_2} = \frac{R_1 \sqrt{L_1}}{R_2 \sqrt{L_2}}$ .

(b) Find the height of a mountain if a clock that kept perfect time at sea level ( $R = 3960$  miles) with  $L = 81$  inches had to have its pendulum shortened to  $L = 80.65$  inches to keep perfect time at the top of the mountain.

**Answers to Concepts Review:** 1. 3 or 2.  $\pi$  decreases  
3. 0 4. electric circuit



## 15.4 Chapter Review

### Concepts Test

Respond with true or false to each of the following assertions. Be prepared to justify your answers.

- $y'' + y^2 = 0$  is a linear differential equation.
- $y'' - x^2 y = 0$  is a linear differential equation.
- $y = \tan x + \sec x$  is a solution of  $2y' - y^2 = 1$ .
- The general solution to  $[D^2 + aD + b]y = 0$  should involve eight arbitrary constants.
- $D^3$  is a linear operator.
- If  $u_1(x)$  and  $u_2(x)$  are two solutions to  $y'' + a_1 y' + a_2 y = f(x)$ , then  $C_1 u_1(x) + C_2 u_2(x)$  is also a solution.
- The general solution to  $y'' + 3y' + 3y + y = 0$  is  $y = C_1 e^{-x} + C_2 x e^{-x} + C_3 x^2 e^{-x}$ .
- If  $u_1(x)$  and  $u_2(x)$  are solutions to the linear differential equation  $L(y) = f(x)$ , then  $u_1(x) + u_2(x)$  is a solution to  $L(y) = 0$ .
- The equation  $y'' - 9y = 2 \sin 3x$  has a particular solution of the form  $y_p = A \sin 3x + C \cos 3x$ .
- An expression of the form  $C_1 \cos \beta t + C_2 \sin \beta t$  can always be written in the form  $A \sin (\beta t + \gamma)$ .

### Sample Test Problems

In Problems 1–11, solve each differential equation.

- $\frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} + 1 \frac{dy}{dx} = e^x$  *Suggestion:* Let  $u = dy/dx$ .
- $y'' - y = 0$
- $y' + 3y' + 2y = 0, y = 0, y' = 1$  when  $x = 0$
- $4y'' + 12y' + 9y = 0$
- $x^2 - y = 1$

- $y'' + 4x' + 4x = 3e^x$
- $y'' - 4y' + 4y = e^{-2x}$
- $y'' + 4y = 0, y = 0, y' = 2$  when  $x = 0$
- $y'' + 6x' + 25y = 0$
- $y'' - y = \sec x \cos x$
- $y^{(4)} - 3y'' + 10y = 1$
- $y^{(4)} - 4y'' + 4y = 0$

14. Suppose that glucose is infused into the bloodstream of a patient at the rate of 3 grams per minute, but that the patient's body converts and removes glucose from the blood at a rate proportional to the amount present (with constant of proportionality 0.02). If  $Q(t)$  is the amount present at time  $t$  and  $Q(0) = 120$ ,
- write the differential equation for  $Q$ ;
  - solve this differential equation;
  - determine what happens to  $Q$  in the long run.

15. A spring with a spring constant  $k$  of 5 pounds per foot is loaded with a 10-pound weight and allowed to reach equilibrium. It is then raised 1 foot and released. What are the equation of motion, the amplitude, and the period? Neglect friction.

16. In Problem 15, what is the absolute value of the velocity of the moving weight as it passes through the equilibrium position?

17. Suppose the switch of the circuit in Figure 1 is closed at  $t = 0$ . Find  $I$  as a function of time if  $C$  is initially uncharged. (The current at  $t = 0$  will equal zero, since current through an inductor cannot change instantaneously.)

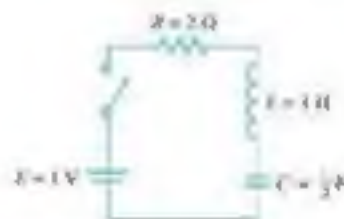


Figure 1

**EXAMPLE 3** When an object weighing 5 pounds is attached to the lowest point  $P$  of a spring that hangs vertically, the spring is extended 6 inches. The 5-pound weight is replaced by a 20-pound weight, and the system is allowed to come to equilibrium. If the 20-pound weight is now pulled downward another 2 feet and then released, describe the motion of the lowest point  $P$  of the spring.

**SOLUTION** The first sentence of the example allows us to determine the spring constant. By Hooke's Law,  $|f| = kx$ , where  $x$  is the amount in feet that the spring is stretched, and so  $5 = 4\frac{1}{2}k$ , or  $k = 10$ . Now put the origin at the equilibrium point after the 20-pound weight has been attached. From the derivation just before the example, we know that  $y = y_0 \cos Bt$ . In the present case,  $y_0 = 2$  and  $B^2 = kg/w = (10)(32)/20 = 16$ . We conclude that

$$y = 2 \cos 4t$$

The motion of  $P$  is simple harmonic motion, with period  $\frac{1}{2}\pi$  and amplitude 2 feet. That is,  $P$  oscillates up and down from 2 feet below 0 to 2 feet above 0 and then back to 2 feet below 0 every  $\frac{1}{2}\pi \approx 1.57$  seconds. ■

**Damped Vibrations** So far we have assumed a simplified situation, in which there is no friction either within the spring or resulting from the resistance of the air. We can take friction into account by assuming a retarding force that is proportional to the velocity  $dy/dt$ . The differential equation describing the motion then takes the form

$$\frac{w}{g} \frac{d^2 y}{dt^2} = -ky - q \frac{dy}{dt} \quad k > 0, q > 0$$

By letting  $E = qg/w$  and  $B^2 = kg/w$ , this equation can be written as

$$\frac{d^2 y}{dt^2} + E \frac{dy}{dt} + B^2 y = 0$$

an equation for which the methods of Section 15.1 apply. The auxiliary equation for this second-order linear differential equation is  $r^2 + Er + B^2 = 0$ , so the roots are

$$-E \pm \sqrt{E^2 - 4B^2}$$

We must consider the cases where  $E^2 - 4B^2$  is negative, zero, and positive.

**Case 1:  $E^2 - 4B^2 < 0$**  In this case, the roots are complex:

$$r = \frac{-E}{-2} \pm \frac{i}{2} \sqrt{4B^2 - E^2} = \alpha \pm \beta i$$

Notice that  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  will both be positive. The general solution of the differential equation is thus

$$y = e^{-\alpha t} (C_1 \cos \beta t + C_2 \sin \beta t)$$

which can be written in the form (see Problem 15)

$$y = Ae^{-\alpha t} \sin(\beta t + \gamma)$$

The factor  $e^{-\alpha t}$ , called the **damping factor**, causes the amplitude of the motion to approach zero as  $t \rightarrow \infty$  (Figure 3a). ■